



UNITED NATIONS
ZAMBIA



UN Common Country Analysis 2021







Table of Contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| List of acronyms | 7 |
| List of figures | 9 |
| List of tables | 9 |
| Executive Summary | 10 |
| Introduction | 14 |
| Chapter 1. Country Context | 16 |
| 1.1. Political Analysis | 17 |
| 1.2. Economic context | 19 |
| 1.3. Social dimension of the SDGs | 22 |
| 1.4. Environmental challenges | 27 |
| 1.5. Humanitarian – Development and Peace Nexus | 31 |
| Chapter 2. National Vision for Sustainable Development | 34 |
| Chapter 3. Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals | 38 |
| 3.1. People: SDG 1, SDG 2, SDG 3, SDG 4, SDG 5, SDG 6 | 40 |
| SDG 1. End Poverty in all its Forms Everywhere | 40 |
| SDG 2. End Hunger, Achieve Food Security and Improved Nutrition and Promote Sustainable Agriculture | 41 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| SDG 3. Ensure Healthy Lives and Promote Well-Being for All at All Ages | 44 |
| SDG 4. Ensure Inclusive and Equitable Quality Education and Promote Lifelong Learning Opportunities for All | 46 |
| SDG 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls | 49 |
| SDG 6: Ensure Availability & Sustainable Management of Water and Sanitation for All | 53 |
| 3.2. Prosperity: SDG 7, SDG 8, SDG 9, SDG 10 | 56 |
| SDG 7. Ensure Access to Affordable, Reliable, Sustainable and Modern Energy for All | 56 |
| SDG 8: Promote Sustained, Inclusive and Sustainable Economic Growth, Full and Productive Employment and Decent Work for All (1.5 pages) | 58 |
| SDG 9: Build Resilient Infrastructure, Promote Inclusive and Sustainable Industrialization and Foster Innovation | 61 |
| SDG 10: Reduce Inequality Within and Among Countries | 64 |
| 3.3. Planet: SDG 11, SDG 12, SDG 13, SDG 14, SDG 15 | 66 |
| SDG 11: Make Cities and Human Settlements Inclusive, Safe, Resilient and Sustainable | 66 |
| SDG 12: Ensure Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns | 68 |
| SDG 13: Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and Its Impacts | 71 |
| SDG 14: Conserve and Sustainably Use the Oceans, Seas and Marine Resources for Sustainable Development | 75 |
| SDG 15: Protect, Restore and Promote Sustainable Use of Terrestrial Ecosystems, Sustainably Manage forests, Combat Desertification, and Halt and Reverse Land Degradation and Halt Biodiversity Loss | 76 |
| 3.4. Peace: SDG 16 | 78 |
| SDG 16: Promote Peaceful and Inclusive Societies for Sustainable Development, Provide Access to Justice for All and Build Effective, Accountable and Inclusive Institutions at all Levels | 78 |
| 3.5. Partnerships: SDG 17 | 82 |
| SDG 17: Strengthen the Means of Implementation and Revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development | 82 |
| Chapter 4. Leave No One Behind | 86 |
| 4.1. Women and girls | 87 |
| 4.2. Children | 89 |
| 4.3. Young people | 92 |
| 4.4. Key Populations / Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) | 96 |
| 4.5. People with Disabilities | 98 |
| 4.6. Internally Displaced Persons, Migrants, Refugees, Returnees and other Groups | 100 |
| 4.7. Data Availability and Monitoring the SDGs | 104 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Chapter 5. Commitments under International Norms and Standards | 108 |
| Chapter 6. Cross Border and Regional Dimensions | 114 |
| 6.1. Impact of Cross-Border Issues and Regional Dimensions on the 2030 Agenda and SDGs Implementation | 115 |
| 6.2. Access or Barriers to Markets including Cross Border Trading in the Context of COVID-19 | 116 |
| 6.3. Illicit Financial Flows and Irregular Trade | 118 |
| 6.4. Opportunities and Challenges of Regional and Continental Cooperation Mechanisms on Zambian Economy | 119 |
| Chapter 7. Financial Landscape | 122 |
| 7.1. Financial Landscape for Sustainable Development | 123 |
| 7.2. Overview of the Financial Landscape for SDGs, including Domestic, Foreign, Public and Private Finance Resources | 124 |
| 7.3. Analysis of the National Budget Allocations and Identify Potential Opportunities for Leveraging SDG Financing for the Country | 124 |
| 7.4. Existing Mapping of Aid and Investment Flows | 126 |
| Chapter 8. Analysis of Risks | 130 |
| 8.1. Seven Main Risk Areas and their Impact on the other Risk Areas | 131 |
| 8.2. SDGs Affected by the Risk Areas | 134 |
| Chapter 9. Gaps and Challenges towards Achieving the 2030 Agenda | 136 |
| 9.1. Gaps under SDGs and Cross-Sectoral Linkages within the Broader Political, Economic, Social, and Environmental Context at Country and Regional Level | 137 |
| 9.2. Challenges Preventing Economic Transformation & Sustainable, Pro-Poor Growth | 137 |
| 9.3. Obstacles Preventing Social Equity and Pose Risks that those Being Left Behind | 138 |
| 9.4. Institutional Transformation in Policy Frameworks, Coordination, and Implementation Capacities | 141 |
| 9.5. Challenges in Setting up a Greenfield Business and doing Business in Zambia | 143 |
| Annexes | 144 |
| Annex 1. Examples of National Policies, Frameworks and Legislation Promoting Non-Discrimination of Women on The Basis of Sex | 144 |
| Annex 2. Status of SDG Indicators Reported by Goal, Zambia 2020 | 145 |
| Annex 3. Selected List of Conventions, Commitments and Treaties Ratified by Zambia or to which Zambia Committed | 146 |
| Annex 4. Recommendations to Zambia from Human Rights Mechanisms | 149 |

List of acronyms

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| 7NDP | Seventh National Development Plan |
| 8NDP | Eighth National Development Plan |
| AfCFTA | African Continental Free Trade Area |
| CCA | Common Country Analysis |
| COMESA | Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa |
| COVID-19 | Coronavirus Disease |
| CRC | Convention on the Rights of the Child |
| CRPD | Convention on the Rights of People with Disability |
| CSEN | Children with Special Education Needs |
| DRC | Democratic Republic of Congo |
| DRM | Domestic Revenue Mobilization |
| ECE | Early Childhood Education |
| FDI | Foreign Direct Investment |
| FISP | Farmer Input Support Programme |
| GBV | Gender-based Violence |
| GCM | Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GHG | Green House Gases |
| GPI | Gender Parity Index |
| ICT | Information Communication Technology |
| IDC | Industrial Development Corporation |
| IDP | Internally Displaced Person |
| INFF | Integrated National Financing Framework |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |
| IOM | International Organization for Migration |
| ISID | Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development |
| LCMS | Living Conditions Monitoring Survey |
| LDC | Least Developed Country |
| LLDC | Landlocked Developing Country |
| MLNR | Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources |
| MOGE | Ministry of General Education |
| MOH | Ministry of Health |
| MSMEs | Micro-, Small-, and Medium-sized Enterprises |
| MWDSEP | Ministry of Water Development, Sanitation and Environmental Protection |
| NAC | National HIV/AIDS, ISTs, Tuberculosis Council |
| NDC | Non-Communicable Diseases |

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| NDP | National Development Plan |
| NDS | National Disability Survey |
| NGO | Non-governmental Organization |
| NMRF | National Mechanism for Reporting and Follow up |
| ODA | Official Development Assistant |
| PCPs | Programmes for Country Partnerships |
| PoC | People of Concern |
| PWD | People with Disabilities |
| RC | Resident Coordinator |
| RCO | Resident Coordinator's Office |
| SADC | Southern African Development Community |
| SDGs | Sustainable Development Goals |
| SERP | Socio-economic Response Plan |
| SMEs | Small- and Medium-sized Enterprises |
| TEVETA | Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority |
| TFR | Total Fertility Rate |
| TIZ | Transparency International Zambia |
| UHC | Universal Health Coverage |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNAIDS | United Nations Joint Program on HIV/AIDS |
| UNCT | United Nations Country Team |
| UNDG | United Nations Development Group |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNECA | United Nations Economic Commission of Africa |
| UNFCCC | United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change |
| UNHCR | UN Refugee Agency |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| UNIDO | United Nations Industrial Development Organization |
| UNSDPF | United Nations Sustainable Development Partnership Framework |
| UPR | Universal Periodic Review |
| VNR | Voluntary National Review |
| WASH | Water Sanitation and Hygiene |
| WHO | World Health Organization |
| ZamStats | Zambia Statistics Agency |
| ZDHS | Zambia Demographic Health Survey |

List of figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1: Geopolitical map of Zambia | 19 |
| Figure 2: Trends in GDP growth (per cent) | 20 |
| Figure 3: Inflation rates (per cent) | 21 |
| Figure 4: Climate change risk map of Zambia | 27 |
| Figure 5: Dashboard and trends of Zambia's progress on SDGs | 39 |
| Figure 6: Zambia SDG9 Monitoring | 61 |
| Figure 7: Zambia's manufacturing sector | 62 |
| Figure 8: Zambia net ODA received per capita | 82 |
| Figure 9: Cumulative Total Trade | 115 |
| Figure 10: Zambia fiscal deficit 2016-2020 | 125 |
| Figure 11: Zambia ODA by donor and sector | 127 |
| Figure 12: Summary flow of FDI in Zambia from 2010 to 2018 | 128 |

List of tables

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 1: Summary of Zambia's performance on selected SDGs | 25 |
| Table 2: Environmental challenges and their implications to sustainable development | 29 |
| Table 3: Ministry of Water functions and statutory bodies | 68 |
| Table 4: Zambia hydro-chlorofluorocarbons consumption | 70 |
| Table 5: Summary of Foreign Direct Investment for 2017-2020 for Zambia | 123 |
| Table 6: 2021 Budget allocation by function of government | 129 |
| Table 7: Zambia risk areas and related SDGs | 134 |
| Table 8: Ranking of selected indicators | 143 |

Executive Summary

Zambia attained middle-income country status in 2011 and is one of Sub-Saharan Africa's most highly urbanized countries. About one-half of the country's 18.4 million people are concentrated in a few urban zones located along the major transportation corridors, while rural areas are under-populated. As of 2019, Zambia's GDP per capita stood at US\$1,305. Poverty is still pervasive in Zambia, with close to 64 per cent of Zambians living on under US\$2 a day and 42 per cent considered to live in extreme poverty, living on under US\$1.25 a day.

Zambia considers the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as a national agenda, and the country's trajectory for achieving it is codified in the National Long-Term Vision 2030 (Vision 2030). Vision 2030 is operationalized through five-year national development plans (NDPs). Zambia is currently implementing its seventh such plan, the Seventh National Development Plan (7NDP) (2017-2021). The broad theme of the 7NDP is to "accelerate development efforts towards Vision 2030 without leaving anyone behind". The government aims to reduce poverty by 20 per cent through enhancing welfare and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable, and has also focused on reducing development inequalities through reducing income and gender inequality across the rural-urban divide.

The government seeks to create a diversified and resilient economy for sustained growth and socio-economic transformation, driven by agriculture, mining and tourism. Energy is critical to all sectors of the economy, and the government has continued to work towards improving energy production and distribution. The country has also been improving its transport system as well as infrastructure. Alternatively, climate change will continue to present further generational challenges and scenarios, including impacting attainment of Vision 2030. The government has therefore prioritized climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction/mitigation to address this development challenge.

The government realizes that good governance is imperative for creating a conducive environment to accelerate the country's diversification and inclusive growth agenda. In this regard, the government has been promoting good governance and improving the policy environment, increasing transparency and accountability, establishing an inclusive democratic system of governance, and improving service delivery, rule of law, human rights and constitutionalism.

While progress has been made, there are challenges. The Zambia Economic Recovery Programme (2020-2023) along with the successor of the 7NDP will support and shape the next trajectory towards the achievement of Vision 2030. These should focus on restoring growth and safeguarding livelihoods through macroeconomic stability, economic diversification and debt sustainability.

People

Poverty and inequality in Zambia are considerably high. The economic decline of the last five years, climate variation, as well as the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, has deepened poverty in the country. The Living Conditions Monitoring Survey 2021 is still underway, but estimations point to rising poverty trends that may have climbed as high as 58 per cent (UNICEF and World Bank 2021, Social Protection Public Expenditure Review). Multi-dimensional poverty is even higher and equally rising due to the economic crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic.

Zambia's hunger status as measured by the Global Hunger Index is rated as "serious" (GHI 2021). More than five years after committing to ending hunger and all forms of malnutrition, the country remains far off track from achieving SDG2's 2030 target.

Zambia is in the process of strengthening its health system to progress towards universal health coverage (UHC),¹ but faces several challenges including inadequate qualified healthcare workers and increasing debt repayment obligations, constraining disbursement of budget allocations to the health sector.

¹ MOH, 2017. Health financing strategy 2017-2027: Towards Universal Health Coverage for Zambia. Ministry of Health of Zambia, Lusaka

Zambia has experienced a series of waves of the COVID-19 pandemic and national level analyses indicate a decline in health service utilization, for fear of contracting COVID-19 in health facilities. Additionally, the closure of schools as part of mitigation measures to reduce the further spread of COVID-19 in 2020 predisposed adolescent girls to sexual violence, child marriage and pregnancy.

Zambia's hunger status as measured by the Global Hunger Index is rated as "serious" (GHI 2021). More than five years after committing to ending hunger and all forms of malnutrition, the country remains far off track from achieving SDG2's 2030 target; with a high stunting rate (35 per cent) among children and high anaemia (31 per cent) among women. Stunting was observed to jump from 19 per cent for children 0 to 6 months, to 46 per cent for children 18 to 23 years old (Zambia VNR, 2020).

The number of children attending early childhood education has increased over time from 139,394 children in 2014 to 222,065 in 2018.ⁱⁱ However, a 2018 study indicates that only five per cent of learners attained the minimum proficiency in reading and two per cent the minimum proficiency in mathematics.ⁱⁱⁱ A monumental achievement for the country is that Zambia has achieved near universal primary school completion levels which is 91.8 per cent at grade seven, mainly because of free primary education and the 50-50 enrolment policies.

Women not only constitute the majority of Zambia's population (51.4 per cent) compared to men (48.6 per cent),^{iv} they also constitute most of the extreme poor. In fact, Zambia ranks as one of the most gender unequal countries in Africa, with a gender inequality index of 0.54 as at 2019.^v The marked inequalities between men and women in Zambia further translate into unequal access to resources and opportunities, and for many women entails susceptibility to abuse and in particular to gender-based violence (GBV).

In Zambia, poor access to WASH services is one of the main causes of infectious diseases including cholera and diarrhoea, while inadequate WASH services continue to be the leading cause of death of children under the age of five years old.^{vi} Recognizing the gaps in coverage of WASH services and the critical role of WASH in social and economic development and public health, the government has committed in its Vision 2030 to reaching 100 per cent coverage of WASH services by 2030.

Prosperity

The country's economy has grown at an average of 3.3 per cent annually. The country also has a burden of servicing its debt obligations, which in 2020 took up about 34 per cent of the 2020 national budget. The resources allocated to debt servicing were higher than that for social protection, health and agriculture combined (Kuteya, 2019). High global oil prices also had the effect of reducing net demand for copper, thus reducing Zambia's export earnings.

Zambia diversified the sources of its energy generation, such that by 2019 it consisted of 80.6 per cent hydropower, 10.1 per cent thermal (coal) power, 3.6 per cent solar power and 2.8 per cent from standby gas and diesel turbines. This generation of electricity from a variety of sources has been necessary due to the increased electricity demand (4 per cent annually), which has been attributed to the growth of the agriculture, mining and manufacturing sectors.

ⁱⁱ Education Statistical Bulletin (ESB), 2018

ⁱⁱⁱ The Programme for International Student Assessment is a worldwide study by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in member and non-member nations intended to evaluate educational systems by measuring 15-year-old school pupils' scholastic performance on mathematics, science and reading

^{iv} Zambia Labour Force Survey, LFS, 2019

^v UN Human Development Report, 2019

^{vi} biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12889-016-3089-7

According to the 2018 Labour Force Survey, the overall labour force participation rate was 35.1 per cent, with 28.2 per cent employed in the country's agriculture sector, 31.1 in formal employment, and 45.4 per cent in informal employment.

Zambia has adopted several measures and strategies to provide direct contribution to economic diversification and job creation, including the National Local Content Strategy (2018-2022). The Zambia Industrial Diagnostic Study (2020) confirms that Zambia, being a heavily natural resource-based country, would benefit from further development of value chains to effectively transform raw materials into processed goods, though manufacturing currently only contributes 7 to 10 percent of GDP.

In line with SDG 10.7, the government has made advances towards putting in place policy frameworks for migration management. It has developed and is already implementing a national diaspora policy with the objective to harness the diaspora human, social and financial capital.

Planet

There is growing general evidence that Zambia's consumption and production patterns need to be more sustainable. The country's natural resources (timber, water, minerals, etc.) are being depleted at a high rate. Waste management remains a major issue for Zambia. This includes adequately addressing food losses and waste along the production and consumer supply chains and to introduce innovative technologies and methods of circular economy in the country's manufacturing, agricultural and transport sectors.

Zambia is a signatory to the United Nations Framework Conventions of Climate Change (UNFCCC). The country is prone to climatic shocks and has experienced extreme weather conditions caused by climate change in recent years, such as drought, floods and rising temperature.

Sustainable use of forests is vital to Zambia's economy. Currently, forest-based industries in Zambia contribute about 3.7 per cent of the GDP with firewood and charcoal contributing 0.8 and 2.2 per cent, respectively. Indirect and direct value of forests contribute between 4.7 to 6.3 per cent of GDP (Green economy Transformation, 2020). Efforts to manage forest degradation and deforestation have led to development of a national strategy premised on integrated natural resources management. In 2019 almost 1.2 million hectares of forest land management plans were put in place.

Peace

Zambia's history has been peaceful compared to several countries in the Sub-Saharan region (Goldring and Wahman 2016). However, in the last five years, there has been backsliding with respect to key civil and political rights. As a result, Zambia is still far from achieving peaceful and inclusive communities for sustainable development, and the government is falling short on ensuring the rule of law and respect for human rights.

GBV remains a major issue in Zambia with a 2018 survey reporting that 36 per cent of women aged 15 to 49 years have at one point in their lives been subjected to physical violence, and 18 per cent of women had experienced violence of some sort within a year of the survey.

Voice of the youth, rural inhabitants, people living with disabilities and women appear not to be adequately solicited for in national programmes. There is a need to build and strengthen for the socially marginalized such as women, youth and people living with disabilities.

Partnership

International collaboration is key to the attainment of the SDGs, and it has become more critical since the emergence of COVID-19, which has severely ravaged the social sector. Unfortunately, both FDI and ODA, which are the main streams of financing, have been declining over the years (FDI inflows reduced by almost 50 per cent from US\$548 million in 2019 to US\$234 million). Public debt has been a source of funding for development programmes but has soared over the years. According to the Ministry of Finance (2020), the external debt stock at the end of 2020 stood at US\$12.7 billion and public domestic debt was US\$7.1 billion.

Leave no one behind

Zambia has a high Gender Inequality Index of 0.54.^{vii} Women and girls are more likely to be excluded than are boys and men. Child marriage rates in Zambia continue to be high at 29 per cent in 2018, and is driven by adolescent pregnancy, peer pressure, being out of school, lack of opportunity for employment, limited recreation facilities and extreme poverty. Child deprivation is high and severe in Zambia, with 41 per cent of children suffering from at least three deprivations at a time.

Despite the government's policy for inclusive education, educational opportunities for children with special education needs and disabilities (CSEND) remain limited in Zambia. Anecdotal information indicates that most CSENDs never enter school or are withdrawn by parents or dropout from school due to stigma and social exclusion. Exclusion of persons with disabilities from education diminishes their possibility of securing employment later in life and results in reduced earning potential exposing such persons and their families to poverty.

As of 31 May 2021, Zambia hosted 98,976 people of concern – refugees, asylum seekers and former refugees – comprising 32,723 households. Several factors combine to increase the risk of persons of concern being left behind and these include, but are not limited to, regulatory and policy framework, legal and civil documentation, access to social protection for people of concern, access to skills development and tertiary education and poor services infrastructure.

Gaps and Challenges towards Achieving the 2030 Agenda

Given the confluence of persistent poverty, political polarization, high inflation, widening fiscal deficits, unsustainable debt levels, low international reserves, and tight liquidity conditions on one hand and COVID-19 pandemic on the other hand, Zambia's achievement of the 2030 Agenda will depend on careful planning and good governance across all sectors and all ministries, departments and agencies.

While Zambia has experienced credible economic growth, this has not translated into the creation of sufficient decent work opportunities in the formal sector. A deliberate Zambia labour migration strategy will go a long way to address the unemployment challenge, as well as to present new opportunities to maximize the migration and development nexus.

Over reliance of the Zambian economy on the mining sector (particularly copper exports) is particularly worrying in times of external shocks. The impact of COVID-19 on the informal sector poses a real threat to economic transformation and sustainable pro-poor growth. Another set of challenges for Zambia are in the governance space. Growing restrictions on fundamental freedoms and shrinking democratic space, frustration of the population over deteriorating economic conditions compounded by COVID-19, worsening climatic factors and food insecurity could trigger protests and civil unrest.

^{vii} UN Human Development Report, 2019

Introduction

As an integrated, forward-looking and evidence-based analysis of the country context for sustainable development, the United Nations (UN) Common Country Analysis (CCA) is an impartial, collective and independent analysis and helps the UN in determining its priorities for the next programming cycle to assist the country in realising its development vision and achieving the 2030 Agenda. It aims at ensuring that UN support to the host government is relevant and linked to the national development priorities as well as within its normative role as mandated by the UN Development Group (UNDG) as guided by member states. The CCA is both an assessment of the current situation and an analysis of gaps, challenges and opportunities. The CCA will be a key document for the UN Country Team's (UNCT) visioning and strategic prioritization exercise, as well as developing a theory of change for each of the prioritized areas identified, in the run up to the formulation of UN Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework 2023-2027 together with the Government of Zambia.

The CCA reflects the integrated nature of the SDGs, and is structured to provide a cumulative, logical articulation of the key development challenges and opportunities for Zambia to inform future strategic programming decisions. It takes into account the linkages across topics, to assess the implications of the development trends on the development vision for 2030, and pays particular attention to cross-border perspectives, given the geographical

and social context of Zambia. In accordance with member states' commitments to the 2030 Agenda, the CCA further mainstreams efforts to leave no one behind, addressing gender equality and women's empowerment, sustainability and resilience as outlined by the UNDG Guiding Principles¹ for development cooperation as directed by UN Member States in the Quadrennial Comprehensive Policy Review of UN system operational activities.²

The substantive analysis in this CCA begins by setting out the broad national context in terms of politics and institutions, economic transformation, demography and vulnerability to climate change and disasters, followed by a description of how the national development vision relates to the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This is followed by in-depth analysis of the situation, prospects and drivers of each SDG, structured around the five overarching dimensions of the 2030 Agenda, namely people, prosperity, planet, peace and partnerships.

Based on this analysis, with the objective of facilitating potential course corrections, the proceeding chapter examines the factors and drivers of vulnerability in the prospects of attaining these development goals and identifies population groups most at risk of being left behind from the development process as it is currently unfolding. The remaining part of the report assesses compliance with the obligations of Zambia to the international human rights instruments

¹ UNSDG, Consolidated Annexes to the Cooperation Framework Guidance (July 2019)

² The Quadrennial Comprehensive Policy Review is the overarching tool for Member States to provide policy guidance to the UN development system (UNDS) and hold it accountable



it subscribes to and the adherence to international norms and standards more broadly, analysis on the financial landscape to identify the key issues and challenges with sourcing the resources to address the development challenges identified, ending with a risk assessment, and concludes by identifying the key gaps and challenges toward the achievement of the 2030 Agenda in Zambia.

The CCA is prepared based on both secondary and primary information. Secondary information was sourced from strategic documents of UN entities, reports from the country's international commitments, national strategic documents, key knowledge products and international organizations along with those documents published by the government. Primary information was collected from interviews with key interlocutors representing the interests of a broad range of population groups including those often referred to as marginalised and from the surveys conducted by UN entities with various target groups (youth, women, migrants, persons with disabilities, etc). Secondary qualitative sources, such as the government's submissions under the Universal Periodic Review (UPR), were triangulated with interviews with UN agencies and civil society to collect and verify different perspectives. The variance in perceptions, such as in the compliance with human rights mechanisms, is reported in the CCA.

Additionally, against the backdrop of the COVID-19 outbreak in March 2020, the CCA takes into account the multiple assessments available on the impact of the pandemic on lives and livelihoods. These assessments, carried out by individual UN and non-UN organizations in their respective areas of mandate, were synthesised in the UN Zambia Socio-Economic Response Plan (SERP) to COVID-19. The SERP is a forward-looking plan and examines how multiple risks can affect the lives of different population segments with emphasis on those at pre-existing risk of exclusion and marginalisation.

Led by the Resident Coordinator and the day-to-day management of the Resident Coordinator's Office, the UNCT had full ownership of the process. This included providing information and data, enriching the document with country-specific information, offering comments and sharing insights from the perspectives of vulnerable groups. Both resident and non-resident UNCT members made substantive contributions to the document. They were also instrumental in facilitating consultations with key stakeholders including with national counterparts. Regular consultations were held with the thematic Results Groups for outcome areas under the current United Nations Development Assistance Framework and a CCA Task Team consisting of technical and programme staff of UNCT member agencies, funds and programmes.





ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 1. Country Context



Zambia has 10 administrative provinces namely Luapula, Lusaka, Central, Copperbelt, Muchinga, Eastern, Northern, North-Western, Western and Southern that are further divided into 116 districts/local authorities or councils. The country is run by a central government and local governments. Central government is constituted by three levels of authority namely: the executive, the legislative and the judiciary. Constitutionally there is clear separation of power, and the three levels are presided over by an elected president, a speaker and a chief justice, respectively. The local councils are headed by a mayor and council chairperson in the case of city and town councils, respectively. On one hand, the central government is responsible for policy formulation, revenue collection, enacting acts of parliament and offering judiciary services in their respective capacities. On the other hand, local governments provide services to people in their respective council areas (Local government Act, 2019).

1.1. Political Analysis

National political and governance structures: Zambia's political situation is stable based on the country's record of holding six consecutive elections since 1991, including three peaceful transfers of power. The Economist Intelligence Unit rated Zambia as a "hybrid regime" in 2020. However, from other sources, Zambia has registered a remarkably rapid decline in the quality of democracy since its last election in 2016.³ The 2016 elections revealed that competition increased pre- and post-election violence, and this has increased the recent negative trend of a shrinking democratic space for opposition parties, media, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and deterioration of good governance. There is a growing perception that Zambia's institutions have become weak and less independent than historically. For example, according to Transparency International, the police authority is perceived to be the most corrupt institution in the Zambian context (TIZ, 2019). Corruption is reported to have reached the highest level in the country's history, though still lower than in other African countries.⁴

To improve national peace and political discourse, the Government of Zambia proceeded to enact the National Dialogue (Constitution, Electoral Process, Public Order and Political Parties) Act No. 1 of 2019⁵ although opposition members of parliament largely rejected it. The Act established a National Dialogue Forum that went on to draft proposed amendments to the Constitution, Public Order Act and Electoral Process Act. The product of this process, Bill 10, was then presented to the National Assembly for enactment. In December 2020, the government failed to garner the two-thirds majority required to pass the Bill.

Bribery, including facilitation payments, are a common feature when applying for public utilities, obtaining licences and conducting business (GAN Integrity 2020). The primary anti-corruption legislative tool is the Anti-Corruption Act, 2012. However, the Act is not fully applied. Transparency International Zambia estimates that the average conviction rate for prosecution of corruption was 10 - 20 per cent. Provisions for whistle-blower

³ For example, the 2021 reports of Amnesty International and the ABA.

⁴ Zambia ranks 17th out of 180 countries according to the most recent statistics from Transparency International. <https://www.transparency.org/en/countries/zambia>

⁵ The Third Session of the Twelfth Assembly of the Zambian Parliament has been debating the (Constitution, Electoral Process, Public Order and Political Parties) Bill, 2019 as part of national dialogue. The objects of this Bill are to— (a) facilitate the implementation of the Siavonga resolutions of political parties relating to constitutional and institutional reforms, separation of powers and judicial independence, tolerance, freedom of assembly and civility in politics and electoral reforms; (b) provide for a national dialogue process to facilitate the Constitution refinement process and regulation of political parties, public order and electoral process reforms; (c) establish the National Dialogue Forum and provide for its functions; and (d) provide for matters connected with, or incidental to, the foregoing.

CHAPTER 1.

protection are contained in the Public Interest Disclosure Act, 2010. Gearing up for the 2021 elections, there was political polarization and lack of clarity about the long-awaited, inclusive, national dialogue on reconciliation, constitutional and electoral reforms.⁶

Inclusive citizen participation in political processes: Recent analysis shows the need to establish and sustain an accountable, democratic and well-governed state with an engaged citizenry, civil society and private sector as an indispensable precondition for Zambia to achieve a sustainable, democratic development path.⁷ Stakeholder consultations revealed the importance of supporting and promoting more informed and peaceful local participation and community empowerment strategies, through broad-based frameworks that guarantee equal opportunities and access to resources and political participation in Zambia's political economy. Women and youth should actively participate in social, political, economic, cultural and traditional processes and to access the same opportunities alongside their male counterparts. Weak governance systems and service delivery, such as in health and education, and social imbalances remain among the underlying causes of poverty and inequality. Therefore, the need to put in place a Gender Equity and Equality Commission, as foreseen under the 2016 Constitutional Amendment Act. Additionally, the draft Marriage Bill is still to be enacted. In this regard, gender activists argued that if Zambia were characterized by higher levels of gender equality, the country would be less likely to experience inter-communal and intrastate conflicts. It is asserted that gender equality is an essential factor in Zambia's development, security and stability. This practically entails putting gender equality and informed youth participation at the heart of peace-building and social cohesion, and their political participation in between election cycles.

Geopolitical dimensions: Zambia has a strategic geographical location in Southern Africa (see Figure 1). Zambia has sustained a relatively open-door policy towards migration. The country has in the recent past been negatively affected by armed conflicts emanating from some of its neighbours. For example, armed combat and violence by inter-communal conflict as well as the army in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) especially in Tanganyika, South and North Kivu and Haut-Katanga regions have led to more than 1.9 million Congolese fleeing as refugees to neighbouring countries, in 2017 (UNHCR, 2018). Destination countries for refugees included Zambia, Angola and Tanzania. The majority (53 per cent) of refugees are children and women, with most under 18 years of age. Refugees comprising of unaccompanied children, old people and female-headed families were identified by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) as requiring long-term protection (UNHCR, 2018).

⁶ Wahman M, Goldring E, (2020) Pre-election violence and territorial control: Political dominance and subnational election violence in polarized African electoral systems *Journal of Peace Research* 2020, Vol. 57(1) 93–110

⁷ <https://actionaid.org/publications/2019/shrinking-space-zambia>

Figure 1. Geopolitical map of Zambia

(Source: <https://www.worldatlas.com/maps/zambia>)

Bottlenecks to the achievement of sustainable peace: Zambia's population is young. In 2016, Zambia had 4.8 million young people (15-35 years old) constituting 36.7 per cent of the population.⁸ The growing youth population coupled with scarce opportunities for employment represent a major developmental challenge to the country. Poverty, rapid population growth, uneven distribution of national wealth, undiversified economy and the inadequate national development initiatives are key bottlenecks to the achievement of sustainable peace in Zambia. The country is experiencing unequal, non-inclusive, jobless and receding growth trends, where Zambia's development trajectory is failing to sustainably meet the needs of the youthful population and seem to benefit a few urban elites with political connections.

1.2. Economic Context

Zambia's economic development agenda is guided by its long-term plan "Vision 2030" launched by the government in 2006 and implemented through five-year national development plans (NDPs), which are intended to make Zambia a prosperous middle-income country by 2030. Accompanying the vision and the NDPs is the national strategy on job creation and industrialisation in which the country has a target to recruit one million new formal

⁸ UNFPA, 2016

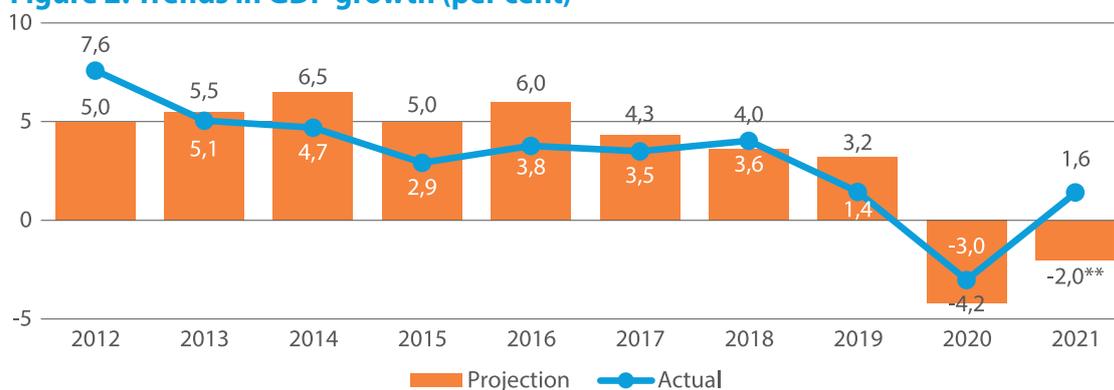
CHAPTER 1.

sector jobs between 2017 and 2022 in the four potential growth sectors of agriculture, tourism, construction and manufacturing. In addition to job-creation, the current NDP (7NDP, 2017-2021) stresses economic diversification, poverty and vulnerability reduction, reduced developmental inequalities, enhanced human development and an enhanced governance environment for a diversified and inclusive economy.

Notwithstanding the notable changes in the structure of production since the 1990s, the Zambian economy remains relatively undiversified, with a high dependency on mining, especially copper – which is the backbone of the economy. The mining and quarrying sector was the main contributor to gross value added, accounting for about 21 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP) in 2020, followed by the wholesale and retail trade sector which contributed 16.3 per cent.⁹ In view of this, the government has recently intensified its efforts in diversifying the economic landscape. For instance, the 2021 budget puts a special emphasis on economic diversification and job creation as pillars in supporting economic recovery. Agriculture, mining, tourism and industrialization are identified as lead sectors to drive growth while energy and infrastructure development are identified as key enablers. Economic diversification efforts, aligned to the 7NDP and Vision 2030, underpin the preparation of the 8NDP currently underway.

The recent global economic slowdown, exacerbated by the onset of COVID-19 pandemic, has sharply slowed economic activities in Zambia, just as in other countries. The Ministry of Finance's initial estimates indicated a 3 per cent real GDP contraction in 2020 (see Figure 2). However, economic growth will resume to 1.6 per cent in 2021 on improved performance in the mining, manufacturing, ICT and energy sectors. The country's macroeconomic environment remains precarious however with serious public debt, reduced fiscal space, unstable exchange rate and rising inflation challenges poised to undermine growth performance and socioeconomic development efforts. Compounding this situation, implementing the 7NDP has been undermined by declining commodity prices and decreased production due to persistent droughts and power generation deficits experienced by the country in recent years prior to 2020.

Figure 2. Trends in GDP growth (per cent)



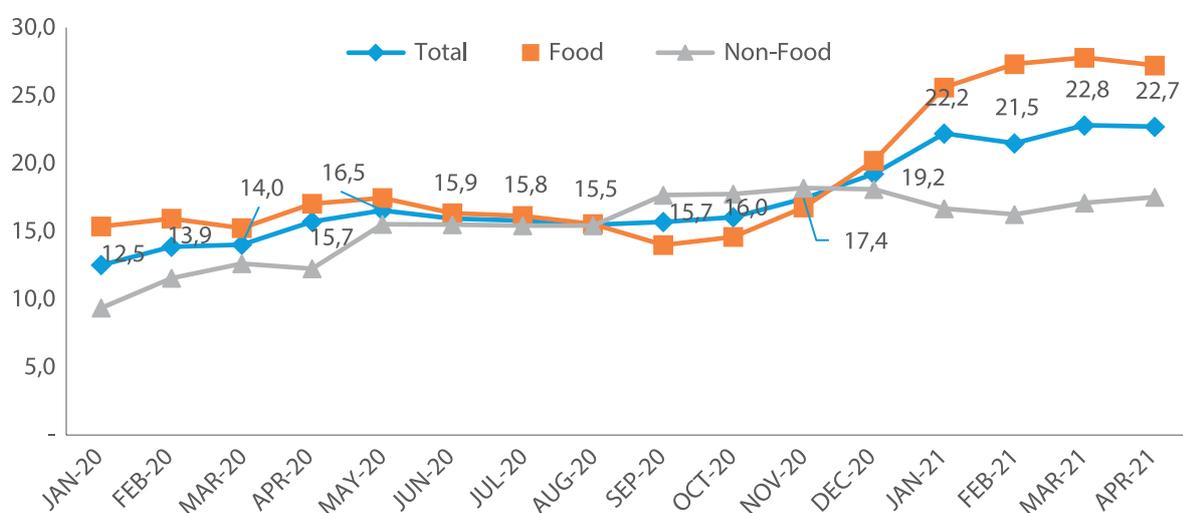
(Source: Ministry of Finance, 2021)

The fiscal deficit widened to 10.7 per cent of GDP in 2019 from 9.3 per cent in 2018, reflecting increased debt service and capital expenditure overruns. Domestic revenue as a proportion of GDP has remained stagnant, at

⁹ Ministry of Finance

around 18 per cent over the last five years, which has constrained the fiscal space largely due to the low capacity of domestic revenue mobilization (DRM), consequently limiting the government’s capacity to deliver basic services due to inadequate funding in social sectors. In addition to the continued Kwacha depreciation, low DRM has to some extent contributed to the debt crisis Zambia has been facing as the country is unable to generate potentially enough domestic revenue. The country is facing challenges in servicing its debt obligations and was recently described by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) as being at high risk of debt distress (United Nations Development Programme supported rapid assessment, 2020). On the price levels, the Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) has reported that the annual inflation rate for January 2021 rose to 21.5 per cent from 19.2 per cent in December 2020, mainly stemming from higher prices of food items (see Figure 3). Recent assessments show that COVID-19 is expected to negatively affect government expenditure and revenue, thereby widening the fiscal deficit.¹⁰ Achieving macroeconomic stability will largely depend on progress on debt restructuring, fiscal consolidation efforts, the containment of COVID-19, a robust recovery and resilience building. A prolonged fallout from the pandemic could amplify fiscal and domestic liquidity challenges and lengthen the time for Zambia to embark on key macroeconomic and structural reforms.

Figure 3. Inflation rates (per cent)



(Source: Ministry of Finance, 2021)

The current macroeconomic environment creates challenges to policy makers to attain the SDG targets and the priorities by 2021 as currently set in the 7NDP. COVID-19 has further complicated the country’s progress towards Zambia’s Vision 2030 and Agenda 2030 for the SDGs. The pandemic has had negative effects on key areas of the 7NDP and SDGs that include food production, household income, productive employment and decent work, health and education. The government should actively pursue an economic recovery strategy anchored on private sector empowerment, building on its recent efforts in the context of the 7NDP. Stable macroeconomic conditions – fiscal stability and transparency, low inflation, managed exchange rates – as well as political stability, all

¹⁰ UNDP Zambia. 2020. Socio-economic Impact Assessment of COVID-19: Policy Options for Zambia

CHAPTER 1.

support the private sector by promoting clarity, reducing risk and uncertainty and sending appropriate economic signals to the business sector. The government has identified infrastructure development as a key enabler for the country's economic transformation plan. In this context, several projects are currently underway, and the key is to ensure that alternative and sustainable financing is sourced to reduce fiscal burden. In addition to improving local employment opportunities, the inclusion of more local contractors in infrastructure projects will have a positive bearing on liquidity in the domestic economy. Additionally, public-private partnerships remain a viable avenue through which the government continues to engage with the private sector to deliver on the 7NDP.

In promoting regional and international trade, diversification efforts should be intensified. Manufacturing development is fundamental, especially in the context of the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA). The following measures have been highlighted in the 2021 budget, and aim at stimulating local manufacturing:

- (a) To enhance the market opportunities for the local industry, the government has presented a bill to Parliament to repeal and replace the Public Procurement Act No. 12 of 2008. This seeks to promote local content and stimulate local manufacturing.
- (b) To further promote industrialization, the construction of industrial yards across the country has advanced. Construction of Chipata, Kasama and Mongu industrial yards has been completed and will be operationalized in 2021. The remaining industrial yards in Kafue, Kitwe, Ndola and Solwezi will be completed in 2021. When operational, the yards are expected to create at least 4,000 employment opportunities.
- (c) To promote linkages between agriculture and manufacturing, the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) plans to establish a tomato and fruit processing plant in 2021. Within the confines of the IDC, there is an opportunity to still partner with the private sector and embark on several processing plants with the aim of prompting value addition of agricultural produce. To this end, a strategy should be developed by the IDC that details how the agricultural value chain can be enhanced overall.

For 2021 and beyond, growth should be led by a more empowered private sector. Government stimulus should focus on increasing the productivity of the private sector and creating an enabling environment for businesses, especially micro, small and medium enterprises (SMEs). Current indicators such as the high level of non-performing loans point to a struggling private sector, for which stabilizing the macroeconomic environment will be key. COVID-19 has accelerated the use of technology, especially the use of electronic payment platforms, as supported by the United Nations Capital Development Fund. This is a low-hanging fruit of which the private sector should take advantage. The government also needs to focus on addressing long-term constraints such as filling skill gaps in the labour force and the reform of labour market regulations, which are currently a deterrent to formal sector employment.

1.3. Social Dimension of The SDGs

Population projections estimate the total population to be 17.8 million in 2020, representing an annual population growth rate of 2.8 per cent. Zambia's population is relatively young, with 45 per cent aged 15 years or younger. The working population is estimated at 53 per cent, with a high age dependency ratio of 88.7 per cent in 2020. Owing to the fast pace of population growth, the age structure is expected to remain relatively young although the proportion of children within the population will fall somewhat by 2023.

While there is economic growth, its benefits are not equitably distributed, leaving some segments of the population not benefiting much. Therefore, it is important to adopt social development interventions that ensure no one is left behind, and that enhance productive capacities by reducing social exclusion particularly in the areas of education, health, water supply and sanitation.

The total fertility rate (TFR) in Zambia is 4.7 children per woman, with urban areas having a much lower TFR (3.4) than rural areas (5.8). However, TFR has been decreasing, from 6.1–6.2 in the 1996–2007 period to 5.3 in 2015, and 4.7 in 2018 (on average each woman will give birth to five children). However, the marginal reduction in fertility is worrisome, particularly that youth fertility has been stagnant at high levels of 135 births per 1000 women aged 15 to 19 (2018 ZDHS). In addition, fertility is so high among the rural poor (estimated at 6.7 children per woman) that future progress in social indicators will be difficult to achieve, because of the rapid growth in the unattended population.

Measures to reduce overall fertility by a larger margin, such as family planning, girl's secondary education, women empowerment and gender equality programmes, are needed to slow down the rapid growth in the population. Despite greater access to family planning services, urban fertility is expected to decline by only 0.7 children per woman to 3.9 by 2035, remaining well above the replacement fertility of 2.1 children per woman. Thus, Zambia is experiencing a large demographic shift and is one of the world's youngest countries by median age. Its population, much of it urban, is growing rapidly at 2.8 per cent annually, partly because of high fertility, resulting in the population doubling every 25 years. This trend is expected to continue as the large youth population enters reproductive age, which will put even more pressure on the demand for jobs, health care and other social services.¹¹

In the health area, Zambia is working towards improving public health services, right to proper health care, improve access to food and good nutrition, and enhance capacity of health personnel and their retention. With regards to maternal health in particular, maternal mortality stood at 278/100,000 live births [ZDHS 2018]. More still needs to be done in reducing preventable maternal death. While fertility remains high, mortality decreased slightly from 13.5 deaths per 1,000 people in 2011 to 12.1 per 1,000 people in 2019. The decrease in mortality is largely due to improved health coverage, especially child immunization and maternal health services, and the introduction of free anti-retroviral treatment for people living with HIV. Zambia is one of 8 Countries in the world which has reached the UNAIDS 90-90-90 Fast Targets, 86% of PLWHIV know their status, 94% of them are on ARVs treatment and 76% are viral suppressed. Despite these tremendous progress, HIV new infections remain high as Zambia recorded 61,000 New infections in 2020. The country's measurement of population movements, both internal and international movements, is weak due to inadequate data capture systems.

On nutrition, Zambia stunting among children under five years of age stands at 35 per cent (DHS, 2018). Over the last decade, stunting rates have decreased from 45 per cent in 2007 to 35 per cent in 2018. However, the current rates are higher and require a reduction especially in rural areas (36 per cent) compared to urban areas (32 per cent). Stunting was observed to jump from 19 per cent for children 0 to 6 months, to 46 per cent for children 18 to 23 years old (Zambia VNR, 2020). In terms of gender, stunting rates are much higher for boys (38 per cent) compared to girls (31 per cent). Provincial variation exists with stunting highest in Northern (46 per cent) and Luapula (45 per cent) provinces and lowest in Western (29 per cent) and Southern (29 per cent) provinces (DHS, 2018). Stunting is

¹¹ <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/zambia/overview>

CHAPTER 1.

higher for children whose mother has no education (38 per cent) compared to mothers with a higher education (15 per cent). The level of underweight also showed a steady decline over the 2001 to 2018 period. In 2001, almost a quarter (23 per cent) of children under five years of age were underweight. The proportion declined to 15 per cent in 2007 and 2013-2014, and 12 per cent in 2018. The prevalence of underweight was higher among children in rural areas (12.4 per cent) than among children in urban areas (10.8 per cent). A regional comparison showed that in 2018, stunting levels were highest in Northern (15.3 per cent) and Luapula (15.2 per cent) provinces and lowest in Southern (9.7 per cent) and Eastern (9.2 per cent) provinces (DHS, 2018)). The results from the national disability survey by the Central Statistical Office in 2015, indicate a 7.2 per cent prevalence rate translating into 1,080,000 persons with disabilities (PWD) in Zambia in 2015, requiring special programmes.

In the education area, Zambia planned to improve access to good quality education to everyone, admittance to skills training, private sector involvement in education, periodic review of curriculum and increase the contribution of technology, science and innovation to development. It is important to note that in relation to the nutrition issues indicated above, one of the main challenges the country faces is the difficulty of sustaining the school feeding programme. Currently the school feeding programme partly relies on imported inputs. It is important to explore the possibility of using local substitutes wherever possible. Community-based interventions could also improve the long-term prospects of the programme (Zambia VNR, 2020).

On water and sanitation, Zambia is working towards improving access to sufficient safe water and good sanitation facilities, delivery of safe water and sanitation services, and proper solid waste disposal. The protection of children and women from violence is undermined by poor access to services and limited action by authorities to intervene in cases of domestic abuse. The latter is mainly due to the lack of adequately allocated resources and the lack of statutory procedures to act.

Focusing further on the urban-rural dynamics, Zambia is one of the most rapidly urbanized countries in Africa, with an average growth of the urban population around 4.37 per cent annually. In terms of projection, this rate will grow to 50.5 per cent by 2030, and to 62.4 per cent by 2050, consistent with the evolution of the average urbanization rate of sub-Saharan Africa. The rate of urbanization has continued to increase, with Lusaka Province leading in terms of absolute urban population growth (from 2.8 million in 2015 to 3.3 million in 2019). The urban areas in Zambia predominantly lie along the rail line that runs from Southern Province to Copperbelt Province in the north. Areas along the rail line are the focus of economic activity and development concentration in the country. The magnitude of urbanization poses myriad challenges in providing adequate infrastructure, urban basic services and other supplies and services. However, if planned well, this can provide opportunities to harness the transformative potential of urbanization for sustainable socio-economic development. In general, infrastructure development and provision of amenities that are necessary to support the livelihoods of the Zambian population have not been commensurate with the rise in the urban population where the majority (about 70 per cent) reside in settlements that are informal and unplanned, with little access to good water and sanitation facilities.

The high rate of rural-urban migration was caused by stagnation of the rural areas coupled with unprecedented and unanticipated rise in both real and money incomes in towns.¹² These issues have spatial planning implications to the implementation of 7NDP. There should be a strong link between the rural and urban development with

¹² <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED079459.pdf>

additional emphasis on developing a pipeline of well targeted territorial interventions based on the administrative territorial division. Without better territorial planning and development, no action at the rural level will have a sustainable impact.

While most of the population, almost 57 per cent, still resides in rural areas, poverty in Zambia has continued to be more of a rural phenomenon than an urban one. In 2015, rural poverty was estimated at 76.6 per cent, which is three times higher than urban areas, at 23.4 per cent. In rural areas, the incidence of poverty is highest among small scale farmers at 78.9 per cent and lowest among large-scale farmers at 30.4 per cent. In the case of urban areas, the highest level of poverty is mostly recorded in households residing in low-cost housing areas, at 28.3 per cent.

The primary population centres are the Copperbelt, which comprises 45 per cent of the total urban population, and Lusaka which is 24 per cent of the total urban population. Migration and a high rate of natural population growth are responsible for urban growth. Recent economic difficulties have reduced the flow of migration to urban areas and led to the out migration in copper towns.¹³ Female migration reflects female educational advances and the changing practice of housewives accompanying husbands. The informal sector absorbs a great number of the migrant labour force. Income gaps between urban and rural areas also contribute to migration flows. Other magnets in urban areas are better educational opportunities, a water supply and the lure of city life.

Table 1 provides a summary of Zambia's performance across selected SDGs and their impact on the country's development as assessed through the Voluntary National Review 2020.

Table 1: Summary of Zambia's performance on selected SDGs¹⁴

| Social dimension SDG | Illustrative success | Illustrative challenge | Impact on country's development |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| Quality education for all | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Attainment of equal enrolment at primary school (89% and 90% of eligible girls and boys, respectively enrolled in 2016) + Primary school level pupil: teacher Ratio of 55.3:1 in 2014 to 43.3:1 in 2016 + Secondary school level pupil:teacher ratio of 36.5:1 remained fairly stable between 2014- 2016 + Almost equal enrolments of girls and boys in school in 2015. Though, the primary school parity index (GPI) of 99 girls per 100 boys is higher than the secondary school GPI of 84 girls per 100 boys | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> x General low transition rate at secondary education for example from grade 8 to 9 x Low progression from grade 9 to 10 for girls (49%) compared to boys (57%) in 2019 x More girls than boys dropping out of school at the primary level x Difficulties in accessing physical and financial resources contributing to low advancement rates especially for girls as there is a preference for a boy child to attend school x Counterproductive traditional practices such as early marriage also affects the continuity of schooling for girls | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Negative impact on country's development. Teenage marriages, increased poverty, domestic violence, deprives access to education, promotes sexual abuse |

¹³ <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12285852/>

¹⁴ Government of Zambia. Voluntary Review of the SDGs, 2020

CHAPTER 1.

| Social dimension SDG | Illustrative success | Illustrative challenge | Impact on country's development |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|
| Good health and wellbeing for all | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Continued decrease in maternal mortality (591 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2013/2014 to 278 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2018) + Decrease in infant mortality (45 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2013/2014 to 42 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2018) + Decrease of AIDS related deaths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✘ Increase in neonatal mortality (24 per 1,000 live births in 2013/2014 to 27 per 1,000 live births in 2018) ✘ Persistence of malaria causing morbidity and mortality (from 319 cases per 100,000 people in 2018 to 346 cases per 100,000 people in 2015) ✘ Sustainability of improvements in health a challenge, because 42% of the total allocation to the health expenditure comes from cooperating partners | Reduced maternal and child mortality reflects positive results of collaborative efforts between the government and development partners |
| Water and sanitation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + On average, 72% of households have access to an improved water supply + 92% of people in urban areas have access to improved water. This number increased due to setting up of commercial utilities + Water kiosks set up through the Devolution Trust Fund to improve water supply to peri-urban areas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✘ Only one-third of Zambians have access to basic sanitation services | Poor sanitation is a threat to the health of citizens, especially due to water borne diseases like typhoid, cholera, salmonella and dysentery |
| Employment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Zambia had an average annual economic growth rate of 6.9% from 2005 to 2014. + The unemployment rate of 10.5% for men and 12.9% for women (Labour Force Survey, 2018), means that most employable people are in some form of employment (89.5% males, 87.1% females) + Continued engagement of the Tripartite Consultative Labour Council by the government improved respect to employee rights such as freedom of association and collective bargaining, which are in line with ILO benchmarks | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✘ A reduced demand for goods on the global market, high oil prices and the negative impact of climate change slowed economic growth to 4% in 2018. | Low economic performance between 2015 and 2018. Promotion of decent work and implementation of labour policies and laws |
| Reducing hunger and poverty | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + General reduction in multi-dimensional poverty statistics in urban areas (25% in 2016 to 18% in 2020) and rural areas (69% in 2016 to 59% in 2020) + Decrease in stunting levels among children (53% in 2001-2002 to 35% in 2018) + Decline in underweight (23% in 2001-2002 to 12% in 2018) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✘ Continuity of social protection support threatened by weak fiscal conditions and slow pace of weaning of beneficiaries ✘ Sustainability of the school feeding programme questioned, due to the current programme partly relying on imported inputs | Improvement reflects betterment of country's health/nutrition and social protection |
| Social cultural norms | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Affirmative action + Gender mainstreaming + Female gender empowerment + Promotion of girl-child education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✘ Gender inequality in education, employment opportunities ✘ Child marriages ✘ Teenage pregnancies | |

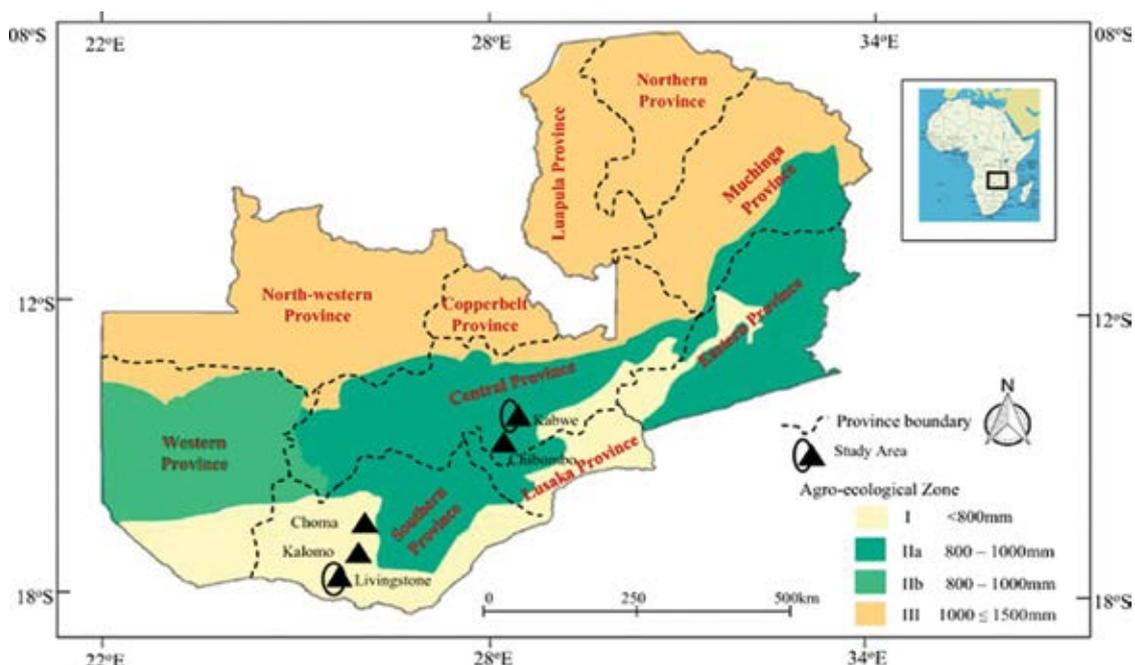
+ Green positive plus-sign depicts progress; ✘ coloured red cross mark depicts a worsening situation

1.4. Environmental Challenges

Zambia is endowed with an abundance of natural resources and rich biological diversity with more than 5,500 species of flowering plants, 233 species of mammals, 731 species of birds, 145 species of reptiles, and more than 200 fish species. Zambia's forests cover roughly 66 per cent (49.9 million hectares) of the country's total landmass, of which 9.6 per cent is protected forests. However, Zambia's forests are currently under threat from deforestation, a drawback to climate change mitigation. Meanwhile, Zambia suffers from impacts on food security, exacerbating its fragilities and reducing its resilience. According to the Integrated Land Use Assessment study, the annual deforestation rate in Zambia is estimated to be around 300,000 hectares. Such numbers amount to the potential loss of 10 million hectares of forest in the next 30 years (IDLO, 2014). The key drivers of deforestation and forest degradation in Zambia are agricultural expansion (commercial and subsistence), heavy reliance on wood fuel – energy demand (charcoal and firewood), unsustainable timber extraction (both legal and illegal) and infrastructure development (mining and other large infrastructural developments). Biomass (wood fuel and charcoal) remains, by far, the primary energy source in rural Zambia. According to Global Forests Watch, in 2017, Zambia lost 163,000 hectares of tree cover, equivalent to 12.5Mt of CO₂ emissions, making it one of the countries with the highest deforestation rate in the world. Illegal harvesting and export of timber (mukula trees), poaching and illegal wildlife trade are aggravating factors.

According to the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction Index for Risk Management statistics for 2018, Zambia ranks 81 out of 191 countries, most at risk country, 131 in terms of hazard and exposure, 43 in terms of vulnerability, and 54 in terms of lack of coping capacity. Figure 4 provides a view of the overall climate change risk across Zambia.

Figure 4. Climate change risk map of Zambia



(Source: United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2018: Index for Risk Management statistics)

Zambia is already experiencing the impacts of climate change, with more frequent droughts, heavy rains and flooding, rising temperature, reduced hydroelectricity and reduced agricultural output. Habitat loss hurts ecotourism revenue, which has been primed to be a key sector to turn-around the economy in the context of lingering COVID-19. Unreliable energy and water supplies interfere with firm growth. Estimates put total GDP loss related to climate change at about \$330 million to \$5.44 billion over the next 10 to 20 years, with agriculture losses expected to amount to \$2.20 billion to \$3.13 billion over the next 10 to 20 years.

Zambia's mean annual temperature has increased by 1.3°C since 1960, an average rate of 0.29°C per decade, meanwhile, Zambia's mean annual rainfall has decreased by an average rate of 1.9mm per month (2.3 per cent) per decade since 1960. The mean annual temperature is projected to increase by between 1.2°C to 3.4°C by the 2060s, and between 1.6°C to 5.5°C by the 2090s. The proportion of total rainfall that falls in heavy events is projected to increase annually, leading to intensity of extreme events like floods. The energy sector is highly vulnerable to climate change due to the overwhelming dependency of Zambia on hydropower. Under a drying climate it is estimated that the output from Zambezi River hydropower plants could decline by 10 to 20 per cent, which could, in turn, increase the short-term electricity generation costs by 20 to 30 per cent.

The impact of climate change among women, children and other vulnerable groups includes limited access to essential services such as education and sexual reproductive health (including contraceptives), limited access to safe water, food and livelihood opportunities. Because of pre-existing vulnerability, existing systems are not ready for the array of new and more severe challenges posed by climate change. Many rural women and children are forced to walk long distances in search of social services at the expense of engaging in other more productive activities. As a result, gender-based violence (GBV) and juvenile delinquency have increased, as has household poverty. Some families have developed negative coping strategies including child labour, child marriages, and transactional sex involving adolescent girls. With almost one-third of girls becoming pregnant before the age of 20, adolescent births, and associated morbidity and mortality, have been increasing. Overall, coupled with the impact of COVID-19, the apparent climate change and gender-blind climate change interventions appear to be worsening gender inequality. There is the need to strengthen humanitarian response data systems resilience in several areas including linkages between climate change and gender equality, and sexual and reproductive health and rights.

In line with the Paris Agreement on climate change, Zambia has pledged to reduce its GHG emissions by 38,000 Gg CO₂ equivalent by 2030. So far, cumulative emissions have reduced by 39 per cent (14,846.9 Gg CO₂ equivalent) between 2015 to 2019. To its strength, Zambia has an impressive array of environmental laws and policies to manage the environment, improve agriculture and improve tourism. The country is promoting sustainable initiatives such as renewable energy, which has seen the country diversify its energy mix from 99 per cent reliance on hydropower production in 2011 to 80.6 per cent in 2019. Solar energy currently accounts for about 90 MW (3 per cent of the total energy). To reduce the adverse effect of climate change on an electricity deficit in the country, the continued diversification of energy sources by the government remains crucial. Several projects undertaken to increase electricity generation have been completed and are operational. Consideration of other renewable energy sources is needed given the impact of climate change on hydropower generation.

The country faces continuing and deepening challenges to its environment, including deforestation, wildlife trafficking and the effects of climate. Environmental problems caused by crop production include soil degradation

through acidification, nutrient loss, deterioration of structure, soil erosion, salinization, pesticide and fertiliser pollution and deforestation. Clearing land for crops is a major contributor to deforestation in Zambia. In terms of air pollution, contributors to poor air quality in Zambia include copper mining, fertiliser manufacturing, vehicle emissions and waste burning. There are numerous environmental challenges that exhibit complex, yet related, economic and social dimensions that impact the development trajectory of Zambia. Table 2 summarises challenges facing Zambia and their implications on the economic and social dimensions of sustainable development.

Table 2: Environmental challenges and their implications to sustainable development

| Environmental challenge | Implication on: | |
|---|--|---|
| | Economic dimension | Social dimension |
| Land degradation: As a result of clearance of forests for human settlement and agriculture | Loss of productive land Reclamation costs of the land increased | Loss of productive land, siltation of water sources and deforestation Impact on poverty, urbanization, migration and conflicts |
| Deforestation: (a) Deforestation mainly from clearing of land as demand of agricultural land increases. (b) Firewood use as a means of fuel for most of the populace: Dwindling hydro-electric power resource has led to massive power load shading which has resulted in most people resorting to use of firewood (c) Clearance for settlement expansion (d) Opening up of new mines and associated infrastructure | A sixth of the rural population depends on forests to sustain their livelihoods, with 20% of their income from forests. Well-managed forests contribute approximately 4.7% of GDP. However, this is hindered by unsustainable forest clearance for agricultural land, mining and settlements The unabated clearance of forests reduces carbon sequestration and increases greenhouse gas emissions to the atmosphere. In 2010 about 18.15 million hectares of forests were burnt by fires highlighting the need to protect forests and preserve their contribution to GDP | Low adaptation of the country to climate change There is need to adapt to use of clean fuel e.g., solar power, electricity |
| Pollution of water resources: (a) pollution from industrial effluent/waste (b) Solid waste from uncontrolled dumping of refuse from urban and peri-urban dwellers/ settlements (c) Human waste from broken-down sewer effluent and inadequate sanitation facilities leading to waste finding its way to rivers, shallow wells, water bodies | Cost of purifying drinking water will be blown up Capacity to provide clean water compromised Health budget likely to be blown up to combat likely outbreaks of water borne diseases | Negative effect on provision of clean water Health challenge likely to cause water borne diseases like typhoid, cholera, dysentery. Chemical contamination of drinking water could cause chronic conditions like cancer |

(Source: Third National Communication to the UNFCCC, 2020.)

CHAPTER 1.

Strengthening of links with neighbouring countries in conservation and sustainable utilization of wildlife resources in border areas with Malawi, Zimbabwe and Botswana and developing joint research and training programmes in fisheries with Zimbabwe on Lake Kariba and Tanzania, DRC, and Burundi on Lake Tanganyika will be a crucial economic strategy to link social, environmental and economic aims.

Green economy: Some environmentalists have observed that in the last 10 to 15 years, Zambia has been on a road to transition from a 'brown economy' to a 'green economy'. Currently climate smart agriculture, water harvesting techniques and green infrastructure are part of the climate change adaptation interventions being promoted. The government should however seek more strategic partnerships in accelerating its adaptation agenda. Climate change impacts on the economy are yielding negative results. The government should strengthen links with the private sector and raise community awareness on climate change matters. Collection of real data on climate change impacts, and capacity in the analysis of the same should be prioritized. The goal for such a transition is to eliminate the trade-offs between economic growth and investment and gains in environmental quality and social inclusiveness. The need to enhance environmental sustainability, sustainable development, and growth that takes into account the well-being of the people and nature, is important because increased production and consumption of goods and services is the major driver to the introduction of a green economy in Zambia. The government should prioritize climate change adaptation measures to build resilience, promote a green recovery and create an enabling environment for green investments.

Overall, the response calls for the government to focus on Zambia's institutional frameworks for climate resilience and improve the adaptive capacity of vulnerable communities across the country, especially poor and rural communities. At national and sub-national levels the government can strengthen the institutional and financial frameworks for climate resilience, by providing institutional support to national climate change initiatives; and strengthening climate information. The measures focus on adaptation, reduction and mitigation of climate change variables by zeroing in on:

- (a) Increased surveillance of climate risks
- (b) Enhanced use of climatic data as well as climate information
- (c) Improved sustainable management of forests
- (d) Better liquid and solid waste treatment and disposal, and reduction of greenhouse gas emissions
- (e) Use of low-carbon and efficient public transport systems in Lusaka and Copperbelt provinces
- (f) Enhanced coverage and radius of early warning centres
- (g) Setting up of Emergency Operation Centres

With support from cooperating partners, including UNDP, Zambia has been establishing institutional arrangements and financing strategies for nationally determined contribution implementation. In 2018, the Green Climate Fund facilitated funding of two projects in the agriculture sector (\$32.3 million) and renewable energy sector (\$52.2 million). Zambia is receiving financial support for mitigation and climate resilience programmes from the Africa Development Bank and World Bank Group, Germany, Sweden and the European Union.

1.5. Humanitarian – Development and Peace Nexus

Humanitarian relief, sustainable development and peace nexus are increasingly becoming more complex, inter-linked, simultaneous imperatives for Zambia. The government estimates that over the last three decades, floods and droughts cost Zambia more than \$13.8 billion in disaster losses, which was equivalent to a 0.4 per cent loss in annual economic growth (GRZ, 2016).

During the 2018-2019 rainfall season, Zambia experienced a severe drought, which mostly affected the southern and western regions of Zambia, negatively impacting crop production, food availability and access. Pest infestations such as the army worm and livestock diseases outbreaks, such as foot-and-mouth disease and contagious bovine pleuropneumonia, compounded the situation. Between October 2019 and March 2020, more than 2.3 million people were estimated to be severely food insecure requiring close to \$90 million worth of lifesaving, life-sustaining and early recovery assistance (OCHA, 2020). This included more than 15,000 refugees in Mayukwayukwa, representing over 450,000 households from 58 districts in Central, Eastern, Lusaka, Southern and Western provinces.

During the 2019-2020 rainy season, Zambia further experienced heavy rainfall leading to floods that destroyed crops and infrastructure such as schools, bridges and shelter – leading to the displacement of people in many parts of the country, especially in Southern, Lusaka, Central, North-Western, Northern and Eastern provinces. This included areas previously affected by droughts, aggravating the already fragile food security situation. The season also saw an invasion of the African migratory locust in twelve districts, destroying over 47,000 hectares of crops, affecting an estimated 88,700 households and requiring urgent humanitarian assistance.

Zambia has had protracted cases of refugee caseloads with about 32,313 in Maheba and 19,441 Mayukwayukwa, and a further 17,232 who arrived in Zambia since the onset of the Congolese emergency in 2016 in Mantapala. An additional urban caseload of 17,586 living in Lusaka and Ndola, as well as the 12,404 self-settled, is also present in Zambia. While the new arrivals require humanitarian support to meet immediate and ongoing basic needs such as food, shelter, education, health; water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) services; and other protection related services, the situation is not different from the protracted caseload. This is because, apart from the self-settled, people of concern living in settlements have not generally attained self-reliance. The gains made towards self-reliance have generally been reversed by the floods, droughts and COVID-19, thus enhancing the vulnerability of these groups and requiring life-saving support, early recovery assistance and long-term investments in building resilience. However, very limited support has been reaching the refugee settlements and refugees (UN Zambia, 2021).

Zambia recorded the first case of COVID-19 on 18 March 2020. The country has gone on to record three waves of the pandemic with total cases reaching 137,026, recoveries sitting at 113,109 and deaths reaching 1,794 as at 23 June 2021. The COVID-19 pandemic has spread to all parts of the country including remote areas. In line with WHO recommendations, Zambia instituted COVID-19 containment measures including the closure of ports of entry, the restriction of movements, and the closure of businesses and industries not providing essential services, as well as schools. The pandemic has had significant adverse impacts on the macro-economic situation of the country, including declines in GDP growth and the reduction in demand and export of copper – partly explained by the disruption of global supply chains, which has negatively impacted the exchange rate. The COVID-19 pandemic caused a humanitarian crisis at a time when Zambia was trying to recover not only from an economic downturn

CHAPTER 1.

and debt burden, but also from consecutive episodes of droughts (2015/2016 and 2017/2018) and floods, which exposed people to severe food insecurity.¹⁵

By 2020, the domino effects had reached humanitarian proportions. First, the nutritional status of vulnerable members of the society especially women, children and the elderly deteriorated. Second, closure of schools disrupted the learning of 4.4 million learners and at the same time severely affected the school feeding programme that was contributing to nourishment of pupils (Global HRP, UN Coordinated appeal, 2020). Third, the closure of schools as a containment measure exposed learners, mostly girls, to child marriage, sexual abuse and other threats. Already Zambia had been topping global rates for child marriage (31 per cent) and teenage pregnancy rate of girls between 15 and 19 years of age having already given birth or in their first pregnancy (32 per cent) (ZDHS, 2018). High levels of poverty, limited employment opportunities and inaccessible, unaffordable and poor-quality schooling are among the main causes. Further, 46 per cent of girls at puberty and women are vulnerable to gender-based violence. Fourth, there was fear that the high HIV/AIDS prevalence (11.3 per cent) among women aged 15-49 years could get worse with increased exposure to risk conditions (ZDHS, 2018). Crowded living conditions in 70 per cent of urban informal settlements and refugee camps (five refugee camps in Zambia hosting approximately 88,064 displaced people) clearly pose a high risk to the spread of COVID-19. Provision of basic services such as clean water, sanitation and solid waste disposal required urgent attention to avert a possible catastrophe. Movement restrictions as a containment measure also affected the informal sector in which most Zambians obtain their livelihoods. Women were most affected. Market places where people tended to gather and do trading were banned. People of concern – including migrants, refugees, asylum seekers and prisoners – felt most vulnerable from both the restrictions from COVID-19 and the deteriorating economic situation.

Although the government, in collaboration with its partners including the UN, has made strides in establishing and promoting integrated early warning strategies, as well as enhanced coordination in articulating and implementing emergency responses, more needs to be done to reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience of the affected communities. In this regard, the implementation of Zambia's humanitarian, development and peace nexus approach requires the country to have peaceful elections, successful economic turnaround, and implementation of social protection programmes for people in need. Sustainable development and durable solutions to Zambia's Vision 2030, 8NDP and SDGs are not possible without peace and stability. The upcoming national elections should be an opportune platform for building peaceful political and social cohesion, and peace framed as a bottom-up, community-based national mobilization – with a chance to build on the tradition of Zambia's stable and peaceful history (positive peace), rather than being framed in terms of security (negative peace).¹⁶

To achieve the nexus targets, required synergies call for meeting the immediate needs of the poor, while at the same time ensuring longer-term investments, addressing the systemic causes of poverty and vulnerability – such as poverty, inequality, and the lack of functioning political and governance accountability systems. This approach can reduce the impact of cyclical or recurrent shocks and supporting the national peace and social cohesion essential for development to be sustainable.¹⁷

¹⁵ Global Humanitarian Response Plan COVID-19, UN coordinated appeal, 2020.

¹⁶ OXFAM UK

¹⁷ <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/humanitarian-development-peace-nexus-what-does-it-mean-multi-mandated-organizations>

A lesson from COVID-19 is that development-humanitarian-peace programming should be designed to enhance people's absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities to manage, navigate and sustain change in complex systems. Interventions should be preceded by holistic, integrated contextual analyses that still ensure there is space for stand-alone, needs-based humanitarian, development and peacebuilding assessments. The Economic Recovery Programme (2020-2023) comes in handy as it focuses on restoring growth and safeguarding livelihoods through macroeconomic stability, economic diversification and debt sustainability.

Significant investments will be required to climate-proof infrastructure such as bridges, schools, health facilities and shelter. Further, there is the need to invest in adaptation through climate proofing of livelihoods, production and assets. To promote sustainable agriculture, efforts should partly be directed at expanding irrigation-based agriculture, while addressing practices that accelerate deforestation and soil degradation. To combat COVID-19, more investments are needed in preventative measures whose adherence has remained poor, as well as in strengthening the health systems. Critical to achieving this will be mainstreaming of humanitarian development nexus in all key sectors of the economy.



ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 2. National Vision for Sustainable Development

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Zambia considers the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as a national agenda, given that the development challenges that the country seeks to address resonate with the goals agreed in this global agenda. Sustainable development is a constitutional issue that has been enshrined among the national values and principles in the 2016 Amended Constitution aimed at guiding decision-making on the development process for Zambia. Zambia's trajectory for achieving the 2030 Agenda is codified in the National Long-Term Vision 2030 (Vision 2030), which expresses Zambia's aspiration to be a prosperous middle-income country by 2030. It articulates possible long-term alternative development policy scenarios at different points that would contribute to the attainment of the desirable social and economic indicators by 2030. Vision 2030 is operationalized through five-year development plans. These plans marked a departure from the practice of preparing and implementing medium-term plans that were not anchored on a national vision. Zambia is currently implementing its 7NDP (2017 -2021), which departed from sector-based to an integrated (multi-sectoral) planning approach. The broad theme of the 7NDP is to "accelerate development efforts towards Vision 2030 without leaving anyone behind". It seeks to create a diversified and resilient economy for sustained growth and socio-economic transformation, driven by agriculture, mining and tourism. The 7NDP has domesticated the SDGs, the African Union Agenda 2063, the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, Rio+ and the Paris Agreement on climate change. The plan's level of alignment with the 2030 Agenda shows that 86 per cent of the SDG targets were aligned to the 7NDP.

The sustainable development priorities of Zambia are set out in the 7NDP and SDGs. The government has been implementing national development plans since 2003 to actualize its Vision 2030 and become a prosperous middle-income country. The national plans are now complemented with implementation plans that outline the specific interventions to be undertaken and results needed to achieve social, economic and technological progress for the transformation necessary to deliver Vision 2030.

One of the critical areas the government has focused on to drive Zambia into becoming a prosperous middle-income country is the acceleration of economic diversification and fostering growth, including improving access to domestic, regional and international markets. Energy is critical to all sectors of the economy, with this realization the government continued to work towards improving energy production and distribution for sustainable development. Similarly, as critical enablers for achieving Vision 2030, the country has been improving its transport system as well as infrastructure. The government also aims to reduce poverty by 20 per cent through enhancing welfare and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable, and has also focused on reducing development inequalities through reducing income and gender inequality across the rural-urban divide.

In the last development cycle, the government, with support from partners, prioritized simultaneous investments in health and education – to enhance the quality in human capital towards enhanced human development. Climate change will continue to present further generational challenges and scenarios arising from increasing incidence and severity of extreme weather events. This may negate development gains as well as present further challenges in attaining the Vision 2030 goal of becoming a prosperous middle-income country. The government has therefore prioritized climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction and mitigation to address this development challenge. The government realizes that good governance is imperative for creating a conducive environment to accelerate the country's diversification and inclusive growth agenda. In this regard, the government has been promoting good governance and improving the policy environment, increasing transparency and accountability, establishing an inclusive democratic system of governance, and improving service delivery, rule of law, human rights and constitutionalism.

CHAPTER 2.

Vision 2030 highlights three development scenarios —the baseline, preferred and optimistic scenarios. The socio-economic development objectives enshrined in the preferred scenario are to attain and sustain annual real growth of 6 per cent (2006-2010), 8 per cent (2011-2015), 9 per cent (2016-2020), and 10 per cent (2021-2030); to attain and maintain a moderate inflation rate of 5 per cent; to reduce national poverty to less than 20 per cent of the population; to reduce income inequalities measured by a Gini coefficient of less than 40; to provide secure access to safe potable water sources and improved sanitation facilities to 100 per cent of the population in both urban and rural areas; to attain education for all; and, to provide equitable access to quality health care to all by 2030.

Given the ongoing disruptions caused by COVID-19, careful adjustments will be required in 8NDP. Additionally, there are gaps and bottlenecks that need to be addressed during the transition from 7NDP to 8NDP and in SDG implementation. For instance, the government's current expansionary fiscal policy, driven by the need to invest in infrastructure development, has resulted in a significant resource gap, which has hampered SDG financing and threatened the country's debt sustainability. There are also adverse effects of climate change and the recent COVID-19 pandemic that pose major threats to achieving the SDG targets. Floods and droughts have increased in frequency over the past three decades, costing the nation an estimated 0.4 per cent in annual economic growth. The obstacles are made worse by the slow pace of the country's development trajectory. Moving forward, the government should work with development partners to implement lasting solutions that address low productivity, low value addition, low private sector participation and competitiveness, low skilled labour, and low entrepreneurship skills.

Zambia's trajectory for achieving Vision 2030 and the 2030 Agenda faces serious headwinds. Zambia is a developing country that achieved middle-income status in 2011. However, Zambia's economic performance has stalled in recent years¹⁸ due to declining climate induced droughts, copper prices, significant fiscal deficits, and energy shortages.¹⁹ The country is one of Sub-Saharan Africa's most highly urbanized countries. About one-half of the country's 18.4 million people are concentrated in a few urban zones located along the major transportation corridors, while rural areas are under-populated. Unemployment and underemployment are serious problems. Across the country, 47.9 per cent of the population (8,313 thousand people) are multidimensionally poor while an additional 23.9 per cent are classified as vulnerable to multidimensional poverty (4,142 thousand people).²⁰ As of 2019, Zambia's GDP per capita stood at \$1,305. Poverty is still pervasive in Zambia. Currently, close to 64 per cent of Zambians live under \$2 a day and the majority of those who earn more barely make ends-meet, with 42 per cent of them considered to live in extreme poverty (under \$1.25 a day). Poverty rates are highest for female-headed households. Extreme poverty levels are above 60 per cent in rural areas and 15 per cent in urban areas.

While deaths due to HIV/AIDS reduced by 30 per cent, from an estimated 35,000 in 2010 to 24,400 in 2020, Zambia is experiencing a generalized HIV/AIDS epidemic, with a national HIV prevalence rate of 11.3 per cent among adults ages 15 to 49 as of 2018. Viral suppression has improved significantly over the past three years and is estimated at 77 per cent of all adult people living with HIV. Since 2007, maternal mortality has continued

¹⁸ Overview. World Bank.

¹⁹ African Development Bank, African Development Fund (2016). "Zambia Country Profile" (PDF). African Development Bank.

²⁰ <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/zambia-mpi>

to decline from 591 deaths per 100,000 live births to 398 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2013/2014 and 278 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2018. The positive maternal mortality trajectory is partly attributed to an increase in the proportion of women whose delivery was attended to by a skilled worker from 64 per cent in 2015 to 80 per cent in 2018. The mortality rate for children under five years of age declined from 75 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2013/2014, to 61 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2018 (2018 ZDHS). Rural areas had a higher rate (64 deaths per 1,000 live births), compared to urban areas (58 deaths per 1,000 live births). Despite notable reductions in child and infant mortality, Zambia still has a high stunting rate (35 per cent) among children and high anaemia (31 per cent) among women.

The Zambia Economic Recovery Programme (2020-2023) along with the successor of the 7NDP will support and shape the next trajectory towards the achievement of Vision 2030. These should focus on restoring growth and safeguarding livelihoods through macroeconomic stability, economic diversification and debt sustainability





ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 3. Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals

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In 2020, Zambia submitted its first SDG Voluntary National Review. According to the review, the government is strongly committed to implementation of the 2030 Agenda. In fact, as described in the review, the SDGs are well integrated into the National Planning Framework, and strong coordination and reporting mechanisms were put in place, demonstrating the country's resolve to anchoring its development trajectory on the 2030 Agenda. Despite achievements in different areas of the SDGs as indicated in the 2020 Voluntary National Review, according to the 2021 SDG Index and Dashboards report,²¹ Zambia is facing major challenges towards achieving SDG1 on ending poverty, as 59.1 per cent of the population lives in poverty, earning \$1.90 per day. Zambia's SDG score is stagnating or has increased at less than 50 per cent of the required rate in seven SDGs, including: SDG2 on Zero Hunger, SDG3 on Good Health and Well-Being, SDG5 on Gender Equality, SDG6 on Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG9 on Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, SDG11 on Sustainable Cities and Communities, SDG15 on Life on Land, SDG16 on Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions, and SDG17 on Partnerships.

Despite the stagnating situation and the slow pace towards achieving the SDG indicators, it is worthy to note that there are indicators that are on track related to these SDGs. These include the prevalence of wasting in children under five years of age (SDG2) and the ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (SDG5). On another positive note, despite major challenges, there has been moderate improvement with SDG3 on Good Health and Wellbeing, SDG7 on Affordable and Clean Energy, SDG8 on Decent Work and Economic Growth – and Zambia is fully on track to meet SDG13 on Climate Action. It is noteworthy that no trend data is available for SDG4 on Quality Education, SDG10 on Reduction of Inequalities, SDG12 on Responsible Consumption and Production or SDG14 on Life Below Water. Figure 5 shows Zambia's dashboard progress on the SDGs 2021.

Figure 5: Dashboard and trends of Zambia's progress on SDGs



Source: 2021 SDG Performance Index for Zambia²²

²¹ <https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/profiles/zambia>

²² <https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/profiles/zambia> All data presented on this website are based on the publication Sachs et al. (2021): The Decade of Action for the Sustainable Development Goals. Sustainable Development Report 2021. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

CHAPTER 3.



3.1. People: SDG 1, SDG 2, SDG 3, SDG 4, SDG 5, SDG 6



SDG 1.

End Poverty in All its Forms Everywhere

Poverty and inequality in Zambia are considerably high. Many Zambians, refugees and migrants struggle for survival in harsh conditions characterized by limited access to health care, drinking water and sanitation, education, adequate food and housing. The economic decline of the last five years, climate variation, as well as the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, has deepened poverty in the country. Zambia's Gini coefficient, a measure of inequality in terms of per capita income, has increased from 0.700 in 1996 to 0.735 in 2015 (LCMS, 2015) showing increased inequality. Poverty levels had been high before the COVID-19 pandemic struck and multidimensional poverty has become widespread since. According to the 2015 Living Conditions Monitoring Survey (LCMS), overall poverty was 54.4 per cent which was computed from adding a 40.8 per cent extremely poor people to 13.6 per cent moderately poor persons. Poverty was higher in rural areas (76.6 per cent) than urban areas (23.4 per cent). In urban and rural areas alike, poverty is high in female-headed households (56.7 per cent) compared to male-headed household (53.8 per cent). The LCMS 2021 is still underway, but estimations point to rising poverty trends that may have climbed as high as 58 per cent (UNICEF and World Bank 2021, Social Protection Public Expenditure Review). Multi-dimensional poverty is even higher and equally rising due to the economic crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic. Generally, the population is described as poor and 65 per cent of the populace lives in abject poverty. High levels of poverty in rural areas are mainly due to reliance on agriculture as a source of livelihood. This reliance increases vulnerability especially to climate change shocks. There is the need to come up with policies that increase resilience among rural people. Such measure undertaken by the government include Social Cash Transfers and Farmer Input Support Programmes discussed in the next section. Intervention programmes also need to target more vulnerable persons, such as female or child-headed households.

According to the Zambia Voluntary National Review 2020, there have been challenges and gaps observed in the pursuit of ending poverty everywhere (SDG1). Such challenges include under financing, high total fertility and population growth rate, incomplete decentralization, and weak complementary. Regarding under-funding – there has been insufficient funding for the social protection activities that were designed to improve the livelihoods of the Zambian poor. National budget provisions for such activities were progressively declining over the past three years and marred by poor budget execution rates (2018 to 2021). On complementary – there has been poor complementary in development work to promote combining effects to result in additive impacts.

No programme in Zambia is currently providing enough to lift a household entirely over the poverty line (unless they are not very far below this line in the first place; the high incidence of extreme poverty however indicates that most are very far below the poverty line). Therefore, social protection programmes are a key strategy to reduce extreme poverty (hunger), mobilize households, which become more likely to access free services such as primary health care and primary education, and drive down the equity gap, as the most vulnerable become known and accessible to social programmes more generally. There is a need for an integral approach to mainstreaming the rights and interests of vulnerable groups including migrants, asylum seekers, refugees and internally displaced persons, in local and national poverty reduction policies and programming. To sustainably reduce poverty levels through social protection programmes, it is important to increase transfer values and ensure linkages to other programmes that drive income generation, reduce the high fertility and population growth rate, build human capital, and sustainably break vicious cycles such as seasonality impact on poverty and inter-generational transmission of poverty.



SDG 2.

End Hunger, Achieve Food Security and Improved Nutrition and Promote Sustainable Agriculture



Zambia's hunger status as measured by the Global Hunger Index is rated as "serious" (GHI 2021). More than five years after committing to ending hunger and all forms of malnutrition, the country remains far off track from achieving SDG2's 2030 target. At the heart of the goal of achieving zero hunger is the elimination of chronic undernourishment among all populations. Notwithstanding this, the cost of a nutritious diet has increased in under 18 months with over 53 per cent non-affordability due to high food prices and the impact of the COVID-19 global pandemic (NFNC, WFP 2021). This situation has the potential to stagnate or deteriorate due to persistent income inequality that may put healthy diets out of reach for most of the vulnerable or poor groups, and to be potentially aggravated by reduced income and employment due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Based on trends in nutrition indicators, Zambia is experiencing a triple burden of malnutrition i.e., undernutrition, micronutrient deficiency and overweight among children, adolescents and women (ZDHS 2018). Prevalence of stunting, underweight and wasting in children below the age of five years has reduced by 5, 3 and 2 per cent respectively, in the last five years. Currently, stunting is at 35 per cent while underweight and wasting are at 12 and 4 per cent respectively (ZDHS 2018). An assessment done by the Vulnerability Assessment Committee from November 2019 to February 2020 showed a high rate of 8.7 per cent acute malnutrition among children below five years of age in drought prone districts. As per the DHS 2013-14, 16.4 per cent of adolescent girls and 10 per cent of women aged 15 to 49 years were undernourished, having <18.5 BMI. Five per cent of children under the age of five years old are overweight (ZDHS 2018).

Anaemia is another major public health problem among women and children in Zambia. An estimated 58 per cent of children under five years are anaemic, with the highest prevalence of 77 per cent among children less than 24 months old. One-third of adolescent girls are anaemic and 31 per cent of women 18 to 49 years old are anaemic, while anaemia is highest (33.4 per cent) in the adolescent age group 15 to 19 years old. Anaemia is a major concern among women, leading to increased maternal mortality and poor birth outcomes as well as reductions in work productivity. Women with a higher education (35 per cent) have a higher prevalence of anaemia than those with less education (31 per cent). Similarly, the prevalence of anaemia is slightly higher among women in the highest wealth quintile (33 per cent) than among those in the lower wealth quintiles (30 to 31 per cent).

The notable causes of malnutrition include high morbidity, limited access to adequate and appropriate health services, increasing poverty, and food insecurity as major determinants of undernutrition among children. Infant and young child feeding practices are not optimal, with wide disparities in feeding practices across socio-economic gradients. In the last five years, exclusive breastfeeding fell by 3 per cent, from 73 per cent in 2013/14 to 70 per cent in 2018, highlighting the need to strengthen maternal, infant and young child feeding practices at the health facility level and community level. Additionally, only 13 per cent of children aged 6 to 23 months old are fed an acceptable minimum diet, while 23 per cent of children 6 to 23 months old are fed with recommended minimum dietary diversity.

The prevalent food insecurity and malnutrition in the country are multi-sectoral in nature and driven by the presence of high-income inequality, low productivity among smallholder farmers, food loss and waste, insufficient safe and nutritious food, low dietary diversity and natural resource degradation.

CHAPTER 3.

Sustainable food systems are critical for the attainment of key development goals such as food security, nutrition and a healthy population and agriculture in Zambia is one of the key pillars crucial to achieving broad based pro-poor economic growth needed for attainment of the SDGs for the country. It is critical to economic growth, food security and nutrition, income enhancement and employment, both in the formal and informal sectors. However, agricultural productivity levels remain low and undiversified due to, among other reasons, insufficient adoption of and access to sustainable farming technologies, limited access to markets and affordable credit, outbreak of pests and diseases, climate change and variability. The climate variability coupled with the increased exposure to complex intense and most frequently occurring climate extremes is compromising gains made in ending hunger and sustainably achieving improved food and nutrition security.²³ Identifying the key underlying constraints to an equitable and sustainable food system in Zambia, as well as potential levers to address them, is important in transforming the food system and combating current challenges. There is, therefore, a deliberate need to accelerate the scaling up of strategies and actions aimed at strengthening the resilience and adaptive capacities of local food systems and people's livelihoods in responding to climate variability extremes.

For Zambia, addressing SDG2 requires continued concerted, coordinated and collaborative investments by the public and private sectors; development partners and civil society in sustainable agriculture, food security, nutrition and sustainable management and use of natural resources and ecosystems. Several national strategic development plans have been developed and institutionalized to guide the country in attaining the goal of ending hunger. Such strategic and policy documents include the Seventh National Development Plan, Food Security Policy, National Aquatic Strategy, Animal Health Strategy, National Social Protection Policy, Food and Nutrition Bill, National Food and Nutrition Policy, National Food and Nutrition Strategic Plan, National 1000 Days Most Critical Days Programme, National Forestry Policy, etc. These national strategic policies and plans strive to recognize the need for integration of pro-poor planning, gender mainstreaming, sustainable natural resource use and environmental protection. All sectoral policies and strategies require adequate monitoring of the accountability frameworks.

The government has instituted several social protection programmes for children, youths, women and persons with disabilities. Social protection programmes implemented by the government include the Public Welfare Assistance Scheme, Social Cash Transfer, Food Security Pack, Farmer Input Support Programme and Home-Grown School Meals Programme. Of these programmes, the Farmer Input Support Programme and the Food Security Pack directly contribute to the reduction of hunger and improved food security. By subsidizing agricultural inputs, the government in addition aims to promote sustainable agriculture among smallholder farmers and enhance food security and income. The programme has led to increase in the production of the staple food, maize, thereby improving food security among the rural poor. However, such programmes have a heavy focus on providing maize inputs, which has significantly contributed to the country's food system not delivering diverse nutritious food for most of its population. On the other hand, the Social Cash Transfer programme, plays an indirect role in reducing hunger given that in general 75 per cent or more of the targeted people's income is spent on food items. This programme has increased the number of households eating more than one meal per day by 9 per cent and at the same time increased the number of families not severely food insecure by 19 per cent.

²³ Zambia Zero Hunger Strategic Review Report, 2018



Evidence generation and building the capacities of government key ministries in the collection, analysis and use of food security and nutrition data for policy and programming is key to identifying and addressing food and nutrition security. Key surveys/studies including the National Food Consumption and Micronutrient Survey provide data on prevalence of micronutrient and food consumption patterns and the Fill the Nutrient Gap Analysis. Through the Nutrition Information System in the health sector and the multisectoral Nutrition Common Results Framework, the government is strengthening monitoring capacities in nutrition. Furthermore, the Annual Crop Focused Survey and the Living Conditions Monitoring Surveys provide data on crop availability and the economic status of households respectively which are critical for understanding food availability and access.

Improving the quality of diets will require food systems that can deliver a range of nutritious available and affordable foods to families. This should encompass the operationalization of various food security and nutrition programmes that include basics such as crop diversification and increasing access to seed and small livestock. Therefore, deliberate interventions, which should form part of the Cooperation Framework, need to integrate Social Behavioural Change Communication using the value chain approach to increase awareness on healthy diets, end hunger, improve food and nutrition security, as well as having sustainable agriculture. To avert social cultural barriers, the use of community champions that include traditional leadership, lead farmers and community volunteers must be utilized as programme delivery conduits for food security, nutrition and sustainable agriculture. In addition, policies need to support private sector growth in nutritious food production/processing adequately and ensure they support efforts led by the government to reduce NCDs. Furthermore, there is the need for a health system with well-trained staff at the facility and community level to counsel caregivers on the benefits of a nutritious, diverse diet for children and effectively screen and treat malnourished children; a water and sanitation system that provides free, safe and palatable drinking water for a healthy diet and the safe preparation of foods; and a social protection system that reduces inequalities by ensuring that nutritious foods are affordable to vulnerable children and families. This requires cross-sectoral coherence from the policy and sectoral coordination perspective when formulating actions and advocating for adequate investments to reduce the triple burden of malnutrition, high stunting rates, micronutrient deficiencies and increasing overweight and obesity in Zambia.

CHAPTER 3.



SDG 3.

Ensure Healthy Lives and Promote Well-Being for All at All Ages



Zambia is in the process of strengthening its health system to progress towards universal health coverage (UHC).²⁴ Moving towards UHC is a political choice with important social and economic benefits. Zambia's work on UHC is fully aligned with SDG target 3.8 which focuses on achieving UHC, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health services and access to safe, effective, quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccination for all, health promotion and disease prevention. Health service provision should be for everyone including mobile and key populations to ensure UHC attainment. The Global Health Security agenda cannot be achieved without full inclusion of all populations including migrants and mobile populations. It is critical to understand that migration is a social determinant of health and has a bearing on UHC achievement.

As the country progresses towards UHC, its aim is to ensure that all people and communities have access to and can use the high quality, promotive, preventive, curative, rehabilitative and qualitative health services that are appropriate to their needs and expectations while not exposing the user to financial hardship. It is anticipated that this will create a strong and resilient people-centred health system with primary health care as its foundation. This will include health emergencies and social determinants of health. In an effort to leave no one behind, Zambia has developed a health benefit package that is now under the health insurance scheme and from which a set of basic service delivery tracer indicators are monitored.

Main challenges to progressing towards UHC come from persistent barriers in accessing health services, including economic, geographic, epidemiological, cultural and equitable provision of health services. Zambia has committed to progressively breakdown these barriers and expand access to comprehensive health services to meet the needs of its population (Vision 2030). Due to increasing debt repayment obligations, the fiscal environment in Zambia has been constrained since 2017 leading to disruption in the disbursement of budget allocations to the health sector – especially district allocations for primary health care services. The provisions of outreach services for immunization, nutrition, and reproductive, maternal, newborn, child and adolescent health were critically limited much before the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has further exposed these health systems' insufficiencies and disrupted delivery of these services. To ensure good health and wellbeing for all, strategic mobilization of resources and prioritization of all health problems will still be critical for Zambia.

One of the biggest challenges in the provision and access to quality health services in Zambia is the constraint of human resources. "The troublesome problem of severe shortage of human capital in the health system has persisted in Zambia for over twenty years denying millions of its people access to basic and specialist care. Equitable access to cost-effective quality health care as close to family as possible cannot be achieved without competent and appropriately skilled health professionals. Zambia will need to almost double the number of its human workforce from the current 42,630 to 80,274 by training and recruiting an additional 37,644 staff by 2025 if it is to serve satisfactorily the expected population of approximately 20,574,138". (MoH (2018) National Human Resources for Health Strategic Plan 2018-2024, Lusaka, Zambia)

Provision of health care is labour intensive, while delivery of good and quality health services calls for a well-performing and equitably distributed health workforce. The demographic and epidemiological transition in the country has created a growing mismatch between, supply, need and demand resulting in a lack of skills and staff shortages (HRHSP 2018-2024). To achieve UHC and integrated people-centred health services, models projected to 2030 show that additional

²⁴ MOH, 2017. Health financing strategy 2017-2027: Towards Universal Health Coverage for Zambia. Ministry of Health of Zambia, Lusaka

investment is needed to educate, employ and deploy sufficient health workers, and this equates to almost 50 per cent of the cost of achieving SDG3. This calls for a multi-sectoral action on SDG3, 4, 5 and 8 with interlinkages between education, employment, health, finance, gender, and youth.

Although a slight reduction is recorded, the country has continued to experience a high burden of both communicable and non-communicable diseases. Communicable diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria have remained a menace to the population. The prevalence of HIV has been reduced from 13.3 to 11.1 per cent from 2013/14 to 2018 (SCO, MOH & ICF 2014, ZSA, MOH & ICF 2018). Similarly, the incidence of tuberculosis per 100,000 people has declined slightly from 391 in 2015 to 333 in 2019.²⁵ Additionally, the incidence of malaria has declined from 220 per 1,000 people in 2015 to an estimated 148 per 1,000 people in 2019 (WHO 2021^b). In 2015, the coverage of preventive chemotherapy among targeted population for applicable neglected tropical diseases lymphatic filariasis, schistosomiasis, soil-transmitted helminths and trachoma was 92.6 per cent. Between 2015 and 2018, preventive chemotherapy for lymphatic filariasis was consistently over 90 per cent whereas coverage for schistosomiasis decreased from 100 per cent in 2015 to 93 per cent in 2018. There has been a slight increase in preventive chemotherapy coverage for trachoma, from 54 per cent in 2015 to 61 per cent in 2017, and soil-transmitted helminths, from 15 per cent in 2015 to 18 per cent in 2018 (MOH 2020).

Mortality related to NCDs – such as cardiovascular diseases, cancer, chronic respiratory disease and diabetes – accounts for 29 per cent of all deaths in the country. In 2016, approximately 36,400 premature deaths from NCDs were estimated to occur nationally (WHO 2018). In 2019, WHO estimates the probability of dying from the four major NCDs was 24.6 per cent in Zambia (WHO 2021). The total alcohol per capita (\geq 15 years of age) consumption was estimated to be 4.5 litres of pure alcohol annually in 2019. In the same year, 20.5 deaths per 100,000 people are estimated to have been due to road traffic accidents (WHO 2021). WHO estimated the national suicidal mortality rate at 6 per 100,000 people in 2016, rising slightly to an estimated 7.3 per 100,000 people in 2019 (WHO 2018 and WHO 2021a).

Between 2017 and 2019, skilled attendance at birth improved from 63.6 to 74.5 per cent (MOH 2019).²⁶ However, there was a reduction in maternal mortality from 398 to 252 per 100,000 live births between 2013/14 and 2018. This shows that the country is still far from meeting the SDG target set at or below 70 maternal deaths per 100,000⁵ live births. Similarly, unmet need for family planning among married women reduced marginally from 21 to 20 per cent; and adolescent pregnancy rate increased from 27 to 29 per cent in the same period. In 2018, the contraceptive prevalence rate was estimated to be 48 per cent, while the estimated total fertility rate was 4.7 per cent. In the same way, a reduction in the under five years old child mortality rate has been documented, reducing from 75 to 61 per 1,000 births between 2013/14 and 2018, while neonatal mortality has increased slightly from 24 to 27 per 1,000 live births in the same period (SCO, MOH & ICF 2014, ZSA, MOH & ICF 2018).

Zambia has experienced a series of waves of the COVID-19 pandemic which resulted in a decline in health service utilization, particularly antenatal care, health facility deliveries, and update of family planning as revealed by thenational level analyses from the Health Management Information System. This projects a potential increase in fertility, and maternal mortality and morbidity especially among adolescent girls, because of low utilization of routine services, including family planning and adolescent sexual and reproductive health services, for fear of contracting COVID-19 in health facilities. Additionally, the closure of schools as part of mitigation measures to reduce the further spread of COVID-19 has predisposed adolescent girls to sexual violence, child marriage and pregnancy. (<https://reports.unocha.org/en/country/zambia/card/6ELuzrX3VI/>)

²⁵ World Health Organization 2021. Global Health Observatory Data. From: [https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/incidence-of-tuberculosis-\(per-100-000-population-per-year\)](https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/incidence-of-tuberculosis-(per-100-000-population-per-year)) (accessed on 14 July 2021).

²⁶ MOH 2020. Annual Health Statistics Report 2017-2019. Ministry of Health, Lusaka, Zambia.

CHAPTER 3.



SDG 4.

Ensure Inclusive and Equitable Quality Education and Promote Lifelong Learning Opportunities for All



Early Childhood Education (ECE), which helps in preparing a child to start primary education, was formalized in public schools through enactment of the Education Act No 23 in 2011. The government has adopted a strategy of annexing an ECE class in primary schools to enhance access to pre-primary education. The number of children attending ECE has increased over time in real terms from 139,394 children in 2014 to 222,065 in 2018.²⁷ However, the proportion of grade one entrants with pre-school experience showed only a marginal 4 per cent increase from 26.1 per cent in 2017 to 29.4 per cent in 2018. Though, there has been a positive trend in access, most children are still excluded from ECE programmes with those from the rural regions, such as, North-Western Province with access as low as 14 per cent.²⁸ Additionally, 44 per cent of grade one entrants in 2018 were above the official school age of seven years old, showing that children do not start school on time, which is indicative of the inadequate supply of ECE services. Moreover, the delivery of the play based ECE curriculum has been a challenge even among trained teachers. Though Zambia has made tireless efforts toward universal primary education and increasing access to secondary education, it still faces challenges in access to education. While the gross enrolment rate at the primary level stands at 102.4 per cent, the primary net enrolment rate has been declining since 2016. It has declined from 90.4 per cent in 2016, to 83.6 per cent in 2018. Moreover, an estimated 816,641 school-aged children remain out-of-school, of which 27 per cent are of primary school age.²⁹ With regards to learning achievement, international, regional and national assessments show very poor learning outcomes among Zambian learners. A 2018 Programme for International Assessment study points that only 5 per cent of learners attained the minimum proficiency in reading and 2 per cent the minimum proficiency in mathematics.³⁰ The 2016 national assessment survey for grades five and nine paints a similar picture of very poor performance with a mean score of below 40 per cent. Many factors explain this learning crisis, including low ECE enrolment, large primary class sizes, insufficient classroom resources, and poor incentives and rewards for schooling achievement in labour markets both in terms of employment and income. As a driving force for the provision of good quality education, enhancing teacher capacity, through equipping teachers with 21st century skills, is vital for enhanced and efficient education service delivery in Zambia.

A monumental achievement for the country is that Zambia has achieved near universal primary school completion levels which is 91.8 per cent at grade seven, mainly because of free primary education and the 50-50 enrolment policies. However, transition rates from primary to secondary school continue to remain low at 67.5 per cent, mainly due to the lack of places to accommodate all primary school graduates. Additional barriers include school fees introduced in grade eight, other indirect and opportunity costs of education, and the long distances to secondary schools. Access to secondary education remains low with the gross enrolment rate standing at 45.8 per cent and net enrolment at only 20.2 per cent and with evident regional disparities varying from a net enrolment rate of 13.9 per cent in Eastern Province to 52.9 per cent in North-Western Province.³¹

²⁷ Education Statistical Bulletin (ESB), 2018

²⁸ ESB 2018

²⁹ Ibid

³⁰ The Programme for International Student Assessment is a worldwide study by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in member and non-member nations intended to evaluate educational systems by measuring 15-year-old school pupils' scholastic performance on mathematics, science and reading

³¹ DHS 2018

Access to secondary education is particularly challenging for girls who are disproportionately affected by child marriage and early pregnancy, as well as for children with special educational needs (CSEN). In Zambia 29 per cent of young women aged 15 to 19 are already mothers or pregnant with their first child. Rural young women are twice as likely (37 per cent) to have begun childbearing than urban young women (19 per cent). By province, teenage pregnancy ranges from a low of 15 per cent in Lusaka to a high of 43 per cent in Southern Province.³¹

The impact of child marriage and pregnancies continues to have a significant impact on the educational outcomes of girls in Zambia. Re-admissions of girls after giving birth stands at 51 per cent and 69 per cent at primary and secondary levels respectively, suggesting the relative effectiveness of the re-entry policy at the secondary level.³² Reproductive health and sexuality education features as a cross-cutting theme in the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 and is integrated into several subjects from grade 5 to 12. Strengthening implementation of the comprehensive sexuality education programme could contribute towards addressing factors that contribute to school dropout and gender disparities in education, such as early and unintended pregnancy and school related gender-based violence. While there is gender parity at the primary school level the gender parity index at the secondary school level is below parity at 0.85, which further falls to 0.69 at grade 12, with the completion rate at grade 12 standing at 31.6 per cent among girls and 40.4 per cent among boys.³³

Ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education as well as promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all remains the main conduit of ensuring adequate and effective human capital to foster any form of development in the country. However, inclusivity particularly for people with disabilities as well as social justice and empowerment of the vulnerable cohorts of the society such as refugees is not being addressed fully and effectively. The prevalence of disability in Zambia for 2- to 17-year-olds is estimated at 4.4 per cent.³⁴ Despite the government's policy for inclusive education, educational opportunities for children with special education needs and disabilities (CSEND) remain limited in Zambia. In 2018, the total number of CSENDs in school account for only 3 per cent of all children in mainstream education with 113,698 (85 per cent) at the primary school level and only 23,804 (15 per cent) at the secondary school level. Moreover, only 2 per cent of all qualified teachers have a special education qualification. Anecdotal information indicates that most CSENDs never enter school or are withdrawn by parents or dropout from school due to stigma and social exclusion.

Refugee children asylum seekers have very limited access to education with only 50 per cent currently enrolled in 14 schools within the three refugee re-settlement districts. Refugee education faces several challenges including inadequate teachers, lack of enough learning materials, inadequate school infrastructure, language barriers, general lack of interest in education among some refugee parents and high poverty and vulnerability levels making parents fail to send their children to school especially at the secondary and tertiary level. The government's scholarships scheme currently does not cater for refugees. There is a need to make the vocational and entrepreneurship training programmes in Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TEVET) institutions more inclusive and provide equitable access to vulnerable children such as CSENDs and refugees, in order to create opportunities for attaining self-reliance.

³¹ DHS 2018

³² Ibid

³³ ESB 2018

³⁴ Zambia National Disability survey, 2015



With almost two-third of children failing to complete a secondary school education, many adolescents and youths in Zambia are not gaining the relevant knowledge and skills for a productive life and are left with no options for lifelong learning, professional advancement and/or independent economic empowerment. Only 5 per cent of Zambian women and 8 per cent of men have a post-secondary level education³⁵ and there is factual lack of skills in manufacturing as indicated from the findings of the Enterprise Survey of 2013 and 2019. Most of the current workforce acquires their skills through vocational institutions accredited by the TEVET Authority Zambia. Due to the unavailability of industry linkages and funding constraints, most of these vocational institutions lack the appropriate infrastructure and modern equipment to provide their students with market relevant competencies. Because of this, even the graduates of these institutions are unable to find suitable employment, or, even if they do find work, have difficulty performing and retaining their jobs. The labour market operates with a sizeable expatriate workforce to fill this skills shortage. The unemployment rate among 20 to 24-year-olds, is very high and stands at 23.2 per cent (16.8 per cent male and 27.9 per cent female), more than double the national unemployment rate of 11.4 per cent.³⁶

The current COVID-19 pandemic has continued to disrupt learning, further exacerbating the already existing learning crisis and inequities in education and skills development especially among vulnerable and marginalized children. Zambia like many countries is at risk of the reversal of gains made towards ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all.

³⁵ DHS, 2018

³⁶ 2018 Labour Force Survey



SDG 5. Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls

Women not only constitute the majority of Zambia's population (51.4 per cent) compared to that of men (48.6 per cent),³⁷ they also constitute the majority of the extreme poor. According to the 2015 LCMS,³⁸ there are higher levels of poverty among female-headed households (56.7 per cent) compared to those headed by their male counterparts (53.8 per cent). Further, there are proportionately more extremely poor persons in female-headed households (42.9 per cent) than in male-headed households.

Gender Equality

Zambia ranks as one of the most gender unequal countries in Africa with a gender inequality index of 0.54 as at 2019.³⁹ This and other indicators prompted the government to show its commitment to eradicating discrimination against women, by acceding to or ratifying international treaties that guaranteed human rights without distinction based on sex or other grounds and joining the international community in endorsing several plans of action for the full, equal and beneficial integration of women in all development activities.

Zambia is committed to promoting women's empowerment and has taken steps to do so through the Gender Equity and Equality Rights Act, 2015. This act is aimed at domesticating international human rights documents such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; the Southern African Development Community Protocols on Gender and Development, 2008; and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, 2003. Furthermore, the act gives effect to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and is intended to implement women's empowerment targets that meet international standards with respect to political, social, economic and cultural issues.

In addition, Zambia's Constitution specifically provides for the non-discrimination of women on the basis of sex, as do several national policy and legislation⁴⁰ such as those outlined in Annex 1 (Examples of National policies, frameworks and legislation promoting non-discrimination of women on the basis of sex).

To strengthen legislation on gender equality in general and non-discrimination of women, the women's rights movement tirelessly advocated for the enactment of the Gender Equity and Equality Act No. 22 of 2015. Some of the key provisions include prohibition of sexual harassment, access to sexual and reproductive health services and decision-making in terms of when to have children and how many children to have and the establishment of the Gender Equity and Equality Commission.

Women empowerment is still a challenge in the country.

According to the Zambia DHS 2018, only 31 per cent of married women mainly decide on their own how to use their cash earnings. Only 59 per cent of currently married women aged 15-49 were employed in the 12 months before the survey, as compared with 97 per cent of currently married men in the same age group. Women are less likely than men to be paid for their work in cash only (62 and 68 per cent, respectively). Furthermore, 17 per

³⁷ Zambia Labour Force Survey, LFS, 2019

³⁸ 2015 Living Conditions and Monitoring Survey, LCMS, 2015

³⁹ UN Human Development Report, 2019

⁴⁰ GRZ UN Joint Programme on GBV Phase II- November 2019-December 2022

CHAPTER 3.

cent of women who were employed in the 12 months prior to the survey were not paid for the work, compared with 11 per cent of men.

Suffice to note, the disparity between women and men in Zambia is a consequence of historical and cultural factors that contributed to a “division of labour” in which men were encouraged to participate in production, and women to work in the traditional sector. This was further replicated through women’s unequal participation in public life with women underrepresented at all levels of decision-making in government, parliament, political parties, the private sector, special public service committees and other institutions.⁴¹

Gender Based Violence

The marked inequalities between men and women in Zambia further translate into unequal access to resources and opportunities, and for many women entails susceptibility to abuse and in particular to gender-based violence (GBV). The risk is heightened for women and girls on the move; hence they need protection against such threats during all stages of the migration cycle.

While real-time data on GBV prevalence in Zambia is limited, available sources demonstrate that GBV cases are still worryingly high and influenced by a culture of silence.⁴² In the first quarter of 2020, 2,768 females reported cases of GBV against women (54.9 per cent of all recorded cases) compared to 841 cases reported by men (16.9 per cent of all recorded cases).⁴³ This is despite a reduction in overall recorded cases (5,040) compared to that of the same period in 2019 (5,584), indicating a 10.8 per cent decrease in GBV reported cases, encompassing mainly physical (42.9 per cent), economic (36.8 per cent), sexual (16.5 per cent) and emotional violence (3.3 per cent) reported across the country.

According to the DHS 2018, 46 per cent of women and 26 per cent of men agree with at least one specified reason justifying “wife beating”. The prevailing inadequate health seeking behaviour, limited availability of comprehensive GBV services, limited economic empowerment and independence of vulnerable women, a cycle of violence and socially entrenched harmful traditional practices remain key challenges in addressing GBV. To this end, the government, UN and stakeholders under the joint programme⁴⁴ continue to leverage efforts towards strengthening GBV prevention and response systems in Zambia in line with provisions of the Anti-Gender Based Violence Act No. 1 of 2011.

The 2018 Universal Periodic Review report by the Human Rights Councils recommended that in combating violence against women and girls, Zambia should swiftly and fully implement the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. This also includes the full implementation of the Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act of 2011 and the allocation of adequate budget resources for the Anti-Gender-Based Violence Fund.

Many of the causes of GBV are structural in nature including the patriarchal tendencies that undervalue the role of women in development, disempowering practices, and high poverty levels that make women economically dependent, and social norms such as looking at women as sexual objects subservient to men.

Child Marriage

In addition to the existing gender inequality and lack of empowerment for women and girls is the growing concern of child marriage in Zambia. Understood as the marriage of a person below the age of 18, child marriage deprives

⁴¹ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women Twenty-seventh session 3-21 June 2002 Excerpted from: Supplement No. 38 (A/57/38)

⁴² GRZ UN Joint Programme on GBV Phase II- November 2019-December 2022

⁴³ Zambia Police 1st Quarter 2020 GBV Statistics

⁴⁴ Ibid

adolescent girls of their reproductive health rights and infringes upon their opportunity to realize their full potential and enjoy their human rights as established in various international treaties.⁴⁵ From the DHS 2018, women marry earlier than men and 39 per cent of women 25-49 years were married by age 18, and 81 per cent were married by age 25. Rural girls are more likely to get married younger (18.3 years) compared to their urban counterparts (20.3 years).⁴⁶

Child marriage has been unfortunately promoted by Customary Law where there is no minimum age to marriage. Zambian Civil Law sets 21 years as the minimum age at which a woman can consent to marriage (Marriage Act of 1918). However, under the same law a child can be married, with parental consent, at 16 years. On the other hand, under unwritten customary law a girl can be married at puberty which in some instances can be 12 years or less. In light of this, there is the need to ensure that statutory law is harmonized with customary law, in order to eliminate elements of customary law that are discriminatory against girls and women. Article 7(d) of the Amended Constitution recognizes customary law if it is consistent with the Constitution. Therefore, to ensure that customary marriage law is consistent with the Constitution, there is a need to adopt the Southern African Development Community Model Law to end child marriage, amend the Marriage Act, and adopt policy that clearly defines marriage and prohibits child marriage.⁴⁷

Additionally, existent interventions of the UN and partners supporting the government in a bid to reduce child marriage by 40 per cent are ongoing and aim to achieve this through key interventions including girls' education, adolescent health, protection of girls and boys, poverty reduction and socio-economic opportunities, civil registration and empowerment of girls and families.⁴⁸

Education is a game changer in tackling child marriage as the more years a child spends in school the less likely they are to marry in childhood.⁴⁹ An estimated 49 per cent of women who did not complete primary school were married as children. The gender issues in teen pregnancy and child marriage are pronounced given that the estimated median age at first marriage is 19.1 years among women and 24.4 years among men, and the median age at first sexual intercourse is 16.6 years among women and 18.5 years among men.

There is reason to believe that the gender inequality gap and age gap is compounded to create a power-relationship gap. According to the Violence against Children Study conducted in 2014 over a quarter of girls have stated that their first sexual encounter was forced or coerced. Access to services for both girls and boys who experience sexual abuse is concerning. The Violence Against Children study conducted in 2014 shows that 0 per cent of girls who had experienced sexual violence received services as compared to 7.2 per cent for boys. This points to the need for much greater emphasis on social and behaviour change and gender transformative programming moving forward, including the empowerment of girls, positive parenting for adolescents and working with traditional leaders and religious leaders as well as other community influencers, such as teachers and health workers, so that a culture of zero tolerance towards girl sexual abuse is strengthened.

The UN in Zambia has been working to address adolescent pregnancy and motherhood as key components of its work to uphold the rights of adolescents by supporting the government through partnerships and advocacy efforts to raise awareness about child pregnancy, including its causes and consequence. These interventions

⁴⁵ UNFPA Zambia/Population Council Policy Brief "Child Marriage in Zambia", June 2017

⁴⁶ Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health (MOH) Zambia, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka, Zambia, and Rockville, Maryland, USA: Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health, and ICF

⁴⁷ UNFPA Zambia Policy Brief "Child Marriage in Zambia", June 2017

⁴⁸ National Advocacy and Communication Strategy on Ending Child Marriage in Zambia, 2018-2021

⁴⁹ Extracted from Secondary Data Analysis of 2018 DHS, completed by UNICEF (unpublished)

CHAPTER 3.

cut across all levels to foster supportive policies, legislation and dialogue to promote the dignity and rights of girls and adolescents, drawing attention to girls' needs and realities, given the harmful and life-threatening risks they face from pregnancies before age 18.⁵⁰ These reported statistics reinforce gaps in gender equality and empowerment of women and girls in Zambia.

Education

Additionally, despite education having a profound effect on the well-being and quality of life of individuals, women in Zambia still persistently lag behind in terms of access to education with 60 per cent of females aged six years or older having no education or only some primary education, compared to 54 per cent of males.⁵¹ Similarly, the male and female employment to population ratio was 39.4 and 23.4 per cent,⁵² respectively, indicating a higher proportion of unemployed women; all of which factors significantly towards gender inequality and women's unequal access to income, health, WASH services and nutrition, among other needs.

A significant gender gap emerges at the secondary school level, with secondary school completion at 31.6 per cent for girls and 40.4 per cent for boys. Moreover, there is also a marked geographical disparity in relation to girls' completion rates, which are as low as 26.5 per cent in Northern Province and 26.7 per cent in Southern Province.

While Zambia has a re-entry policy that encourages girls to return to school after delivery of a child, only 56 per cent of the 15,724 girls who dropped out of school in 2019 due to pregnancy returned to school (Education statistical Bulletin, 2019).

A UNICEF supported study⁵³ of violence in boarding schools showed a high rate of violence against girls, with nearly 20 per cent of girls being victims of sexual violence and/or engaging in transactional sex – with the perpetrators of violence often being male peers, present or ex-boyfriends and even male teachers. Given the importance of secondary education for girls, in terms of future livelihoods and reduction of child marriage, it is important that significant emphasis is put on both access to secondary education and implementation of school protection policies and practices (child safeguarding in schools).

According to UNICEF,⁵⁴ Zambia has achieved near universal primary school completion levels. With national statistics indicating a completion rate of 91.8 per cent at grade seven, for children in the early years, the coverage of care, learning and education services remains persistently low. Overall, girls continue to be at a disadvantage with many dropping out in the upper primary and secondary grades, and poorer levels of transition to junior secondary and senior secondary levels. Working with the government and stakeholders, the UN in Zambia continues to contribute towards access to equitable and inclusive access to quality education, including improved readmission rates for female students after a pregnancy.

The above detailed circumstances consistently result from the perpetual lack of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls in society and require to be comprehensively addressed through policy and practice in order for Zambia to record meaningful progress towards attainment of SDG5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls.

⁵⁰ Adapted from UNFPA: Adolescent Pregnancy- A Review of the Evidence, 2013

⁵¹ Zambia Demographic Health Survey Report, ZDHS, 2018

⁵² Zambia Labour Force Survey, LFS, 2019

⁵³ Extracted from Secondary Data Analysis of 2018 DHS, completed by UNICEF (unpublished)

⁵⁴ UNICEF Zambia Country Programme Document 2016-2020 (Extended to 2021)



SDG 6.

Ensure Availability & Sustainable Management of Water And Sanitation for All



In Zambia, poor access to WASH services is one of the main causes of infectious diseases including cholera and diarrhoea, while inadequate WASH services continue to be the leading cause of death of children under the age of five years old.⁵⁵ Girls and women are particularly affected by poor WASH conditions as they must carry water from distant water sources and often suffer inadequate menstrual hygiene management as a result of poor access to water and sanitation facilities. The impacts of poor WASH conditions are exacerbated in emergency situations such as the COVID-19 outbreak as well as other humanitarian situations. Therefore, working towards equitably and sustainably improving access to water in all communities, including both migrants and host communities is crucial.

In Zambia, widespread cholera outbreaks have occurred since 1977. The most recent major outbreak, which commenced in October 2017 and continued until May 2018, originated from peri-urban areas lacking access to adequate WASH services and resulted in 5,935 people contracting diseases and 114 deaths.⁵⁶ Zambia's high rate of child stunting (35 per cent) is in part a result of poor WASH services.⁵⁷ In Zambian schools, lack of access to adequate WASH services negatively affects students and contributes to high dropout rates, especially among girls.⁵⁸

Recognizing the gaps in coverage of WASH services and the critical role of WASH in social and economic development and public health, the government has committed in its Vision 2030 to reaching 100 per cent coverage of WASH services by 2030. The National Urban and Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programmes and the Eighth National Development Plan operationalize Vision 2030 and the SDGs. In 2016, the government created a dedicated Ministry of Water Development, Sanitation and Environmental Protection (MWDSEP) and a full-fledged Department of Water Supply and Sanitation in the Ministry to provide strong leadership to the WASH sector. In 2019, the Cabinet approved the National Water and Sanitation Policy which underscores the government's commitment to accelerate universal access to WASH services, in line with its Vision 2030 and the SDGs, as well as key sector strategies. The MWDSEP has set out to strengthen the implementation of national urban and rural water supply and sanitation programmes. This involves water supply and sanitation infrastructure development, water quality monitoring, and sanitation and hygiene promotion.

According to the 2018 Zambia DHS, 64 per cent of Zambia's population had access to basic drinking water services,⁵⁹ while 33 per cent had access to basic sanitation services in 2018. An estimated 10 per cent of the

⁵⁵ Bosomprah et al. (2016), Findings from a Comprehensive Diarrhoea Prevention and Treatment Programme in Lusaka, Zambia. Available at <https://bmcpublihealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12889-016-3089-7>

⁵⁶ Ministry of Health, GRZ (2018)

⁵⁷ Zambia Water Supply and Sanitation Sector Diagnostic Narrowing the Gap between Policy and Practice UNICEF ESA Baby WASH Programming 2020 <https://www.unicef.org/esa/media/7076/file/UNICEF-ESA-Baby-WASH-Programming-2020.pdf>

⁵⁸ WASH in Schools Strategy 2019 - 2030 (Published 2020)

⁵⁹ Basic water: Drinking water from an improved source (e.g., piped household water connection public standpipe, borehole, protected dug well, protected spring, rainwater collection), provided collection time is not more than 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing.

⁶⁰ A handwashing facility with soap and water

CHAPTER 3.

population practiced open defecation while 24 per cent of households had access to basic hygiene service in 2018.⁶⁰ Some 40 per cent of healthcare facilities have basic water services and 93 per cent improved sanitation coverage in healthcare facilities. Only about 60 per cent of non-hospital healthcare facilities have hygiene services at point of care. As regards access to WASH services in schools, 79 per cent, 66 per cent and 54 per cent of schools had access to basic drinking water, sanitation and hygiene services, respectively, in 2016.⁶¹ The presence of large numbers of refugees in Zambia (over 100,000) has generated substantial humanitarian needs and has had great socio-economic impact on refugee hosting areas, which are in remote parts of the country and lack adequate access to WASH services.

The results of ZDHS 2018 show that Zambia has made gains in terms of increasing access to WASH services. The access to basic water supply increased from 61 per cent in 2015⁶² to 64 per cent in 2018. During the same period, access to basic sanitation increased from 28 to 33 per cent while access to basic handwashing facility increased from 17 to 24 per cent. Similarly, open defecation reduced from 17 per cent in 2015 to 10 per cent in 2018. These improvements are, however, not commensurate with the gaps and growing demand and further investments are needed, particularly in sanitation and hygiene, if Zambia is to reach its Vision 2030 targets.

Considerable urban-rural, geographic, income and gender disparities exist in coverage of WASH services in Zambia. Access to basic water supply is 87 per cent in urban areas and 49 per cent in rural areas. Similarly, access to basic sanitation is 41 per cent in urban areas and 28 per cent in rural areas. The corresponding access to basic hygiene is 36 and 15 per cent, respectively. About 16 per cent of the rural population practices open defecation compared to 1 per cent in urban areas. The coverage of basic water supply is lowest in Northern Province (36 per cent) and highest in Lusaka (91 per cent). The coverage of basic sanitation is lowest in Western Province (5 per cent) and highest in Copperbelt Province (46 per cent). Despite relatively high overall access to WASH services in urban areas, the access in high density unplanned informal settlements, where about 70 per cent of the urban population lives, is very low. Only 18 per cent of the population in the lowest wealth quintile has basic sanitation service, as compared with 65 per cent of the population in the highest wealth quintile (ZDHS, 2018). Access to WASH services has strong linkages with prevailing cultural and social norms in Zambia that impose a burden on women and children, especially girls, who are rarely in control of household finances. This further impacts their ability to access key WASH services. In general, although there has been an increased focus on women's WASH needs, Zambia is still lagging in addressing these fully. Further, the responsibility for collecting water for many households falls disproportionately on women and girls, especially in rural and peri-urban areas.

Water security in Zambia is being affected by frequent climatic shocks. With changes in rainfall variability, some regions in Zambia have experienced devastating floods and/or droughts. Furthermore, both flood and drought conditions have worsened access to safe drinking water among the households.⁶³ The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic is likely to slow down progress on WASH-related SDGs due to a decrease in revenues and allocation of resources for continuity and scaling up of WASH services, in addition to the reduced capacity of communities to construct, repair and maintain household sanitation and hygiene facilities.

⁶¹ GRZ (2018), Data on SDG baselines for school WASH, Ministry of General Education, Lusaka

⁶² Estimates from WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) Report

⁶³ National Policy on Climate Change 2016 (<https://www.pmrzambia.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/National-Policy-on-Climate-Change.pdf>)



Key WASH sector challenges include, firstly, funding gaps for WASH financing, this links with the lack of a comprehensive sector management information system, without timely or accurate data for planning, targeting and management. Government budgets for WASH services are set based on historical patterns rather than the needs of the population and remain low. A Zambia Council for Social Development 2021 Budget Analysis shows that the allocation towards the WASH sector reduced from 2.4 per cent in 2020 to 1.8 per cent in 2021. Private sector investment is also insufficient, given the low returns in the water and sanitation business. Secondly, another key challenge is low access to WASH services, especially in rural and peri-urban areas. For example, aging water infrastructure is a fundamental point of weakness in water supply in both urban and rural areas. In rural and peri-urban areas, where water supply initiatives emphasized borehole drilling to supply clean underground water, communities have reverted to the use of shallow wells for their water supply as the boreholes have become unusable, due to their state of disrepair. In addition, increased urbanisation is placing a strain on WASH services and infrastructure as this results in growing unplanned peri-urban settlements. Thirdly, capacity gaps at the national and sub-national levels for planning, implementation and monitoring of WASH interventions, due to limited human and financial resources allocated has been a challenge.

CHAPTER 3.



3.2. Prosperity: SDG7, SDG8, SDG9, SDG10



SDG 7.

Ensure Access to Affordable, Reliable, Sustainable and Modern Energy for All

According to the *Zambian Energy Sector Monitoring and Evaluation Plan (2020)*, the country's energy sector aims to provide access to clean, affordable, reliable energy at the least financial, economic, social and environmental cost that is in line with the 7NDP. This is being pursued through the integrated planning and implementation of programmes and projects in energy with the involvement of all relevant stakeholders. The *Zambia Energy Sector Monitoring and Evaluation Plan* seeks to achieve SDG7 by according access to reliable, affordable current energy services; enhancing the proportion of renewable energy in the national energy sources; increasing international cooperation to promote access to clean energy technology and research; improving energy efficiency and better clean fossil-fuel technology; and supporting the establishment of energy infrastructure and renewable climate smart energy technology.

It should be noted that a significant percentage of the population in Zambia relies on biomass for energy – which has implications on deforestation, GHG emissions and climate change. According to the *NEP 2019*, 84.5 per cent of rural households use firewood for cooking, followed by charcoal at 13.2 per cent of households. In urban areas, 59.1 per cent of households use charcoal for cooking and 6 per cent use firewood.

The 7NDP (2017- 2021) supports the energy targets of Vision 2030 through four key strategies summarized as:

- (a) Increase in generation, transmission and subsequent distribution of electricity.
- (b) Increase strategic reserves and provision of petroleum products.
- (c) Promote green and alternative energy.
- (d) Increase access to electricity in rural and peri- urban areas.

Assessment of access to reliable, affordable current energy services: The mining sector consumes more than 60 per cent of the total electricity generated, followed by domestic use at 30 per cent (*Energy Sector Monitoring and Evaluation Plan, 2020*). Other categories including manufacturing consume about 5 per cent each. Access to electricity in both urban and rural areas combined has increased from 27.9 per cent in 2013 to 32.8 per cent in 2018 (*VNR, 2020*). Access in rural areas is estimated to have increased from 4.9 per cent in 2013 to 8.1 per cent in 2018, while the Rural Electrification Authority estimates it to have increased to 8.4 per cent. On the other hand, connectivity in urban areas has jumped from 61.5 per cent in 2013 to 70.6 in 2018. The slow rate of connectivity in rural areas has been attributed to connection fees, which many rural people cannot afford.

Proportion of renewable energy in the national energy sources: Zambia diversified the sources of its energy generation, such that by 2019 it consisted of 80.6 per cent hydropower, 10.1 per cent thermal (coal) power, 3.6 per cent solar power and 2.8 per cent from standby gas and diesel turbines. This generation of electricity from a variety of sources has been necessary due to the increased electricity demand (4 per cent annually), which has been attributed to the growth of the agriculture, mining and manufacturing sectors.



Promotion of access to clean energy technology and research, renewable energy improved energy efficiency and better clean fossil-fuel technology: The government has introduced regulatory and policy measures to promote private sector participation in the energy sector. This has led to an additional 88.336 MW generated from the private sector. Some power generation projects are under construction and are expected to contribute to the energy pool between 2019 and 2022 (Zambian VNR, 2020). The energy sector expects improvement to the country's power generation resilience against the negative effects of climate change, which were putting pressure on hydro generation as a major energy source.

Support in setting up energy infrastructure and renewable climate smart energy technology: Zambia's electricity generation has heavily relied on hydropower, which poses an economic risk to major electricity consumers. This was demonstrated in the 2014/2015 dry spells and the 2017/2018 summer seasons, which were attributed to climate change and negatively affected power generation at the main electricity generating dams. Corresponding power deficits during these dry spells were 1000 MW, and 700 MW for December 2015 and the third quarter of 2019, respectively. In view of these challenges, in 2017 the government championed a Renewable Energy Feed in Tariff Strategy designed to attract private sector participation in small- and medium-sized renewable energy projects. This resulted in the development of private sector solar energy plants including the 2019 commissioned and completed Bangweulu 54 MW and Ngonye 35 MW solar projects in Lusaka District, Lusaka Province, which feed into the national grid; and the 1 MW solar power generation plant commissioned in Riverside Kitwe District in 2018. In addition to these solar projects, in 2019 the government in partnership with The World Bank developed the Solar and Wind Atlas to provide information on solar and wind resources in Zambia that can be used to generate power. Such a resource is key to private sector/government participation in renewable energy generation.

The energy sector seeks to contribute towards achievement of Vision 2030 by supplying adequate, affordable and reliable energy to rural and urban areas. To scale up the rate of rural electrification, the government developed the Rural Electrification Master Plan, which serves as the blueprint for rural electrification for the period 2008 to 2030. Ambitious targets have been set in the plan to achieve a rural electrification rate of 51 per cent by 2030 through electrification of 1,217 rural growth centres. The centres are expected to be electrified using three principal energy methods: grid extension, mini-grid electrification and stand-alone solar systems. In accordance with this, the Rural Electrification Authority has completed ten power generation projects. Under this strategy the authority had managed, by December 2019, to electrify 494 out of the 588 (84%) rural growth centres targeted for completion by end of 2021.

CHAPTER 3.



SDG 8.

Promote Sustained, Inclusive and Sustainable Economic Growth, Full and Productive Employment and Decent Work For All



The Zambian economy is one of the most vulnerable in the region and relies heavily on mining, agriculture and tourism – all of which are currently not performing well largely because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Most of the populace are in the informal sector (UN ZAMBIA Socio-Economic Response and Recovery Plan, July 2020). In line with SDG8, the 7NDP spells out a macroeconomic environment for attaining economic transformation to improve livelihoods and the provision of decent and productive jobs. Zambia wishes to attain an average annual GDP that exceeds 5 per cent. The country hopes to achieve this by industrialization and job creation, promotion of cooperatives, SME development, increased entrepreneurial skills and employment opportunities in remote/rural areas.

The country's economy has grown at an average of 3.3 per annually, which is more than 2 per cent less than the envisaged +5 per cent economic growth target of the 7NDP. The low growth rate was a result of external and internal negative forces. On the domestic front, there were climatic effects in the form of droughts that adversely affected crop yields and economic activities, especially in the 2014/2015 and 2018/2019 rain seasons.

The country also has a burden of servicing its debt obligations, which in 2020 took up about 34 per cent of the 2020 national budget. The resources allocated to debt servicing were higher than that for social protection, health and agriculture combined (Kuteya, 2019). High global oil prices also had the effect of reducing net demand for copper, thus reducing Zambia's export earnings. This situation was further exacerbated by the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, whose shocks were extended to other business sectors. The country's adoption of some WHO COVID-19 containment measures had a negative impact on all business enterprises, large and small. The transport, educational and tourism sectors were most affected, while the health delivery, agriculture and mining sectors operated at varying degrees of optimum capacity.

Other facts currently influencing growth in Zambia include loss of jobs, reduced work hours and/or salary reductions; disruption of supply chains and reduction of local consumption demand; and worsened food security situation for the most vulnerable.

Against the immense pressure and volatility of the formal work sector, Statutory Instrument No. 48 of 2020 suspended some of the provisions of the Employment Act No. 3 of 2019, relating to leave, forced leave and redundancy.

In response to the socio-economic vulnerabilities experienced, the government set up the Epidemic Preparedness Fund and approved a COVID-19 response plan with a collective total budget of K716 million. Support from the UN Socio-Economic Response Plan also sought to (a) assist the health system during the pandemic, (b) help people via social protection as well as basic services, (c) protect SMEs in the informal sector and defend jobs through economic recovery, (d) assist in guiding the financial and fiscal stimulus to, and the macroeconomic framework work for, the vulnerable majority (UN ZAMBIA Socio-Economic Response and Recovery Plan – July 2020).

The resilience of the economy can directly be attributed to the quality of its labour force. There is a need to continue efforts to improve the alignment of the education system (especially tertiary level training) with the demands of the country's economy to deliver sustained economic growth.

Diversification is of paramount importance to improve the resilience of Zambia's economy. Towards this end, the informal sector is recognized as a key resilience driver. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security also continues efforts to extend social security and decent work coverage to the informal sector through the National Strategy on Extension of Social Security Coverage to the Informal Economy Workers adopted in August 2020. In response, the national social security agencies, namely the National Pension Scheme Authority, the Workers Compensation Fund Control Board and the National Health Insurance Scheme have all adopted extension programmes to the informal sector. The domestic work sector has also been prioritized to address its decent work deficits, as guided by the principles of ILO Convention 189. The UN in Zambia has begun an engagement to lobby the government to consider ratification of this convention.

Agriculture and related industries have been the major employer. However, the Labour Force Survey 2018 (2018 LFS) has shown a gradual move of the employed population away from agriculture industries to others. The agriculture industry employed 73 per cent, 52.2 per cent and later 48.9 per cent of the employed population in 2005, 2012 and 2014, respectively. According to the same survey, 16.4 per cent of people were formally employed, and 88.6 per cent were informally employed. In 2017, following the adoption of new definitions of employment and non-employment in accordance with the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians of 2013, the agriculture and forestry industries employed 28.2 per cent of the workforce, while the wholesale and retail sectors employed 23.4 per cent. According to the 2018 LFS, the agriculture, forestry and fishing sectors combined employ the highest percentage (28.7 per cent) of youths in Zambia, followed by the motor vehicle and motorcycle repair sector (23.1 per cent) then manufacturing (8.4 per cent). These types of industries provide youths with the opportunity to enter self-employment in their later years, as evident in the increase of informal employment from 2017 to 2018 at the expense of formal employment. Research is needed to know how much forestry contributes to GDP.

As per the 2018 LFS, the percentage of people employed in Zambia's agriculture sector increased from 25.9 per cent in 2017 to 28.2 per cent in 2018. Reliance on agriculture as a major employer is risky considering that the sector is the first to suffer shocks of adverse climate shifts such as droughts, floods and extremes of temperature. Any such shocks will lead to job insecurity for those in formal employment or trading for profit in agricultural products.

Additionally, according to the 2018 LFS, the overall labour force participation rate was 35.1 per cent. At the same time, more males (45.1 per cent) were actively participating than females (26.0 per cent). Further, more people were participating in urban (47.0 per cent) than rural (24.8 per cent) areas. The survey further revealed that more older people participated in the labour force than young people. Employed persons by sex revealed that more males were employed than females, depicting gender disparity that starts way back in education where there is preference by poverty-stricken families to send male children to secondary school ahead of girls.



From 2017 to 2018, formal sector employment decreased from 45.7 to 31.1 per cent, while in the same period, the informal sector employment increased from 31.0 to 45.4 per cent (LFSR, 2018). The employment rate by education level revealed that youth holding a grade 12 GCE “O” Levels had the highest employment rate (25.1 per cent) followed by grade 9 (20.3 per cent) and then Grade 7 (14.9 per cent). Surprisingly, youth who are BSc degree holders (1.5 per cent) and master’s degree holders (0.0 per cent) had the least employment opportunities. Precarious employment (that which is of short duration and/or can be terminated at short notice) was higher for males (22.0 per cent) than for females (14.4 per cent).

The use of child labour in the agricultural sector presents a concern and can disrupt school attendance. Concerns over the use of girls in sexual exploitation, human trafficking and child prostitution in brothels and bars has been raised by the social welfare sector with increased success in addressing such cases by joint police/social welfare interventions.

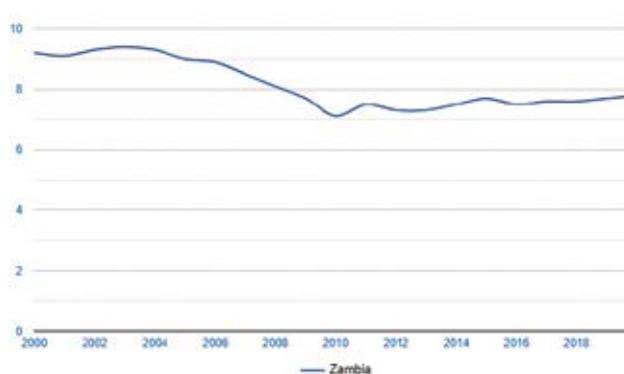
Despite the well documented contribution of labour migration to the economies of both origin and destination countries as well as to the concerned migrants and their families through labour supply and demand, remittances and social security benefits, among others, the government does not have a sector-specific labour migration strategy to fully harness the development potential of labour migration. This requires taking an inclusive approach to employment provision to ensure all migrant groups, including but not limited to refugees, return migrants and internally displaced persons, have access to labour market opportunities.

**SDG 9.****Build Resilient Infrastructure, Promote Inclusive and Sustainable Industrialization and Foster Innovation**

The Zambia Industrial Diagnostic Study (2020) confirms that Zambia, being a heavily natural resource-based country, would benefit from further development of value chains to effectively transform raw materials into processed goods. Despite the huge potential, the manufacturing sector only contributes 7 to 10 per cent of GDP according to the UNIDO SDG9 monitoring platform.⁶⁴ This is mainly due to limited investments in productivity and competitiveness desired for growth of the local manufacturing sector.⁶⁵ The government plans to increase the growth of the manufacturing sector from an average of 5 to 20 per cent and its contribution to GDP from 8 to 15 per cent by 2027.⁶⁶

Figure 6. Zambia SDG9 Monitoring**Zambia SDG 9 monitoring**

| | | |
|---|------|------|
| Manufacturing value added as a proportion of GDP (%) | 2020 | 7.8 |
| Manufacturing value added per capita (constant 2015 United States dollars) | 2020 | 97 |
| Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment (%) | 2018 | 8.7 |
| Proportion of small-scale industries in total industry value added (%) | - | - |
| Proportion of small-scale industries with a loan or line of credit (%) | 2019 | 7.6 |
| Carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combustion (millions of tonnes) | 2018 | 0.6 |
| Carbon dioxide emissions per unit of manufacturing value added (kilogrammes of CO ₂ per constant 2015 United States dollars) | 2018 | 0.34 |
| Proportion of medium and high-tech industry value added in total value added (%) | 2018 | 9.7 |

Manufacturing value added as a proportion of GDP (%)

Zambia has ambitions to transit from a lower middle-income country to an industrialized middle-income nation by 2030. The lack of adequate infrastructure, investment and local natural resource utilization are a major constraint to industrialization. While there has been marginal industrial growth, the inadequate road network affecting supply chains, climate change effects on agricultural productivity and lack of import substitution impede the country's industrialization. Constraints include limited access to markets, limited access to affordable long-term finance and the prevalence of outdated technology. Other constraints are the limited access to appropriate manufacturing related technical skills to meet industry needs, inadequate policy consistency and coherence,

⁶⁴ <https://stat.unido.org/SDG>

⁶⁵ Food Processing Sector: Investment Profile Summary - Zambia

⁶⁶ National Industrial Policy 2018

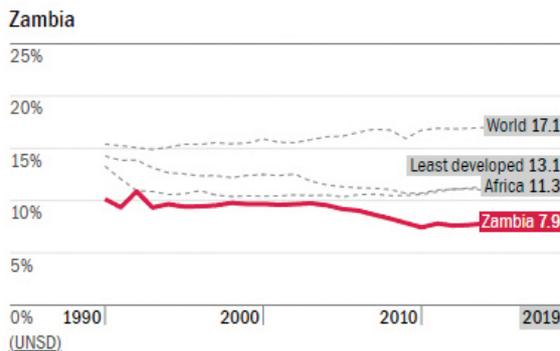
CHAPTER 3.

and underdeveloped conformity assessment and quality infrastructure and services. In addition, the impact of COVID-19 has resulted in limited access to raw materials, increased prices for inputs, fall in market demand, lack of access to finance, and job losses.

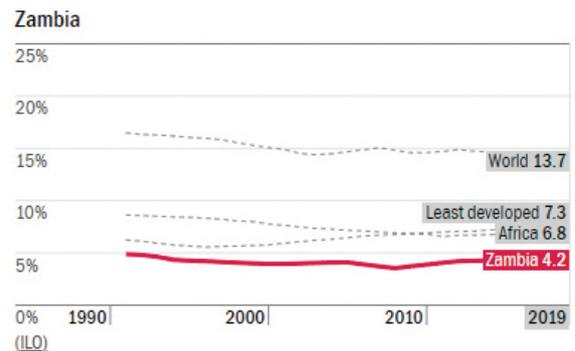
The importance of industrialization as the main driver to achieve economic diversification and job creation is fully reflected in the 7NDP and the National Industrial Policy 2018 which further sets the foundations for inclusive growth in the manufacturing sector and aims to stimulate value addition activities on primary commodities as a means of increasing non-traditional national exports other than traditional exports (copper) and creating employment opportunities.

Figure 7. Zambia's manufacturing sector

Manufacturing in total value added (%)



Manufacturing in total employment (%)



Industry share of total manufactured exports (%)

| Zambia | Share % | Change | Southern African Customs Union | Share % | Change | World | Share % | Change |
|------------------------------|---------|--------|--------------------------------|---------|--------|----------------------------|---------|--------|
| 1 = Basic metals | 84.8 | -5.2 | 1 = Basic metals | 49.5 | +8.2 | 1 = Chemicals | 14.1 | +1.7 |
| 2 ↑ Food & beverages | 3.5 | +0.9 | 2 ↑ Automotive | 14.3 | +9.4 | 2 ↑ Telecommunications | 10.0 | +1.8 |
| 3 ↑ Chemicals | 3.4 | +2.9 | 3 ↓ Chemicals | 8.7 | -1.6 | 3 = Automotive | 9.9 | -0.8 |
| 4 ↑ Publishing | 2.3 | +2.2 | 4 ↓ Food & beverages | 6.2 | -3.6 | 4 ↓ Machinery & appliances | 9.8 | -1.4 |
| 5 ↓ Glass, ceramics & cement | 2.1 | +1.5 | 5 = Machinery & appliances | 5.7 | +0.3 | 5 ↑ Basic metals | 7.6 | +0.4 |
| Show all + | | | Show all + | | | Show all + | | |
| | | 2018 | | | 2018 | | | 2018 |

(Source: Manufacturing Sector study report)



However, to promote industrialization, Zambia has adopted several measures and strategies to provide direct contribution to economic diversification and job creation. These include the National Local Content Strategy (2018-2022), creating business linkages to foster local manufacturing sector growth; the Zambia Leather Value Chain Strategy, promoting production of finished leather products; the National Investment Promotion Strategy (2018-2022), promoting local and foreign direct investments for industrial growth; and the National Resource Mapping (2017) identifying natural resources and areas of comparative advantage of potential investments.

Strengthening investments, development and operationalization of special economic zones remain key for industrialization and job creation; while innovation is key to sustainable industrial development and aims to advance the technological capabilities of industrial sectors and prompts the development of new skills. According to the 2020 International Bank for Reconstruction and Development [World Bank], Zambia's digital transformation has made progress in recent years. Fibre backbone and expansion of mobile networks now links all 10 provincial centres. However, connectivity and access to technology to the vast majority of populated rural areas remain a challenge.

SDG9 aims to achieve socially inclusive and environmentally sustainable economic development based on interconnecting infrastructure, industrialization and innovation. Promoting economic diversification that can generate productive jobs targeting women and youths while protecting the environment and managing natural resources is a key to achieve inclusive and sustainable industrial development for Zambia.

There is a need to undertake a manufacturing sector profiling, to create an industrial database and to invest in research and development to support evidence-based processes to achieve industrialization. Development and implementation of sector-specific policies and strategies to support industrial growth remains critical to promote inclusive and sustainable industrial growth. As such, key priorities include policy and strategies for micro, medium and small enterprises; national quality policy, and the pharmaceuticals sector, among others.



SDG 10.

Reduce Inequality Within and Among Countries

Zambia has adopted SDG10 and poverty reduction policies to reduce inequality in the country. To enhance equality in the health sector, the government has introduced a national health insurance scheme that has a defined free service package and minimizes the cost of access to health services at the point of need.

The government makes health transfers or support to hospitals, although irregularly, at three tier levels. Level one is a district hospital/clinic or ward health post, level two is a referral hospital, and level three is a national specialized centre that is more well equipped than the others. The support rendered to these healthcare facilities is intended to make healthcare equally affordable to all Zambians.

In 2017, the Social Cash Transfer programme was scaled up to the entire country and currently benefits 617,000 households in five vulnerability groups:

- (a) Household with a member aged 65 and above
- (b) Household with a member with a severe disability
- (c) Household with a member with chronic illness on palliative care
- (d) Female headed household with three plus children under 19 years old
- (e) Household headed by a child under 19 years old

The Farmer Input Support Programme has raised the maize yield by 188kg per 100kg of fertilizer support, though this is lower than that achieved in other countries like Kenya under a similar programme, which achieved 361kg maize per 100kg of fertilizer support (Masona et al., 2015). The programme has further contributed to a reduction of maize prices by between 1 to 4 per cent in Zambia (Alejandro de la Fuente et al., 2017). Inefficient supply of inputs under the programme contributed to its low impact on maize yields and prices.

In line with SDG 10.7 which calls upon Member States to facilitate orderly, safe and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies, the government has made advances towards putting in place policy frameworks for migration management. The government has developed and is already implementing a national diaspora policy with the objective to harness the diaspora human, social and financial capital. Furthermore, the government is finalizing a comprehensive and overarching national migration policy that will enhance migration governance and management for the benefit of the country, migrants as well as their families and communities. Furthermore, the government is reviewing the national human trafficking and smuggling policy in order to align it to international best practices.

Southern Africa is home to the world's most unequal countries in terms of income distribution. As of 2019, Zambia, with a GINI coefficient of 57.1 is the third most unequal country at the global level, only behind Namibia (59.1) and South Africa (63). Malawi and Zimbabwe, two comparator regional Member States, have fared relatively well in the region, with GINI coefficients of 44.7 and 44.3 respectively. Strategies to reduce the income gap between the rich and the poor should focus on empowering the poor, including lower- and middle-class households,

youth, women and other vulnerable groups, for instance through increased access to quality education and training opportunities, the supply of accessible, affordable health care information and services, and effective participation in social and economic development processes at local and national levels.

Adult educational attainment, as measured by the mean years of schooling of the population aged 25 and above, is a key contributor to reducing income inequality as education opens access to employment opportunities. The level of educational attainment in Zambia has significantly improved over the years. As of 2019, the country is among the top performers in Southern Africa, with an estimated average of 7.2 years of education. This is higher than in Malawi (4.7 years) and Namibia (7 years), but lower than other fellow middle-income countries in the region such as Zimbabwe (8.5 years), Botswana (9.6 years) and South Africa (10.2 years). While the overall level of education quality has been acceptable, there is clearly significant potential for improvements across all educational subsectors, especially within the realm of technical and vocational education, training and skills development.

Unemployment rates, especially among youths and women, remain relatively high in Zambia, which could exacerbate income inequality in the country. According to estimates provided by the ILO, 12 per cent of the labour force were unemployed as of March 2020 (prior to the COVID-19 containment measures). For comparison, this figure was lower than the rate in Malawi (28.7 per cent), Namibia (19.9 per cent), but higher than the rate registered by Zimbabwe (4.8 per cent). Still, the youth unemployment rate was relatively high, estimated at 26 per cent, with the female youth unemployment rate higher at about 28 per cent. It is important to note, however, that these statistics refer to formal unemployment. The informal sector absorbs a large share of the working population, as they search for alternative survivalist means. A demographic dividend can only effectively materialize if the country continues to invest in the empowerment, education and employment of its young people, and formulates macroeconomic and labour market policies that lead to a major expansion of safe and secure employment.

Extensive evidence indicates that the lack of gender equity imposes substantial economic and social costs, as it hampers productivity and undermines economic growth. Gender and income inequality are closely linked at many levels. For instance, gender wage gaps directly contribute to income inequality, and higher gaps in labour force participation rates between men and women result in inequality of earnings, thereby creating and exacerbating overall income inequality. In Zambia, as in most countries in the Southern Africa, the most striking disparities are found in the labour market. Female labour participation rates are still considerably lower than their male counterparts, notwithstanding notable improvements over the years. As of 2019, the labour force participation rate for women in Zambia was estimated at 70.4 per cent against 79.1 per cent for men. In comparison, the female and male rates in Zimbabwe were 78.4 and 89 per cent respectively, while in Malawi, they were estimated at 72.6 and 81.1 per cent respectively. The labour force participation rates in Namibia, Botswana and Lesotho – three other middle-income countries – were much lower than in Zambia. For instance, the rates for women and men in Namibia were 56.1 and 63.3 per cent respectively. The UNDP Gender Inequality Index captures gender-based inequalities in reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity. In 2019, Zambia had a score of 0.539, which suggests a better outcome as compared with Malawi (0.565) and Lesotho (0.553), but worse performance than most other countries in the region such as Zimbabwe (0.527), Namibia (0.44) and Botswana (0.465). Substantial efforts towards reducing income and gender inequalities and the rural-urban divide could significantly help to accelerate structural transformation and sustainable development in the country.

CHAPTER 3.

3.3. Planet: SDG11, SDG12, SDG13, SDG14, SDG15



SDG 11.

Make Cities and Human Settlements Inclusive, Safe, Resilient and Sustainable



The government has taken considerable action to make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable. Zambia has developed relevant policies and legislative frameworks to guide its interventions in human settlements both in rural and urban areas. The 7NDP has provisions to improve human settlements especially under Pillar 3: Reducing Development Inequalities, with strategy one promoting integrated rural development and strategy two on labour force participation promoting urban and peri-urban economies, as well as number of programme outputs and outcome indicators on achieving sustainable human settlements.

The National Housing Policy 2020 (2020-2024) with a five-year implementation plan, provides a comprehensive guiding framework to tackle the housing challenges in the country and addresses issues of regularization and upgrading of informal settlements, urban renewal and sustainable housing.

The National Resettlement Policy of 2015, implemented across the country for close to 90 resettlement schemes, provides the mandate to resettle targeted citizens both on a voluntary and involuntary basis to provide them with an alternative livelihood while uplifting living standards of the rural communities. The government also developed the first ever National Urbanization Policy for Zambia, which was validated in 2019. The policy will help reinvigorate cities and communities and make them more resilient and liveable with access to infrastructure and basic services.

However, despite the existence of these frameworks to implement SDG11, more needs to be done. Since the Ministry of Local Government launched the Integrated Development Planning Guidelines in 2019 to guide local authorities in integrated development planning preparation (in line with the Urban and Regional Planning Act, 2015) local authorities countrywide have only developed 45 integrated development plans, of which the ministry has approved only nine.

Countrywide, as of 2020, 298 informal settlements had been formalized making them eligible for the development, by government, private sector and other stakeholders, of infrastructure and services such as schools, clinics, water and sanitation – which the lack of disproportionately affect women and girl children. Additionally, 58 settlements had partial upgrading and occupancy licenses issued in order to improve security of tenure in these unplanned settlements (MLG, 2020).

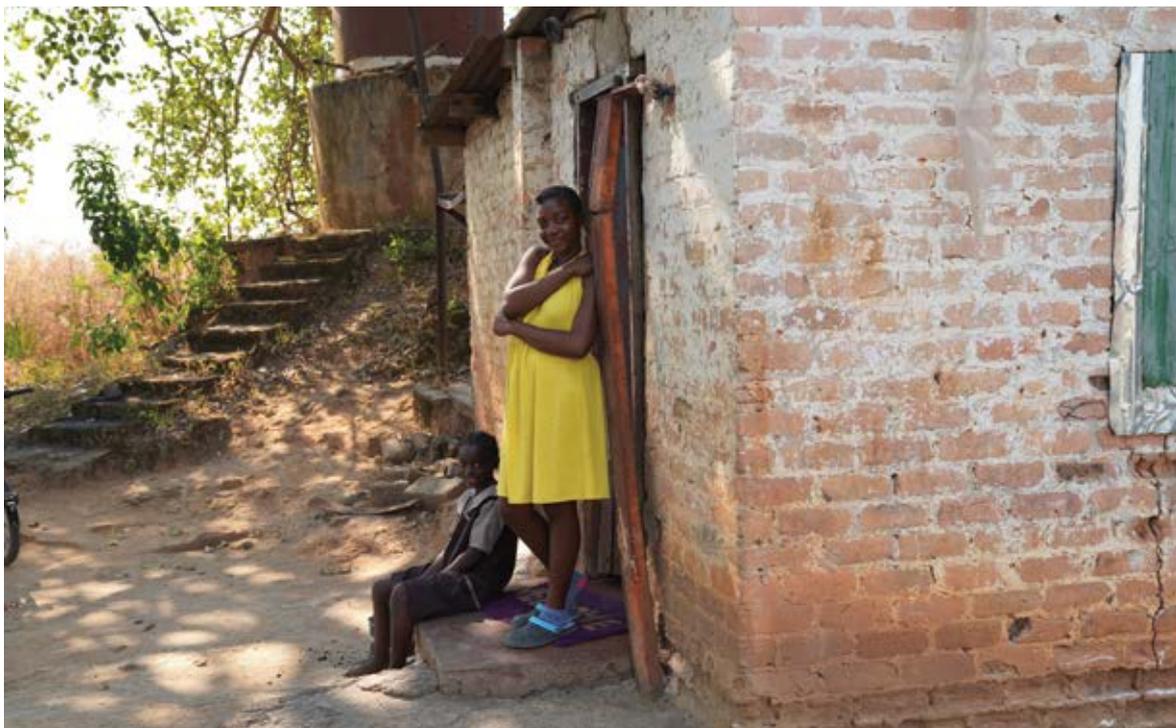
Regarding leaseholds, despite the very slow pace, 142,000 land title certificates were issued nationwide to legal landholders as at 2014 (Tembo et al 2019). However, the government plans to speed up this pace and issue five million titles by 2022 through the National land Titling Programme.

According to the Ministry of Housing and Infrastructure Development annual report (MHID 2019), a total of 990 houses (of which 660 are low-cost and 330 medium-cost) were under construction by the ministry in various districts. Data on private individual housing construction is not available. Under the Strengthening Capacities for Reducing Urban Vulnerability and Building Resilience in Southern Africa initiative, a participatory resilience

planning tool called City Resilience Action Planning was implemented in the cities of Chipata and Lusaka. This tool was developed by UN-Habitat and the Centre for Excellence for Disaster Management, Sustainability and Urban Resilience in Southern Africa to build the capacity of city managers, municipal technicians, and key urban stakeholders to understand urban risk, plan practical actions aimed at reducing risk, and progressively building resilience to natural and human induced disasters in the city. This resulted in the creation of the Resilience Framework for Action.

Though low in efficiency, the main cities in the country have solid waste collection systems in place. In Lusaka, there are 109 community-based enterprises having exclusive collection service zones. Each enterprise has been operating under a renewable one-year memorandum of understanding with the Lusaka City Council, authorizing them to provide primary collection to households and commercial establishments within their exclusive zone on a subscription basis (LCC, 2019). In addition, public-private partnerships are being promoted, for example, a producer Responsibility Law motivated the Zambian Breweries and Millennium Challenge account to jointly sponsor a waste collection and recycling project called Manja Pamodzi in Lusaka. The project operates in twelve communities and sees the collection of wastes and recycling of plastic garbage into usable products such as conduit, eggs trays and PVC pipes (VNR, 2020).

However, the attainment of safe, sustainable and resilient cities and human settlements still faces huge challenges in Zambia that include limited access to documented and secure land in both rural and urban areas; inadequate physical planning and development control resulting in the proliferation of informal settlements in urban areas; a housing deficit; and inadequate infrastructure and basic services such as electricity, water supply, sanitation, poor or non-existence of drainage and poor solid waste management system in cities.



CHAPTER 3.

**SDG 12.****Ensure Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns**

In Zambia, the Ministry of Water Development, Sanitation and Environmental Protection (MWDSEP) plays the lead role in achievement of SDG12, in conjunction with the work of other ministries, particularly the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLNR). Both ministries were established through Gazette Notice No. 836 of 2016. As per its Strategic Plan 2019-2021, the MLNR is responsible for Sustainable Natural Resources Management resulting in climate-resilient low emission systems. As per the Strategic Plan 2018-2021, the Ministry of Water is responsible for the functions and statutory bodies found in Table 3.

Table 3. Ministry of Water functions and statutory bodies

| Portfolio functions | Statutory Bodies/Institutions |
|--|--|
| Environmental Protection and Pollution Control | National Water Supply and Sanitation Council |
| Environmental Research and Training | Water Resources Management Authority |
| Environmental and Water Policy | Water Utility Companies |
| Water Supply, Sanitation, Resources Management and Development | Zambia Environmental Management Agency |

(Source: Ministry of Water Strategic Plans 2018-2021)

It should be underscored that the Environmental Council of Zambia,⁶⁷ in cooperation with the United Nations Environment Programme and with the financial support from the Global Environment Facility (GEF), launched the National Implementation Plan (NIP) for the Management of Persistent Organic Pollutants in 2007. The plan is to be implemented under the Stockholm Convention obligations. Zambia also ratified the Kyoto Protocol in 2006 and outlined its Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs, 2014) as well as Intended Nationally Determined Contribution to the 2015 Paris Agreement on climate change. The government signed the Minamata Convention on Mercury in 2013 and ratified it in 2016.

The Environmental Management Act No. 12 of 2011 is the principal legislation in Zambia on environmental management in general, pollution prevention and control. Part IV of the act stipulates provisions for chemicals management. In addition, the Environmental Management (Licensing) Regulations No. 112 of 2013 have a direct relevance for the management of mercury, mercury compounds and waste containing or contaminated with mercury or mercury compounds. The Regulations also settle the licensing and management of pesticides and toxic substances. Other pieces of legislation, such as the Water Resources Management Act, the Factories Act, the Public Health Act, the Food and Drugs Act and the Mines and Minerals Act also have a bearing on hazardous chemicals management.

⁶⁷ The Environmental Council of Zambia was a statutory body created under an Act of Parliament "the Environmental Protection and Pollution Control Act of 1990", Cap 204 of the Laws of Zambia. The Council, established in 1992 was mandated to protect the environment and control pollution to provide for the health and welfare of persons, and the environment. In 2011, it was renamed into Zambia Environmental Management Agency.

The Zambia Environmental Management Agency core functions include advising government and the private sector on environmental management and pollution control matters and environmental management through tools such as: the Lusaka City State of Environment, the National Environmental Action Plan, environmental management strategies, environmental impact assessments and strategic environmental assessments. In addition to its core functions, the agency implements various projects aimed at providing research data on different kinds of environmental issues.

Zambia is currently facing significant challenges in terms of data collection related to SDG12, due to recent institutional reforms and low capacities. There is growing general evidence that Zambia's consumption and production patterns need to be more sustainable. The country's natural resources (timber, water, minerals, etc.) are being depleted at a high rate, indicating that the country is not on a sustainable path. Zambia needs to routinely collect more data on raw material use, production, consumption, disposal of products, recycling – as well as carbon footprint at production, consumption, and disposal – to track progress on SDG12.

Waste management remains a large issue for Zambia, as for many Sub-Saharan African countries. About 68 per cent of waste is disposed of in pits, 25 per cent by dumping and 6 per cent by refuse collection. Informal disposal of waste creates contamination, health risks and environmental distress. Expenditure on water treatment, health care and infrastructure such as damaged roads due to blockage of drainage systems, also increase significantly as a result. The rapid growth in e-waste is causing particularly large adverse effects on the environment and people's health. Management of healthcare waste is another area of concern in Zambia. Health facilities generate varying quantities of waste totalling approximately 30 tonnes daily (MOH, 2013). This issue has been exacerbated due to the COVID-19 pandemic, due to a significant increase in production of sanitizers and personal protective equipment. Adequate practices in disposal of these items should be established as part of the national waste management strategy. In line with the Environmental Management Act of 2011 and the Solid Waste Regulation and Management Act of 2018 and building on the waste management strategies outlined in the 7NDP, this could include collection, reuse, recycling and treatment of waste, in addition to disposal where otherwise not possible.

In relation to food waste, the Ministry of Agriculture releases the national Food Balance Sheet annually, though its estimates are based only on forecasted production and consumption and not on actual data. The country needs to conduct post-harvest surveying to accurately measure national crop production and national consumption surveying to estimate consumption levels. The government passed the ozone-depleting substances (ODS) regulations statutory instrument No. 27 of 2001 under the Environmental Protection and Pollution Control Act chapter 204. The regulations control the import and export of all ODS including hydro-chlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) and HCFC-containing equipment. The government reported a consumption of 2.20 ozone depletion potential (ODP) tonnes of HCFC in 2019, which is 56 per cent below the HCFC baseline for compliance. The 2015-2019 HCFC consumption is shown in Table 4.⁶⁸

⁶⁸ Source: <https://open.unido.org/api/documents/19656050/download/Zambia%20-%20HPMP%20Stage%20II%20-%20first%20tranche%20-%20project%20document.pdf>

CHAPTER 3.

Table 4. Zambia hydro-chlorofluorocarbons consumption

| HCFC-22 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | Baseline |
|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| Metric tonnes | 55.09 | 50.00 | 45.09 | 40.00 | 40.00 | 90.91 |
| ODP tonnes | 3.03 | 2.75 | 2.48 | 2.20 | 2.20 | 5.00 |

(Source: UNEP Report 2020)

The gradual decrease in the consumption of HCFC-22 since 2015 is due to the strict enforcement of the licensing and quota system, implementation of the training programmes in the refrigeration servicing sector and awareness raising activities under the HCFC phase-out management plan (HPMP), and the introduction of refrigeration and air-conditioning (RAC) equipment based mainly on HFCs (e.g., air-conditioners using R-410A, commercial refrigeration equipment using HFC-134a, R-404A), as well as ammonia and R-600a.

Stage two of the HPMP was proposed to the 86th Meeting of the Executive Committee of the Multilateral Fund for the Implementation of the management plan. It aims to: further strengthen the enforcement of ODS regulations; develop and implement technical standards and sustainable public procurement for refrigeration and air-conditioning (RAC) systems; strengthen the RAC technician certification scheme as well as the three existing centres of excellence; and create two new centres.

Furthermore, Zambia has ratified the Stockholm Convention and completed its national implementation plan. The persistent organic pollutants (POPs) of major concern in Zambia are chlordane, dichloro-diphenyl-trichloroethane (DDT), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), and Polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs). Zambia is using the guidelines provided in the convention to monitor both POPs and unintentional POPs (uPOPs). There are no public or private entities performing uPOPs sampling in the country. However, the country is currently benefiting from a GEF-funded SADC regional project launched in 2016 that promotes best available techniques and best environmental practices to reduce uPOPs releases from waste open burning.

Prudent utilization of the environment and natural resources will remain key, an issue on which the Corporation Framework should increasingly advocate. Given the positive correlation between sustainable food systems and sustainable consumption and production, particularly where this pertains to ending hunger and malnutrition, the former would benefit if food systems are managed by establishing food safety standards for entire food system chains from farm to consumption; promoting sustainable and climate-resilient agriculture; ensuring cross-sectoral policy coherence on land, energy, trade, industry, climate change and environment, agriculture, water, and forestry; and fostering integrated natural resource management. To mitigate increases in the ODS and GHG emissions, which have the potential to worsen the variability of climate patterns, there is an urgent need to devise sustainable mechanisms of managing waste at all levels. This includes adequately addressing food losses and wastes along the production and consumer supply chains and to introduce innovative technologies and methods of circular economy in the country's manufacturing, agricultural and transport sectors.



SDG 13. Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and its Impacts

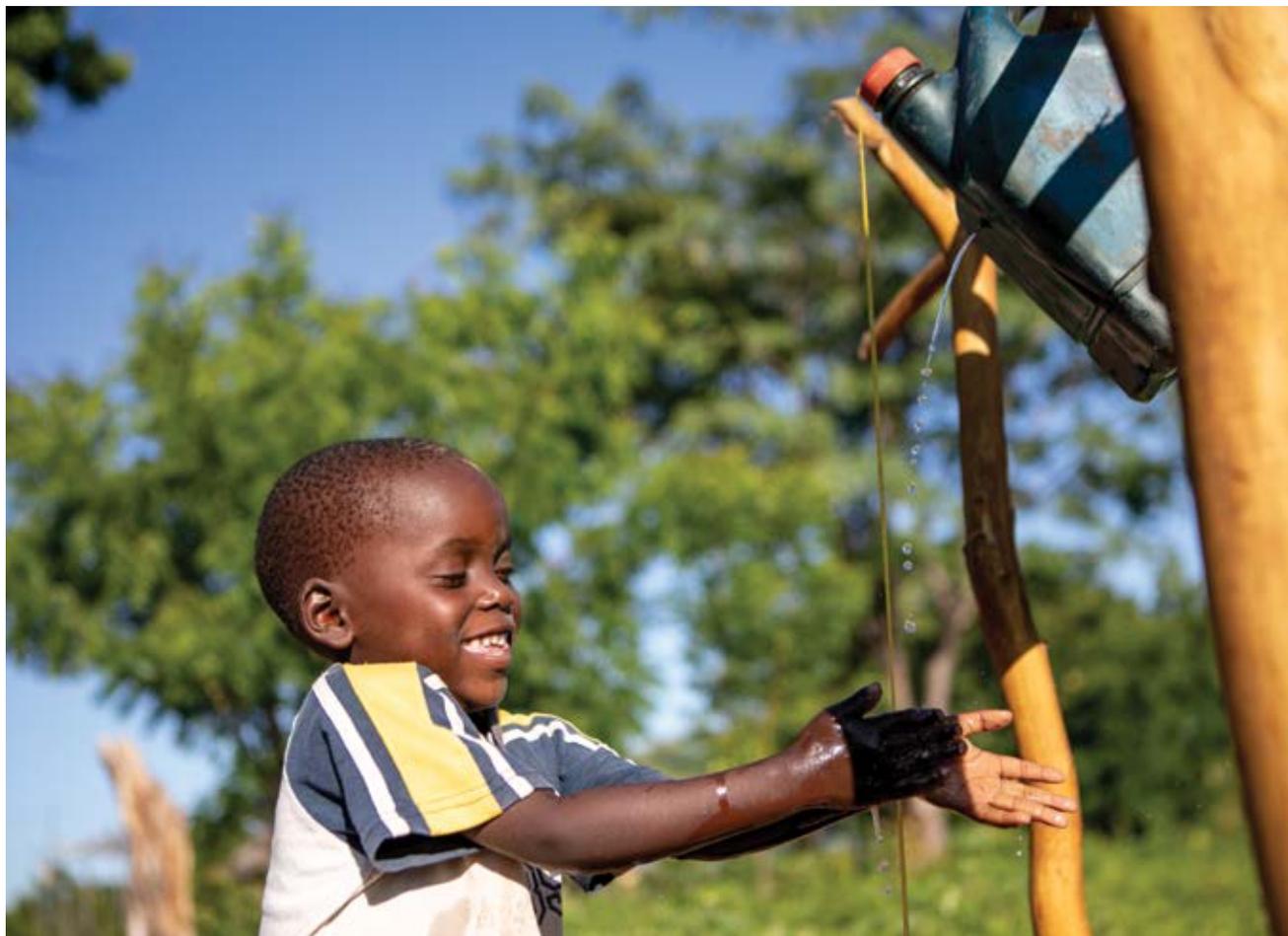


Zambia is a signatory to the United Nations Framework Conventions of Climate Change. The country has developed relevant frameworks to guide its interventions on climate change mitigation, including the 2014 Technology Needs Assessment to identify priorities for adaptation and mitigation to climate change, the 2016 National Policy on Climate Change, and the National Strategy for the Reduction deforestation and Degradation of Forests.

Zambia is a country prone to climatic shocks and has experienced extreme weather conditions caused by climate change in recent years, such as drought, floods and rising temperature. In 2019, the southern parts of the country experienced the poorest rainfall season since 1981. The effects of climate change have negatively affected productive sectors of the economy, including agriculture, manufacturing, mining and services. Climate change has also had adverse effects on communities and on the government's efforts to alleviate poverty. Sectors most affected by climate change are mining, manufacturing, agriculture and energy. The Zambia Vulnerability Assessment Committee Results 2019 showed that the country recorded a significant increase in the number of food insecure people compared to previous years. It was estimated that 19 per cent of the rural population, or 1.7 million people, would require urgent assistance to protect their livelihoods and reduce food consumption gaps between June and September 2019. It was also projected that from October 2019 to March 2020, an estimated 2.3 million people would be severely food insecure. The latest IPC Acute Food Insecurity analysis results indicate that between July and September 2021, about 1.18 million people in Zambia were facing high levels of acute food insecurity, classified in crisis (IPC Phase 3). Flooding, high maize prices and pests drive the country's acute food insecurity despite a good harvest. The highly food insecure population requires urgent humanitarian assistance to reduce food gaps, protect and restore livelihoods, and prevent acute malnutrition. The situation has particularly deteriorated in the Western province, where five districts were classified in crisis (IPC Phase 3).

The projected period October 2021 and March 2022 coincides with the lean season when the country's food security situation is expected to deteriorate, with around 1.58 million people (13 per cent of the analysed population) classified in crisis (IPC Phase 3). In Western Province, ten districts are likely to face crisis (IPC Phase 3) levels of food insecurity, as well as three districts in Southern Province (Gwembe, Siavonga, Sinazongwe), two in Lusaka Province (Luangwa, Rufunsa), and the districts of Lunga, Chavuma and Chilubi.

Vulnerability in Zambia is characterized by a high incidence of poverty and exposure to several types of shocks mainly arising from hydro-meteorological hazards and their cascading effects, such as epidemics and periodic incidences of macroeconomic instability. For this specific analysis, the key drivers for food insecurity are flooding experienced between December 2020 and February 2021, outbreaks of pests such as the African Migratory Locusts and Fall Armyworm and high maize prices. The COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated what was already a serious food insecurity situation. In the course of 2020, restricted population movement and other measures put in place to contain the spread of the disease made it difficult for both the urban and rural poor to access food. Urgent action is required to save lives, reduce food consumption gaps and protect livelihoods for populations in crisis (IPC Phase 3).



The government has had to face climate change related costs in treating diseases like malaria, cholera and typhoid, or repairing infrastructure such as roads, bridges and buildings damaged by flash floods. The unforeseen cost of mitigating climate change has eaten into the fiscal provisions that could have gone to reduction of poverty and hunger, and provision of quality social services. In view of climate change risks, Zambia put in place measures for adaptation and resilience to climate change. Seven priority sectors have been identified including energy, water, agriculture, forestry, and wildlife through the National Adaptation Programme of Action. The government is currently working on two pilot projects for climate change resistance projects in Kafue. The projects concentrate on three areas – diversification and intensive agriculture, infrastructural development to cover roads, and capacity building.

In addition, the government has upscaled climate action in agricultural livelihoods through enhancement of climate information services and water resources monitoring for climate informed planning, deployment of solar powered irrigation systems underpinned by climate smart agricultural practices and alternative livelihoods with a robust participatory extension system such as a farmer field school for experiential learning among farmers. The intervention has also focused on processing, market access and weather index insurance promotion. The government is in the process of revising its Nationally Determined Contributions to raise ambition levels, crowd-in private sector and enhance implementation prospects. Zambia's civil society organizations have also been championing climate change mitigation strategies, especially in agriculture.

Initiatives such as water harvesting, agroforestry, regenerative agriculture and native seed knowledge systems have gained popularity in provinces they are being implemented. Non-governmental organizations are also spearheading use of renewable sources of energy such as solar/biogas and reducing use of fossil fuel generated power. There is also the prospect of using wind as a source of electrical power generation by non-government players.

Implementation of SDG13 in Zambia still shows several challenges and gaps. Zambia still lags on setting up monitoring frameworks for the implementation of the SDGs. As a short-term measure, the government has just aligned them to the 7NDP. Efforts need to be put in capacity building of people and relevant institutions to generate data and improve the transfer of information. There is a lack of information on sources of funds to implement SDG mitigation and adaptation strategies. For example, the private sector's involvement in climate change mitigatory work is low. Recommendations from the VNR (2020) on the SDG 13 include encouraging domestic funding for implementation of mitigatory strategies.

Investment in research and development focusing on climate change mitigation is, therefore, necessary in Zambia. Zambian citizens need to broaden their sources of livelihoods to minimize shocks in the event of climate related failures. This calls for implementation of the National Policy on Climate change of (2016) across the country. Communities most likely to be affected by vagaries of climate change such as floods or drought need to be provided with reliable weather information timeously. There is also the need for close monitoring of the food security status of citizens that are affected by climate change, such as droughts and floods.

Notwithstanding significant advances in researching the migration-environment nexus, robust data sets and forecasts remain largely elusive and true interdisciplinary research limited. There is a need to improve interdisciplinary research and data collection for example, by including census data and household surveys on migration, environmental degradation and natural disasters. Cognisant that environmental migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that cuts across different policy areas, policy coherence on environmental migration is critical. Accordingly, more needs to be done to bring together stakeholders from different policy areas and close the "coherence gap". One way to start closing the policy coherence gap on environmental migration would be through national and regional policy dialogue processes specifically addressing the migration and displacement implications of climate change.

The impact of climate change related shocks to the delivery of social services is well known but has as yet not received adequate attention. In the health sector, heat worsens maternal and neonatal health outcomes, an increase of one degree Celsius in the week before delivery corresponds with a six per cent greater likelihood of stillbirth (Ha et al., 2017). Climate-related emergencies cause major disruptions in access to life saving commodities including contraception. Gender-based violence; child, early and forced marriages; and trafficking have been seen to increase following disasters and extreme weather events.

Currently, Zambia should improve its resilience to climate change and enhance food security to its people by making fiscal savings. CCA consultations heard that farmers in the Farmer Input Supply Programme (FISP) have been getting inputs, late which compromise yields. To mitigate against climate change, the government increased/improved the e-voucher system in supporting beneficiaries to get inputs much earlier, unlike the tradition of getting direct inputs that in some cases were obtained after the season had already progressed. According to Kuteya (2019) the FISP direct input supply exposed farmers/beneficiaries to vulnerability by limiting

CHAPTER 3.

to crops such as maize. However, the e-voucher system enables beneficiaries to diversify crop inputs to other small grains, which can improve resilience to climate change. The e-voucher system has removed the burden to deliver inputs to farmers, thus giving the government more fiscal space to allocate saved logistic funds to other needy socio-economic protection programmes. On a positive note, the government allocated K97.9 m in the 2020 budget for livestock and crop extension aimed at improved resilience to climate change. Social cash transfers aimed to support seven hundred thousand households presented a 50 per cent increment of the previous year aid and the Food Security Pack targeted to 80,000 households improved their livelihood and food security. Social protection programmes thus provide massive opportunities to enhance the livelihood of rural, subsistence farming communities and stand to further amplify their positive impact through the humanitarian-development nexus (such as the drought response Emergency Cash Transfer implemented in 2019), the combination of social insurance with weather and crop (micro-)insurance and the absorption of populations in off-farm income generation while the remaining farming populations benefit from improved productivity and employ more conservationist approaches. Support in irrigation infrastructure especially in Chirundu, Mufulira and Kafue districts helped to increase yields as well as improve resilience of the Zambian people to climate change (Kuteya, 2019). The following response priorities should also be taken into account for the current period:

- (a) Reduce food consumption gaps by improving access to food through appropriate modalities for households in deficit areas
- (b) Promote resilience/climate-smart agricultural production
- (c) Strengthen transboundary pests early warning systems especially related to the African migratory locusts

The negative impacts of climate change are disproportionately felt by persons and communities who are already in a disadvantageous situation owing to several factors. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, “people who are socially, economically, politically, institutionally or otherwise marginalized are especially vulnerable to climate change and also to some adaptation and mitigation responses.” Preventing and responding to the effects of climate change must therefore be a participatory process that empowers everyone, enabling them to act as agents of change. Human rights can be integrated in climate change-related actions by applying a rights-based approach to policy and development. This is called for in the Declaration on the Right to Development and agreed upon in the “Human rights based approach to development cooperation: towards a common understanding among United Nations agencies”. Integrating human rights norms and principles in climate action will improve outcomes, it will ensure a holistic approach that addresses the economic, social, cultural and political dimensions of climate change and it will empower the most affected groups and peoples. A rights-based approach to climate change demands climate justice, equity, respect for human rights, and international cooperation and solidarity. Faced with climate change, persons, groups and peoples in vulnerable situations must have their rights protected, have access to measures of adaptation and resilience and receive the support of the international community. A rights-based response should also maximize inclusion, participation and equality.



SDG 14.

Conserve and Sustainably Use the Oceans, Seas and Marine Resources for Sustainable Development

The SDG14 is on conservation and sustainable use of the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development. Although Zambia is landlocked with neither ocean nor sea on its boundaries, we can borrow the SDG14's targets and apply it to sustainable use of rivers and lakes and dams, for SDG14 basically looks at life under water. Zambia's rivers, dams and lakes play a critical role in the blue economy, which has contributed towards creating jobs, industries (tourism, fisheries, manufacturing (equipment, cold chain facilities, fishing gear). Efforts to restore rivers, dams and lakes are underway and include fish bans and sensitization on marine pollution. The importance of water resources to Zambia cannot be underestimated; it is a critical resource that needs to be sustainably utilized. Water bodies in Zambia are under threat from a variety of risks emanating from rampant deforestation caused by the demand for land for human settlements and expansion of agricultural fields to feed the growing population. Deforestation leads to land degradation, erosion and siltation of rivers or dams. In addition, problems of unsustainable fishing in capture fisheries persist and need to be addressed.



CHAPTER 3.



SDG 15.

Protect, Restore and Promote Sustainable Use of Terrestrial Ecosystems, Sustainably Manage Forests, Combat Desertification, and Halt and Reverse Land Degradation and Halt Biodiversity Loss



Sustainable use of forests is vital to Zambia's economy. Currently forest-based industries in Zambia contribute about 3.7 per cent of the GDP with firewood and charcoal contributing 0.8 and 2.2 per cent, respectively. Indirect and direct value of forests contribute between 4.7 to 6.3 per cent of GDP (Green economy Transformation, 2020). Forests are key to the attainment of low carbon emission levels by providing carbon sequestration during photosynthesis and, therefore, the preservation of forests is very important. Zambia's forests cover about 66 per cent of the total land area, with 40 per cent of forests characterized by Miombo woodlands and some found in protected areas. However, Zambia is under threat from deforestation, which is estimated to be around 274,000 ha annually, driven by the need for land for human settlement, agriculture, mining, and production of charcoal, as well as by forest fires. Additional challenges include forestry degradation through unsustainable exploitation of timber such as *mukula* without appropriate models that are within sustainable yields and benefit sharing mechanisms that benefit local communities. The policies exist but are hampered by weak implementation and enforcement due to limited financial and human resources. Various strategies have been put in place to preserve forests – including putting much of the forest land forest management plans and the national tree planting programme. There have also been pilots for assisted forest regeneration that were designed to enhance the carbon sinks as well as provision for ecosystem services and food that are intrinsic to the forests. Despite there being protected areas for forests in Zambia they still face greater risk from being cut down by farmers, settlers clearing land for farming, charcoal processors, and fires from poachers.

Mining is a major challenge to the country's biodiversity. An additional challenge is the transboundary impact, notably the concerns expressed by the Member States in the World Heritage Committee (of which Zambia is a State Party) regarding the planned mining in the Lower Zambezi National Park and its impact on the World Heritage site in Zimbabwe.

Technology in agriculture, energy and water development is still low – causing threats to forests, water treatment and biodiversity. For example, chemicals used in agriculture have occasionally caused periodic fish diseases. Zambia did an Integrated Land Use Assessment and noted a huge reduction of forest resources – emanating from deforestation and degradation that are leading to erosion and deposition of soil in water bodies reducing their capacities. In view of these assessments, the country has developed policies and legislative instruments and plans to address climate change. Forest preservation strategies are captured in national documents of strategic importance such as the 7NDP, Vision 2030, 2007 National Policy on Environment, 2017 National Policy on Climate Change and the Forest Act of 2015. All these sources take cognizance of the need to reduce GHG emissions as well as to preserve biodiversity through forest management in the context of socio-economic and ecological sustenance. Vision 2030 captures forest use in its emphasis on "Sustainable environmental and natural resource management principle". The 7NDP emphasises the need to manage human activities on the environment and natural resources. The 7NDP adopted SDG15 as a critical issue across all result areas of key national development plans. The National Policy on Climate Change looks at implementation of sustainable land use management

practices aimed at reducing GHG emissions. Efforts to manage forest degradation and deforestation have led to development of a national strategy premised on integrated natural resources management. For example, in 2019 an almost 1.2 million hectares of forest land management plans were put in place against a targeted 1.25 million planned. The National Investment Plan of 2018 to 2022 pursues reduction of deforestation and forest degradation as a strategy to reduce poverty in rural areas and promote livelihoods. It focuses on addressing drivers of deforestation in mining, energy and agriculture. Current challenges in the preservation of forests include lack of knowledge on the effect of climate change on biodiversity; use of specific biodiversity to guide the sector as well as regulate human activity that puts biodiversity at risk; and poor waste management and pollution in ecological systems. The latter challenge would require partnering with private sector on sustainable disposal of waste.

Relative size of sites for freshwater biodiversity that are covered by protected area: Slow progress in farming, energy and water sectors are posing a threat to biodiversity and availability of habitats. Further, the pollution from the mining and/or agriculture sectors is causing a risk to the fisheries industries. There have been incidences where fish would periodically die in large numbers because of pollution.

Achievement that has been done in sustainable forest management: Zambia is already benefiting from revenue and contribution to GDP from the use of forest. Sustainable forest management can lead to greater contribution to GDP. Now industries in the Zambian forest business contribute about 3.7 per cent of the country's GDP, charcoal production and firewood contribute 2.2 per cent. The UN-REDD (2015) study on returns from forest ecosystems showed indirect and direct values of forests equal to 4.7 to 6.3 per cent of GDP – amounting to \$9.5 million as of 2010. The true value of these forests may not be exactly clear, as different researchers have come up with different estimates that give a wide difference. Proper use of forest resources links up well with SDG13 and contributes to carbon sequestration and combating GHG emissions by providing a carbon sink.



CHAPTER 3.

3.4. Peace: SDG16



SDG 16.

Promote Peaceful and Inclusive Societies for Sustainable Development, Provide Access to Justice for All And Build Effective, Accountable and Inclusive Institutions at All Levels



Zambia's history has been peaceful compared to several countries in the Sub-Saharan region (Goldring and Wahman 2016), however, in the last five years, there has been backsliding with respect to key civil and political rights. The Constitutional Amendment Act (2016).⁶⁹ In the pre-electoral period, Zambia experienced difficulties in consolidating peace and ensuring inclusive communities for sustainable development. In addition, there were many governance challenges which undermined human rights and the rule of law. The August 12, 2021 elections in Zambia were a watershed moment for change and the new Government seized the opportunity to pronounce its commitment to change and ensuring that the country embarks on a pathway that strengthens democracy, human rights and the rule of law. It will now be important for those commitments to be matched by concrete actions and results, including through the support of UN Zambia and the new UNSDCF.

Freedom of Expression and Access to information: The country lacks freedom of information laws as well as provisions for financial disclosure of public officials or political parties (GAN Integrity 2020). Journalists face challenges in their work as the promised law on access to information has yet to be adopted. The law on cyber-security and cyber-crime is causing concern among media in Zambia for potentially not meeting international best practice. NGOs consider the passage of the Access to Information Bill crucial to fight corruption in Zambia (Malunga 2020).

Zambia witnessed growing restrictions on fundamental freedoms and rights and civic space in at least the last five years preceding the elections. Experience shows that these restrictions along with other factors such as deteriorating economic conditions that are further aggravated by shocks such as from COVID 19, as well as the effects of climate change on food security and livelihoods could lead to protests and civil unrest. Thus, the country's trajectory towards addressing these issues puts it in good stead to maintain peace, resolve disputes and institute measures that will help it to achieve the SDGs, including SDG 16.

There is a need to build synergies in the interpretation of promoting peaceful and inclusive society for sustainable development, and in their implementation, provide access to justice for all. As an example, improvements still need to be done to offset the incidences of violence in 2016 and 2018 and to ameliorate gender inequalities in political participation where Zambia ranks 29 out of 52 African countries on gender participation and Human Rights Governance Index (Zambia UNSDPF, 2016-2022). There are also still some manifestations of significant levels of violence and injustices and inequalities of gender, educational attainment, employment opportunities and high levels of poverty (Mukunto, 2019). For instance, despite women constituting most voters (52 per cent), the proportion of women occupying councillor (6.3 per cent) and parliamentary (11.4 per cent) seats is very low compared to the male counterparts. Zambian governance limitations exist across political, social and economic arenas.

⁶⁹ https://www.parliament.gov.zm/sites/default/files/documents/amendment_act/Constitution%20of%20Zambia%20%20%28Amendment%29%2C%202016-Act%20No.%202_0.pdf

Gender Based Violence (GBV): According to the 2018 ZDHS report, more than 36 per cent of women between the ages of 15 to 49 have at one point in their lives been subjected to physical violence. In that study 18 per cent of women had experienced violence of some sort within a year of the survey. Recorded narrations of GBV in the interviews note that married women had also been subjected to some form of controlling behaviours by their husbands. Specified forms of GBV include sexual, emotional or physical. The country still has significant rates of physical, emotional and sexual violence against children with over 50 per cent of children experiencing such forms of abuse.

Rule of Law and Access to Justice: The 7NDP target of unsentenced detainees waiting to be heard before a court of law is 15 per cent. However, when the 2019 ZDHS was conducted the proportion of unsentenced detainees as a percentage of total detainees was 25 per cent. While the Constitution guarantees the right to a fair hearing without undue delay, the Status of Human Rights Report indicates that over 78.2 per cent of the suspects interviewed were kept in police custody for more than five days before being charged and 31.9 per cent indicated they only appeared in court after more than 20 days. Further, the remanded-convicted ratio stood at 25:75 against a target of 15:85, whereas the backlog of cases in the judiciary stood at 29 per cent for the supreme court against a target of 10 per cent and 35 per cent in the subordinate court (GRZ, Cluster Advisory Group Report, 2019-2022). Banda (2019) notes delays in court appearance for citizens. Zambia's justice system has many challenges that prevent many people from accessing justice, which includes a low number of lawyers; exorbitance of legal services; inadequacy of legal service; and integrity of the judiciary (Kaaba 2015). The Legal Aid Board in Zambia is entrusted to provide legal assistance to those who cannot afford. However, it is not well distributed across the country and has limited capacity to fulfil its mandate.

The age of criminal responsibility in Zambia is eight years old⁷⁰ and as such is one of the lowest in the world. The biggest concern around child offenders and the juvenile justice system is the high levels of pre-trial detention, including for minor offenses and for child migrants. The practice of diverting children back into the social welfare system is largely applied only in pilot projects/regions as the regulatory framework fails to reinforce and prioritize such action. Juvenile Justice raises concerns over the poor case management systems put in place by judicial and social welfare authorities and the poor application of probation, a form of alternative sentencing. This provision needs to be prioritized to improve the overall management of the juvenile justice system.

Judiciary integrity: Broadly the integrity of the judiciary has been questioned by some stakeholders. It has been speculated that in some highly sensitive political cases some judges are not able to resist political force to make impartial decisions (Kaaba, 2015), such as on landmark judgements including the introduction of prisoner voting, upholding the eligibility of President Lungu to run for office in 2021, requiring all ministers who stayed in office after the dissolution of parliament in 2016 to refund the treasury for all personnel emoluments.

Corruption and Bribery: The principal legislation enacted to combat corruption in Zambia is the Anti-Corruption Act No. 3 of 2012. In particular, national efforts to improve the anti-corruption policy framework has stagnated with the revisions to the national policy still pending. In harmony with the UN Convention against Corruption, opportunities remain to enhance inter-agency anti-corruption cooperation among key national institutions such as the Financial Intelligence Centre, Office of the Public Protector, law enforcement, National Prosecution

⁷⁰ Section 14 (1), Penal Code Act, Chapter 87 of the Laws of Zambia.

CHAPTER 3.

Authority, Anti-corruption Commission, Audit General's Office and others. According to Transparency International Zambia (2019), corruption perpetrated by citizens through offering bribes to public officials is rampant and increasing as noted by a 15 per cent bribery index in 2015 vs 13 per cent in 2017. Bribery occurs in the public sector through institutions such as the Zambia Police Service, Road Traffic and Safety Agency, and ZESCO the state-owned power company. Corruption in Zambia has directly affected the most vulnerable. Opportunities to fight corruption include operationalization of the Whistle Blower provisions in the law, operationalization of integrity committees in the public sector, roll out of e-governance services (digitalization) including the use of electronic payment devices, one-stop service centres and institutional strengthening of watchdog institutions. In terms of combating illicit financial flows, Zambia is a member of the East and Southern Africa Anti-Money Laundering Group (ESAAMLG). Zambia is also a member of the Asset Recovery Inter-Agency Network of Southern Africa, a regional group of practitioners involved in facilitating the recovery of proceeds of crime. In this context, Zambia set up their asset forfeiture department in 2015 under the Directorate of Public Prosecutions as a means of dedicating resources and to staff to seize, freeze and confiscate the proceeds of crime. Notwithstanding these and other efforts, in its Mutual Evaluation conducted by ESAAMLG in 2019, a number of gaps were identified such as, low number of money laundering investigations and prosecutions, ineffective and disproportionate sanctions imposed on the few successful money laundering prosecutions, the number of confiscations of criminal proceeds, instrumentalities and property of corresponding value are low and is not done as a policy objective, the Designated Non-Financial Businesses and Professions, have little understanding of the risks they face and their Anti-Money Laundering/Counter-Terrorism Financing (AML/CFT) obligations, supervisory authorities have not adopted a risk-based approach to supervision for AML/CFT, there is no adequate legal and regulatory framework to obtain and maintain beneficial ownership information on legal arrangements neither has there been a comprehensive money laundering/terrorist financing risk assessment on all forms of legal persons, effectiveness of international cooperation is hindered by lack of an effective case management system that enables effective monitoring and accounting of cases, non-ratification of the protocols that are Annexes to the TF Convention and Zambia has no specific legal or regulatory framework for implementing targeted financial sanctions relating to proliferation financing.

Inclusion/exclusion: Voice of the youth, rural inhabitants, people living with disabilities and women appear not to be adequately solicited for in national programmes. For example, women's participation in political leadership remains low with representation in Zambia's parliament still far short of the regional average of 24 per cent, and the 50-50 gender parity required by the Southern African Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development, and the African Union Agenda 2063. There is a need to build and strengthen for the socially marginalised such as women, youth and people living with disabilities.

Strengthen of institutions that enhance security, human rights, peace, security, and justice: To uphold the human rights principles, the government has established institutions such as the Family Court, Ministry of National Guidance and Religious Affairs, and the Constitutional Court. The establishment of such institutions were meant to facilitate carrying out of justice in time to align with the principle of "justice delayed is justice denied". Such processes were also designed to curtail abuse, trafficking, violence and exploitation – therefore upholding the rights of women, children and persons living with disabilities. Awareness campaigns and civic education on human rights are advocated for by paralegals.

Legal identity for all: Whereas Zambia has made significant progress in civil registry, vital statistics and identity management, the United Nations Economic Commission of Africa Country Assessment Report (2020) identifies significant challenges. Specifically, the report flags the lack of inter-operability of systems with weak linkages to the Integrated National Registration Information System. Zambia's identification system continues to face challenges of fragmentation and disjointed registration systems especially through incomplete and partially manual civil registration business processes that are not inter-operable. Divorces, annulments, judicial separations, legitimization and recognition are managed by the judiciary and data not shared with the Department of National Registration, Passport and Citizenship. Utilization of vital statistics by service institutions for production of functional registers has not been feasible due to the incompleteness of the data, unreliable reporting and poor enforcement of utilization of the registration documents. The coverages for the birth and deaths registration are very low. Rates of birth registration are one of the lowest in the world and stand at 14 per cent of registered children under five years old, with only 5.9 per cent having received a birth certificate.

Overall, the civil registration system is weak but long-term efforts are now in place to upgrade it to a fully biometric system, enabling access to services at district levels and interoperability of systems.



CHAPTER 3.

3.5. Partnerships: SDG17



SDG 17.

Strengthen the Means of Implementation and Revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

In Zambia, the foreign direct investment (FDI) has consistently been sliding downwards since 2015. The reduction of FDI between 2015 and 2018 was an indication of a slowing down business environment, low economic growth, and a period in which the country has experienced natural disasters such as droughts and floods. The FDI peaked in 2010 at \$2.8 billion and hit its lowest figure of \$1.1 billion in 2017. The trending reduction of FDI is comparable to that of other developing countries, with a greater contribution to government funds increasingly coming from domestic revenue generation. The low FDI negatively affected Zambia's economic progress, job creation, and ultimately eradication of poverty. According to UNDP (Scaling up South-South Cooperation for Sustainable Development, 2016), south-south cooperation has generally diversified development opportunities for development cooperation and assistance. The Third International Conference on Financing for Development called for the developing world to increase efforts in south-south cooperation in line with sustainable development and poverty eradication. There is a need for strengthened collaboration between academia and research and development for knowledge sharing and exchange to improve capacities to address emerging challenges and systemic problems.

Instances of expropriation of businesses, such as the takeover of a mine, tend to reduce investor confidence for FDI to be sustained. The cost of doing business also needs to be addressed, though some efforts have been made to establish one stop shops for cross boarder activities and licensing.

Official development assistance (ODA): Official Development Assistance for Zambia has been declining over the past decade. The ODA in Zambia was high when the country had not yet attained lower middle-income economy status – when the country was still referred to as highly indebted and poor. The economy of Zambia rebounded after the period of classification as highly indebted and poor – benefiting from reduced debt burden coupled with economic resuscitation. According to CSIS (2014) ODA has become of less significance in denominational development. CSIS (2014) states that ODA represents less than 10 per cent of financial aid to developing countries.

Figure 8. Zambia net ODA received per capita (\$)



(Source: World Bank Group – Net ODA received per capita in \$)

Servicing of debt as a proportion of exports: In the 1990s when Zambian debt was written off under the initiative of Highly Indebted Poor Countries, the country took off in 2006 at a low debt of \$ half a billion. The country then became a lower middle-class economy in 2011. Growth was skewed in favour of urban people and had not much impact on poverty. The government accrued non-concessional debt and started big infrastructural development projects. In 2012 Zambia launched a bond of \$750 million. In 2013 and 2015 the country also launched two more bonds of \$1 million and \$1.5 million, respectively. The ratio of debt to GDP was 2:1 for about 10 years between 2001 and 2010. According to the African Development Bank (2021) Zambia's stock of public debt increased to 104 per cent in 2020. However, there are opportunities for enhancing domestic resource mobilization and economic governance that reflects integrity in procurement and public expenditures.

International collaboration is key to the attainment of the SDGs, and it has become more critical since the emergence of COVID-19, which has severely ravaged the social sector. For example, the health system is outpaced as the number of cases and deaths continue to increase; the education system has suffered closures that has resulted in learning loss; access to improved water and sanitation is still low; and stunting levels are still high. The resource envelope is inadequate to deal with the numerous socio-economic problems that Zambia faces and requires global partnerships to be revitalized. As a proportion of the total budget, the social sector budget declined to 25.4 per cent in 2021 from 26.1 per cent in 2020.

Unfortunately, both FDI and ODA, which are the main streams of financing, have been declining over the years (FDI inflows reduced by almost 50 per cent from US\$548 million in 2019 to USD\$234 million). Public debt has been a source of funding for development programmes but has soared over the years. According to the Ministry of Finance (2020), the external debt stock at the end of 2020 stood at \$12.7 billion and public domestic debt was \$7.1 billion. Public sector debt stood at just over 100 per cent of GDP, making it difficult for the government to invest in social sectors, as debt servicing takes up the bulk of the budget. Given Zambia's unfavourable economic conditions, there are on-going discussions with the IMF for an economic bailout, which is yet to materialize and help improve macro-economic fundamentals.

Diaspora remittances remain a key and strategic source of foreign exchange in Zambia and have the potential to contribute to macroeconomic stability, economic growth and poverty alleviation. Accordingly, the remittances stimulate consumption, enable personal savings and investments and thereby have positive multiplier effects at both micro and macroeconomic levels. In Zambia, the importance of remittances is evidenced by the numerous money transfer institutions in both formal and informal sectors as well as the rapid increases in both international and local remittances. While acknowledging the potential and positive impact of remittances to the economy, it is instructive to note that the transactional cost of remittance is highest in sub-Saharan Africa and the Pacific Island Countries globally. In 2016, Zambia was ranked second among the top 10 highest cost corridors for receiving remittances. The high transactional cost of remittances has a negative impact on the willingness of people to send their money through official channels or to even send at all. Consequently, the percentage contribution of inbound remittances to GDP growth was highest in 2017 at 0.7 per cent and lowest in 2014 at 0.4 per cent. While the impact of remittances on GDP is currently marginal, there is potential for growth over time. There is a need for concerted efforts to reduce the prevailing average transactional costs which are in the range of between 10 to 15 per cent to less than 3 per cent in line with SDG target 10c. There is scope to increase the diaspora remittances through deliberate and conducive policy and regulatory measures.

CHAPTER 3.

In recognition of the need for timely, reliable, accessible and comparable data on migration, the UN is providing support to enhance the capacity of the national statistical agency to significantly increase the availability of high quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, ethnicity and migratory status among others.

In the context of refugees and migrants, the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants of 2016 and the Global Compact for Refugees of 2018 acknowledge that protection of refugees and provision of assistance to countries hosting them is a shared global responsibility. Accordingly, the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework encapsulated in the two key documents call for the whole-of-society approach, underscoring the need for even stronger partnerships between a broad range of stakeholders in actualizing burden and responsibility sharing and finding durable solutions for persons of concern.

This is more so in the context of a challenging financing landscape and the increasing humanitarian and development needs of persons of concern and their Zambian hosts, amplified by the COVID-19 pandemic. There is a growing recognition that the engagement of a broad range of actors, including those beyond the traditional humanitarian sphere, is critical to mobilizing an effective response and pursuing solutions to forced displacement and statelessness today (UNHCR 2017).

While the UN has traditionally worked with various partners, especially those in the humanitarian sphere such as humanitarian NGOs and governments, in addressing refugee situations, the protracted refugee situations such as the caseload in Zambia require going beyond providing humanitarian support and investing in long-term development-oriented support thus calling for the need to expand and diversify partnerships to development agencies, development NGOs, local and international finance institutions, the private sector as well as development-oriented line ministries within the government (actualizing the whole-of-government approach), to leverage funding, technical expertise, creativity and innovation in meeting the needs of refugees and their hosts. This approach is expected to be transformative and contribute to the smooth transitioning of refugees and hosts from humanitarian to development situations and building resilience. Although the government has adopted and is applying the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework, more needs to be done to actualise the whole-of-government and whole of society approach at central and district levels.

The UN in Zambia, through UNHCR, is continually advocating for the inclusion of refugees in development partners' assistance strategies, riding on their commitments at the global level. Further, private sector collaboration, on a shared value principle, needs to be enhanced to support market-based livelihoods programmes as well as to improve opportunities for employment creation. Financial institutions have extended their services to refugee population while telecommunication companies have invested in the settlements. Promoting inclusion of refugee producers in respective private sector production and supply chains should continue to be a key strategic approach towards strengthening private sector contribution to improve livelihoods. In addition, engagement of private companies to offer innovative solutions to challenges in the health, education, energy and environment sectors will require to be enhanced.

The UN Secretary General's High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda calls for a transformation of economies towards jobs and inclusive growth that strives to add value and raise productivity and lists industrialization as one central strategy to achieve this transformation. (A New Global Partnership: Eradicate Poverty and transform Economies through Sustainable Development, UNHLP, 2013).

The African Union and UN Economic Commission for Africa recommend industrialization as the central strategy for Africa to address poverty, inequality and unemployment. (Economic Report on Africa 2013, AU and UNECA, 2013)

The Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development (ISID) of the Lima declaration constitutes the core mandate of UNIDO. The ISID supports countries to achieve a higher level of industrialization in their economies and to benefit from the globalization of markets for industrial goods and services. ISID calls for greater partnerships with all relevant development actors where Industry and the private sector will play a crucial role to combine their knowledge and their resources for the purpose of maximizing the development impact.

In the integrated development dispensation of the 7NDP, there is a need for better inter-sectoral coordination and collaboration among key ministries that contribute to industrial development. The Ministry of Commerce, Trade and Industry has the primary mandate for industrial development guided by the National Industrial Policy 2018. However, industrial development is a multifaceted process that requires industry and cross-functional sector actors to effectively participate to achieve inclusive and sustainable industrial development. In the quest to contribute to economic development, several economic and other line ministries play an important role in-line with their respective mandates to contribute to industrial development. The private sector is equally critical in complementing the government efforts towards creating an enabling environment for the economic actors to effectively contribute to industrialization and job creation, which in turn will lead to economic growth. The aim of co-ordinating industrial programmes is to ensure effective oversight of successful integration of the economic, social and environmental dimensions, for the country to fully realize the benefits of inclusive and sustainable development.

The ISID Partnership approach is implemented through the Programs for Country Partnership (PCP) through collective actions with local and international development partners, including the private sector. Over the course of 2019 and 2020, the UN through UNIDO and the government held various stakeholder consultations to develop a common vision for the future PCP Zambia to ensure appropriate support to the planned PCP activities and to agree on a timeline and working modalities for the PCP programming phase.

Partnerships are vital to the achievement economic growth and diversification in a socially inclusive and environmentally sound manner. Therefore, the PCP comes in a timely manner when Zambia is prioritizing industrialization at the top of the country agenda to achieve economic diversification and job creation. Therefore, the PCP Zambia is tailored to country needs and is structured to address gaps in three focus areas within the priority industrial sectors specifically:

- (a) Policymaking: evidence-based industrial policy making and national statistics
- (b) Skills development: skills for entrepreneurship and employment, industrial skills development
- (c) Value addition: value chain development, investment promotion for economic diversification, sustainable production processes and clean and affordable energy

With Zambia's status as both a Least Developed Country (LDC) and a Landlocked Developing Country (LLDC), the PCP has been aligned to support Zambia to implement the priorities of both the Istanbul Programme of Action for LDCs 2011-2020 and the Vienna Programme of Action for LLDCs 2014-2024.

It is clear from the analysis that Zambia is constrained in making progress on achieving SDG17 owing to the inadequate quality disaggregated migration data. This calls for strengthening systems and processes around migration data collection, exchange, monitoring, analysing and reporting at all levels of government through a multisectoral approach.



ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 4.

Leave No One Behind

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What does it mean to be left behind?

Being left behind is a systematic process by which some groups or individuals are excluded or disadvantaged based on their sexual orientation, religion, gender, race, ethnicity, disability, HIV status, migrant or political affiliation (GSDRC, 2015). The people that are at risk of being left behind include: women, children, adolescents and young people (girls and boys), people with disabilities, people living with HIV, internally displaced people, migrants, refugees, returnees and prisoners. Excluded groups suffer from low income, inequitable access to services, lack of political voice and agency, and poor social standing.

4.1. Women and Girls

Zambia has a high Gender Inequality Index of 0.54.⁷¹ Women and girls are more likely to be excluded than are boys and men on the basis of sexual orientation, culture, health status, disability and religion, among others. With regards to inequality, women and girls with disabilities suffer more than men and boys, respectively. Women with disability have double the risk of being exposed to gender-based violence than their counterparts that are not disabled. Some of them perceive violence to be 'normal' given the fact they are persistently exposed to it. Furthermore, many such violations of rights also go unreported.

Discrimination against women in politics: Although some inroads have been made, the participation of women in politics and the taking up of decision-making roles is still very limited in Zambia. Many women and girls are unable to express their views in the social and political arena intended to influence programmes and policies. Coaching has been conducted in parliament and political parties are being encouraged to co-opt female candidates into their structures in the quest for gender equity. In the 2016-2021 parliament that has recently been dissolved ahead of the August 2021 elections, female parliamentarians constituted only 19 per cent of the members of parliament. The preliminary results at parliamentary level in the 2021 elections (pending several electoral petitions) suggest a further reduction in the number of female parliamentarians. Zambia is starting to see women holding decision-making positions in the country. For example, the Vice President of the Republic of Zambia is female. Further, the positions of Director of Public Prosecution, the Chief Justice, 67 per cent of the Constitutional Court Judges, 50 per cent of Judges in the Court of appeal, 57 per cent of High Court judges and 47 per cent of Registrars are female.

Early child and/ forced marriage: The universal declaration of human rights and international law criminalizes child marriage. The marriage of a person below the age of 18 constitutes multiple violations of children's rights. It can endanger the reproductive, mental and physical health of adolescent girls, deprive them of education, and impinge upon their opportunity to realize their full potential. Child marriage is viewed as a precursor to poverty and most forms of GBV that are perpetrated against women, such as physical violence at home and marital rape. Child marriage is also one of the major causes of girls failing to proceed to secondary education. Child marriage rates in Zambia continue to be high at 29 per cent in 2018. Drivers that underpin child marriage include adolescent pregnancy, peer pressure, being out of school, lack of opportunity for employment, limited recreation facilities and extreme poverty.

⁷¹ UN Human Development Report, 2019

CHAPTER 4.

Gender-based violence (GBV) against girls and women: According to the Zambia SDG Voluntary National Review (2020) gender-based violence has been a scourge that affects the country and cuts across culture, tribes, ages, religion and location. There has been an increase in the number of GBV cases reported; for example, from 15,153 cases in 2014 to 21,504 in 2017.⁷²The increase is attributed to more anti-GBV campaigns as well as provision of care/protection to survivors of GBV, making them more willing to report. Factors contributing to GBV include sexual cleansing rituals, initiation ceremonies, women's economic dependence on men, socialization of boys and girls at home and in school, inadequate laws on GBV and domestic violence, a lack of law enforcement, and intimate partner violence. Intimate partner/spouse violence; sexual abuse and rape in marriage; and physical violence at home are the most common forms of violence. Anecdotal evidence suggests women and girls with disabilities are believed to be most affected because they lack access to information about GBV and currently there is no systematic support system for them to report. Furthermore, women and girls are disproportionately targeted by traffickers.

Teenage pregnancy: Early pregnancy can have multiple negative and life-long effects on adolescent girls. In addition to health risks, the opportunity to fully realize their socioeconomic development potential is severely diminished as most adolescent girls drop out of school when they are pregnant. Furthermore, some girls will have unsafe abortions that lead to injuries, disability and sometimes death. The overall teenage pregnancy rate in Zambia has been on the increase from 27 per cent in 2013 to 29 per cent in 2021. Teenage pregnancy is more prevalent in rural areas (37 per cent) compared to urban (19 per cent). Only 30.1 per cent of sexually active adolescent girls aged 15-19 use modern methods of contraception, compared to 48 per cent of all married women of reproductive age. The inconsistent or lack of use of modern contraceptives among sexually active adolescent girls and young women has negative effects on their health and reduces their economic potential. The effects of not progressing to school among females maybe reflected by high poverty levels among females headed households standing at 60 per cent for both rural and urban areas. Addressing unmet need for contraception is therefore an important step, as are policies and programmes (at scale) that support progression of the girl child to secondary or tertiary school which would delay early pregnancies.

Discrimination of women in education: The Gender Parity Index (GPI) in secondary school (2018) was 84 girls for every 100 boys. A similar trend in enrolment continued in tertiary education where in 2019, only 27 per cent of the candidates at the Technical and Vocational Education and Training level were female. The discrimination against girl child progression with education arises from a complex of factors that include poverty, early marriage, teenage pregnancy and boy preference with prioritization by parents to send the boy child to school ahead of a girl child. The implications of this are observed later in life, as evidenced in female vulnerability to poverty and high unemployment rates among women.

Vulnerability to ill health and access to health facilities: According to the ZDHS (2018) report, HIV is the leading cause of death among Zambians. This is despite the availability of ARV drugs and high treatment coverage. The latest female to male HIV prevalence ratio has increased to 1.7 (ZDHS, 2018). Overall, 11.1 per cent of adults aged 15-49 in Zambia are living with HIV; and HIV prevalence is higher among women than men (14.2 versus 7.5 per cent) (ZDHS, 2018). The first COVID-19 case in Zambia was recorded on 18 March 2020 and it came at a time when the country was trying to recover from the impacts of a drought on the economy. COVID-19 presented a threat to the lives of many, and especially to those who have limited access to health facilities.

⁷² Zambia Voluntary National Review (2020)

Death from complications of pregnancy and childbirth: Despite improvements in maternal health, maternal mortality remains high at 278 per 100,000 births delivered at health facilities, and is a serious cause for concern (ZDHS, 2018).⁷³ This is also despite an improvement in the proportion of births attended by a skilled birth attendant (80.4 per cent in 2018), as well as institutional deliveries that have increased from 69 per cent in 2016 to 83.8 per cent in 2018 (ZDHS, 2018). Improvements in quality of care in the management of deliveries are needed. The number and deployment of health professionals remain inadequate, thus the need to train more doctors and nurses/midwives at district and provincial hospitals. The output of doctors from training facilities is low at approximately 50 to 60 doctors per year. Further, the number of trained nurses and midwives is also low.

Legal representation and legal framework: The new amended Constitution of Zambia recognizes equality as a matter of National Principle under Article 8. In addition, the Gender & Equality Act on Sections 20-22 has provisions for marriage and family life, sexual reproductive rights, and right to nationality. However, women and girls are deprived of access to legal advice due to multiple negative factors that include: limited legal practitioners, uneven distribution of the legal practitioners across the provinces of the country, exorbitant legal fees, and limited legal practitioners offering free legal representation (Kaaba, 2015).

Interventions to date: In response to the existing inequities facing girls and women, some gender sensitive policies and programmes are being implemented, such as the Keeping Girls in School programme (with support of the World Bank), feeding programmes done at school with WFP support, and promotion of girl child education through Get the Girl Back to School. In addition, the Ministry of General Education with support of UNFPA and UNESCO has introduced and integrated age-appropriate, gender-responsive and culturally relevant Comprehensive Sexuality Education into the school curriculum. This aims at empowering girls and boys with knowledge and skills around sexual and reproductive health, gender and healthy relationships. Together with the re-entry policy by the Ministry of General Education, there are more girls remaining in school. The school feeding programme was introduced in primary schools across ten provinces of the country. These interventions improved the health of girls and kept them in school much longer. According to the Development Co-operation Report (2018), the girl child who gets seven years of education marries later, will have better economic possibilities and fewer children. It is recommended that efforts continue being exerted in advancing girl child school progression.

4.2. Children

Zambia has a relatively young population with 54.4 per cent being under the age of 18 years (ZDHS, 2018). However, children in Zambia face myriad challenges, with high levels of child multidimensional poverty.⁷⁴ Results from the 2018 Multiple Overlapping Deprivation Analysis of Child Poverty in Zambia⁷⁵ show that for children aged 0-17 years, child deprivation is high and severe: 41 per cent of children suffer from at least three deprivations at a time, with differences in deprivation rates between urban and rural areas being highly significant. Specifically, 60 per cent of children living in rural areas are deprived in three or more dimensions compared with only 10 per

⁷³ Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health (MOH) Zambia, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka, Zambia, and Rockville, Maryland, USA: Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health, and ICF.

⁷⁴ Child multidimensional poverty is defined as the deprivation in three to six of dimensions: Nutrition, Health, Information, Child Protection, Education, Housing, Sanitation, and Water

⁷⁵ Ministry of National Development Planning and UNICEF, 2018

CHAPTER 4.

cent in urban areas. Relatedly, the monetary poverty rate⁷⁶ is higher among children, with 60 per cent of children aged 0 – 17 years identified as being monetarily poor. Overall, child poverty is high, with a significant share of Zambian children being either poor or deprived (64 per cent), and with poverty and deprivation being higher in rural than in urban areas.

Regarding education for children, Zambia has made significant strides in achieving universal access to primary school as indicated by the Gender Parity Index (GPI) primary school of equal number of girls for the number of boys (ZDHS, 2018). However, a GPI secondary school (2018) of 90 girls per every 100 boys is a cause of concern as this signifies subdued progression for girls to secondary school. Among others, the key causes of high dropout rates for girls include child and early marriages, teenage pregnancies,⁷⁷ high poverty levels leading to negative coping strategies, school fees, prioritization of boys in education over girls and long distances to school from home, particularly in rural areas.

In response to challenges faced by girls with regards to school progression, the government and cooperating partners, particularly the World Bank, have been implementing the Keeping Girls in School programme that provides school fees to children from vulnerable and disadvantaged households (Zambia SDG VNR, 2020). Furthermore, under this programme, teachers undergo training on how to encourage girls to continue with their education (UNFPA/UNICEF, 2020). The motivation for keeping girls in school longer is clear: girls who spend more years in school will delay marriage and have better opportunities in life and better future livelihoods for themselves and their families. To curb child marriages, the country's legal framework has criminalized the marrying of girls under the age of 18. However, there is a need to bring harmony between Customary Law and Civil Law on the minimum age permissible for marriage, as the former allows an adolescent girl to get married.

Child labour is also criminal in the country – meaning that it is not permissible to engage a child under the age of 15 years for gainful employment. Through the Employment Code No. 3 enacted in 2019, in addition, the government established the Child Labour Data Centre, which monitors occurrences of child labour and reports this to the appropriate authorities.

The learning environment of Zambian children is negatively affected not only by high poverty and its associated vices, limited adequacy and accessibility, but also by natural disasters like floods and the COVID-19 pandemic. According to the 2020 UNHCR report on the rapid assessment of COVID-19, 75 per cent of the population felt that their children's education was negatively affected by the closure of schools as a pandemic containment measure. However, remedial measures such as online learning have exacerbated the inequality in education quality and outcomes between rural and urban children, with urban children, particularly those from wealthy households having education continuity through e-learning platforms. It is estimated that the closure of schools as a containment measure against COVID-19 disrupted the schooling of more than 4.2 million adolescents and children.

As pointed out by the Ministry of General Education (2020), an indirect risk of children being out of school, particularly for girls, was the increased risk of sexual abuse, child marriage and teenage pregnancy. To minimize the highlighted risks, the ministry encouraged e-learning to ensure that children have continuity of learning during the pandemic. However, the e-learning platforms are not universally available, with rural schools having

⁷⁶ Monetary poor children are identified as those age 0-17 years whose per adult equivalent consumption falls below the absolute poverty line

⁷⁷ The teenage pregnancy rate is high at 29 per cent based on the 2018 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey

little to no e-learning platform access. In addition, access to electricity and devices (radio, computer, phones, TV) to use for e-learning are very limited in rural areas. It is critical, therefore, that efforts are taken to step up the rural electrification programme and the use of other sources of energy for electricity generation at schools in rural areas, as well as availing computers to such schools. In addition to COVID-19 affecting children's schooling, households with children were found to be at higher risk of sliding into poverty or to increase in their poverty state (UNDP, 2020).

With regards to child health, based on a 2018 ZDHS report, Zambia has recorded improvements over the years, with reduction in under five-year-old child mortality from 75 deaths per 1,000 births in 2014 to 61 deaths per 1,000 births in 2018. Stunting has also reduced, from 45 per cent in 2007 down to 35 per cent 2018, with immunization coverage standing at 75 per cent. However, of concern is the rise in neonatal mortality from 24 to 27 per 1000 live births between 2014 and 2018 (ZDHS 2014 and 2018).

The prevalence of violence against children is high in Zambia and this applies to physical, emotional and sexual violence, with over 50 per cent of females and males having experienced at least one type of violence in their childhood, based on data from the 2014 Survey on Violence against Children in Zambia. The biggest concern lies in the lack of access to services for types of violence that cause significant harm to children. For example, the 2014 survey showed that 0 per cent of girls and only 7.2 per cent of boys experiencing sexual abuse had access to support services. As noted earlier, child marriage rates in Zambia persist at very high levels of 29 per cent without any changes between 2014 and 2018. Relatedly, teen pregnancy rates too have remained stagnant at 31 per cent (ZDHS 2014 and 2018).

Zambia's age of criminal responsibility stands at 8 years old which is one of the lowest in the world. There are concerns linked to the detention of child offenders and child migrants and lack of use of mechanisms that divert such children to social work interventions and schemes. Alternative sentencing such as probation is poorly managed with little follow up (Auditor General's Report on Juvenile Justice). The rule of law is jeopardized by very low rates of 14 per cent of birth registration and just 5.9 per cent of children that have a birth certificate (ZDHS 2018).

Despite ratifying the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1991 and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child in 2008, Zambia's measures aimed at promotion and protection of children's rights remain insufficient. In the 2018 child-friendliness index, Zambia is categorized as a "least child friendly" country and is ranked 48 out of the 52 African countries assessed.⁷⁸ In its concluding observations on the combined second to fourth periodic reports of Zambia under the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Committee on the Rights of the Child observed that discrimination against children in Zambia particularly affects those belonging to the most vulnerable groups, such as girls, children with disabilities, children belonging to religious minorities, children living with HIV/AIDS, migrant and refugee children, orphans and children born out of wedlock.⁷⁹

Notwithstanding its challenges, the youthfulness of Zambia's population presents opportunities to harness a "demographic dividend". Policies to address and enhance the wellbeing of children must thus be coordinated through the adoption of a life-cycle approach that captures children's age-specific needs at different life stages from early childhood, primary childhood, and adolescence.

⁷⁸ African Child Policy Forum, *The African report on child wellbeing 2018: Progress in the child-friendliness of African governments* (2018) p. xxii.

⁷⁹ Committee on the Rights of the Child, *Concluding observations on the combined second to fourth periodic reports of Zambia, CRC/C/ZMB/CO/2-4*, 14 March 2016, para. 25.

CHAPTER 4.

4.3. Young People

Zambia has a youthful population. Most of its population (65 per cent) is below the age of 25 years, while over half (52 per cent) are below the age of 18, and 34 per cent are youths (15 to 35 years). The government, through 7NDP, recognized that when effectively supported youths can play a significant role in realizing Vision 2030 whose goal is to transition Zambia from a low-income country to a prosperous middle-income country by 2030. Understanding the obstacles that impede the advancement of youth, the realities that youths face, what social factors shape their situation, and what choices they can make that will enable them to fully participate in national development processes is particularly important.

Unmet job aspirations and Youth employment

Employment is an important aspect in a youth's life. Gainful employment has the potential to lift youths out of poverty and provide an opportunity for them to make direct contributions to economic growth. Yet, a lot of youths are unemployed. The Zambia Labour force survey, 2019 report defines the youth unemployment rate as the share of the labour force aged 15 to 35 years without work but available for and seeking employment. Of the 80.3 per cent of people in Zambia who are employed in the informal sector, youths constitute the greatest majority (77.1 per cent). Only 11.0 per cent of youths are in formal employment.

Youths are employed in the informal sector (44.4 per cent), formal sector (29.7 per cent) and household sector (25.9 per cent). Male youths dominate the informal and formal sectors.⁸⁰ Informal employment is characterized by low earnings, low productivity, poor capital investments and low levels of technology. As a result, they offer limited prospects for improving the living standards of youths leading to many living in poverty.

The rate of youth unemployment increased from 16 per cent in 2018 to 17.9 per cent in 2019, with females being most unemployed (13.1 per cent for females and 12.1 per cent for males). Unemployment rates are very high among youths, estimated to be 41.7 per cent among those aged 20 to 24 years and 17.9 per cent among those aged 25 to 29 years. Youths 15 to 19 years have higher unemployment rates, implying a larger number of youths most likely finishing secondary education but not being able to find employment. The significantly higher youth unemployment rate in the period 2017 to 2019 is most likely reflective of both demographic and economic changes in the Zambian society, but also of the methodological changes in Labour Force Surveys.

Long-term youth unemployment (the proportion of the total unemployed population that has been unemployed for one year or longer) has been rising (49.5 per cent in 2017, particularly in urban areas and for young women). The industries that have the majority of employed youths are the wholesale/retail trade and repair of motor vehicles (27.9 per cent) followed by agriculture, forestry and fishing (21.9 per cent). In terms of occupation and career level, most Zambian youths are classified as being active in service and sales (34.2 per cent) or elementary workers (18.9 per cent) which requires a lower-level education and skillset. Nevertheless, there has been a slight increase from 2017 to 2019 in the share of youth occupying higher career positions, such as manager (4.3 per cent), professional (7.3 per cent) as well as plant and machine operators and assemblers (6.2 per cent). It is also noteworthy that there has been an apparent decrease of interest in the agricultural, forestry and fishery sectors.

Most employed youth (58.2 per cent) have a secondary level of education. While there has been a slight increase in the number of youths with tertiary education, only 12 per cent have a tertiary education with 0.2 per cent having a

⁸⁰ 2019 Labour force survey report

master's degree or higher, 1.9 per cent having a bachelor's degree, and 9.9 per cent having a certificate or a college diploma. The low employment rate of youths who attended tertiary education is likely to discourage other youths from pursuing a tertiary education, due to the perception that there is no direct employment benefit to doing tertiary studies. This may in turn motivate those without financial challenges to drop out of school and look for jobs.

The agricultural sector normally employs many people. Unfortunately, young people who could have been trained in the agricultural sector and were expecting to get jobs there could not secure employment. The agriculture sector performed poorly partly because of adverse effects of climate change. There was a drought in the 2015/2016 season and a repeat of drought/dry spells again in the 2017/2018 season. The negative effects of climate change (drought) reduced productivity and caused loss of jobs.

In addition, there is diminishing investment both by the public and private sector in agriculture thereby creating fewer employment opportunities. Other economic stresses on industry and market actors – including COVID-19, higher energy costs and the regulatory environment (such as minimum wage) – have also contributed to diminished economic activity and led to job losses through lay-offs and reduced working-hours, with women and youth being particularly affected.

There is also inadequate practical experience as a result of theory-based training in Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training institutions (low education level/ low skilled labour) as additional reasons for not employing the youth. The training institutions are producing a pipeline of unemployable youths who do not meet the requirements of industry. To mitigate this, there is need to support both formal training and SME training for those youths who are out of school. An additional reason for the inability of rural youths to create their own employment in agriculture is the inadequate financial capacity and capital, making it hard for them to start a business.

The government can create jobs through value chains in which youths can participate. Value chains must include investment in production, agro-processing and marketing, including export market and distribution mechanisms. The creation of value chains in the agricultural sector will spur youths to develop MSMEs, coupled with the provision of business development services to enterprises along different value chains. The opportunity therefore is for the government to put an emphasis on youth participation in agri-business and linking local to regional and international value chains that will create opportunities for sustainable businesses for youths.

Mismatch of skills and premature dropout at school: Aspirations gaps noted depict a mismatch between the demand side for employees (employer) and the supply side (employee). The demand side lacks sufficient formal job creation. At the same time, the supply side is characterized by many unemployed persons creating pressure for job need. At the same time, youths that are in the job market do not have the relevant formal skills.

Skills development has been a challenge in youth employability as many employers cited the lack of practical skills and work experience as the main reasons for shunning youth labour. Employers feel that Zambia's educational system is a pipeline of employees and not entrepreneurs. Graduate students coming out of training institutions need to come out of school with some basic experience and practical skills relevant to current industry demands and requirements. Training programmes need to be well coordinated to answer to industry requirements and stimulate more interest in agriculture among youths. To address this, the government established the Technical Educational, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority (TEVETA) under Act.no 13 of 1998 and amendment Act. no. 11 of 2005 with the mandate to register and regulate training institutions, and to advise on curriculum

CHAPTER 4.

development. Lately, TEVETA also manages a Skills Development Fund which is financed by the Skills Development Levy Act no.46 of 2016 to support skills development in both the formal and informal sectors of the economy.

Young people sexual reproductive health, including HIV

Young people are facing many reproductive health challenges including high adolescent pregnancy, child marriage, and high fertility rates. Childbearing starts early; almost a third (29 per cent) of 15 to 19-year-olds have experienced pregnancy (2018 DHS).⁸¹ For many adolescent girls, pregnancy means dropping out of school. Between 2011 and 2020 a total of 154,709 girls became pregnant and dropped out of school, the majority (82.7 per cent) were in primary school while 17.3 per cent were in secondary school. Although the government has a policy allowing girls to return to school, few are returning. In 2020 only 46.09 per cent returned to primary school and 64.5 to secondary school. Adolescent pregnancy may also lead to complications such as fistula. Rural young women 15 to 19 years old are twice as likely to have begun childbearing compared to women from urban areas (37 and 19 per cent respectively) (ZDHS, 2018) and disparities between provinces are very high (15 per cent in Lusaka and 43 per cent in Southern Province).

According to a 2017 study,⁸² overall determinants of adolescent pregnancy were classified into five categories:

- (a) Lack of access to appropriate sexual and reproductive health information and services, particularly contraceptives
- (b) Poverty, which leads some girls to offer sex in exchange for money, goods and services
- (c) Social and cultural determinants, such as gender inequality (women and girls perceived as the weaker sex), child marriage and peer pressure
- (d) Lack of information and education on sex and sexuality
- (e) Lack of opportunities for adolescents, particularly for those living in rural areas, such as school boarding facilities and social services (long distances to schools, health facilities and entertainment)

HIV prevalence generally rises with age group, increasing from 2.6 per cent among women and 1.2 per cent among men aged 15 to 19 years old. The prevalence of HIV infection among youths 15 to 24 years old is 3.8 per cent and higher among young women than young men (5.6 per cent versus 1.8 per cent) compared to adults (11.3 per cent) (ZDHS, 2018). It is important that adolescents and young people receive HIV and sexuality education to reduce new infections, which are also on the rise. There are 50,000 new infections every year and 1.2 million persons living with HIV as of 2018 (ZDHS, 2018). There is a need to carry out awareness campaigns among adolescents, and to promote safe sexual practices through the correct and consistent use of male or female condoms. Adolescents and young people living with HIV need to be supported to enrol in and sustain HIV treatment (anti-retro-viral drugs as prescribed). The HIV incidence for young women has consistently been higher than that of young men. In 2020, the incidence rate was estimated at 1.0 for young women, about 3.6 times the estimate of men at 0.28, while the rate among young women was estimated at about 1.6 times the value for adults 15 years and older. In absolute terms, the incidence of 1 represents about 20,100 new infections for young women compared to 5,800 among young men.

⁸¹ Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health (MOH) Zambia, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka, Zambia, and Rockville, Maryland, USA: Zambia Statistics Agency, Ministry of Health, and ICF.

⁸² UNFPA Zambia/Population Council Policy Brief "Adolescent Pregnancy in Zambia", June 2017

The HIV epidemic in Zambia is driven largely by unprotected heterosexual transmission. The primary factors in transmission among young people include multiple and concurrent partnerships (42 per cent in females and 11 per cent in males), low and inconsistent condom use, low testing (59.3 72 per cent of women and 54 per cent of men); low coverage of medical male circumcision (37.4 per cent among those aged 15 to 24 years old). Moreover, these factors are compounded by social drivers that further increase risk, decrease resilience, and lead to new HIV infections through high-risk behaviours such as intergenerational sex (2 per cent of women aged 15 to 19 years old) and transactional sex. These drivers include stigma and discrimination, no acceptance of antiretroviral drugs and condom use, gender inequalities (including gender-based violence), and abuse of alcohol and other substances.

Knowledge of HIV transmission and prevention methods is key to preventing the spread of HIV. The 2018 ZDHS indicates the percentage of young people with comprehensive knowledge is 42.6 per cent and lower in adolescents 15 to 19 years old (40.5 per cent). Among young men aged 15 to 24 years old, comprehensive knowledge about HIV rose from 37 per cent in 2007 to 47 per cent in 2013-14 before decreasing to 41 per cent in 2018. Among young women, the percentage increased from 34 per cent in 2007 to 42 per cent in 2013/14 and 43 per cent in 2018. Comprehensive knowledge about HIV is higher among urban young women and men (52 and 47 per cent, respectively) than among their rural counterparts (35 per cent each).

Youth participation in development processes

Besides signing and ratifying several international instruments like the African youth charter, and the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Zambia has put in place several laws and policies that, if fully implemented, have the potential to enhance youth participation in development. The Zambia Constitution protects the rights of everyone including youths to participate in governance processes as voters and as candidates for president when youths reach the age of 35 years, member of parliament when above 21 years, and area councillor when above 19 years. Several laws such as the Education Act, provide for free primary education and prohibit child marriage, the Employment Act promises quality jobs for youths, and National Youth Development Council Act creates the National Youth Development Council whose role is to promote the interests of youth and advise government on investments to improve the condition of youths in the country.

Youth participation in political and civic activities is very important. Engagement in civic activities enables the voice of the youth to be heard as they communicate to their government and leaders what they want done for them as well as modify the political discourse of their community or country (OECD, 2011). In Zambia, just like many developing countries, youths especially from poor backgrounds in the rural areas, focus on subsistence and self-employment activities and desist participating in political or civic involvement. It is critical that the voice of the rural youth is heard. Inroads are being made to encourage females to participate in political and leadership roles in Zambia. There is a deliberate move by civil society to encourage political parties to include female candidates in their structures. The efforts include capacity development and mentorship of the women to vie for elective positions. Documented involvement of youths in political activities has largely been limited to when they partake in supporting their party cadres and in some instances involving violent engagement against opponent supporters. Young women to date still occupy low number seats in council and parliamentary positions.

The most left behind youth: According to the OECD,⁸³ the most disadvantaged youths globally are rural youths. They face many vulnerabilities on top of staying in underdeveloped environments. They have little opportunities

⁸³ The future of Rural Youth in Developing Countries. Tapping the potential of Local Value Chains, OECD, 2018

CHAPTER 4.

for a good education and productive employment is limited in rural settings, so they are more likely to migrate in search of opportunities and travel long distances to go to schools that are either poorly equipped or without trained teachers. They have poor access to immovable assets with title deeds, and in most cases, they cannot afford a tertiary education. Due to the limited economic opportunities, the attraction of perceived pull factors in other countries, limited information on safe and regular migration, some youths resort to irregular migration including being smuggled into neighbouring countries and further afield. Due to their levels of education and immigration status, most youths end up doing low end jobs, commonly referred to as 3D jobs (dirty, difficult and dangerous jobs).

The following are policies that were identified by the OECD (2018) as key to advance youths' welfare in developing countries by 2030:

- (a) Adoption of a multidimensional approach to youths' welfare
- (b) Reduce the gap between job aspirations and the reality of the labour market
- (c) Advocate comprehensive activities to support youth entrepreneurs
- (d) Invest in rural infrastructure and agriculture
- (e) Advocate for development of local value chains in agro-food economy
- (f) Promote detailed sexual and reproductive health in educational schools and communities
- (g) Use youth eyes when designing youth programmes encourage youths to speak for themselves in policy dialogue

To overcome the other challenges outlined in this section, there is need to invest in youths and harness the demographic dividend that the large number of youths in the country provides. Zambia must therefore simultaneously invest in key priority areas for youths, including:

- (a) Family planning to meet the reproductive health needs of young people and reduce fertility rates so that young people can have manageable family sizes
- (b) Education and skills development to empower young people with relevant labour market driven skills
- (c) Creation of quality jobs and a healthy labour force to enhance household income and set young people on the path to a poverty free life
- (d) Ensuring good governance and transparency at all levels of society for optimal use of resources and democratic processes for development

4.4. Key Populations / Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI)

Zambia identifies female sex workers (FSW) and their clients, men having sex with men, people who inject drugs (PWID), transgender people and inmates as key populations. Indicative data from John Hopkins modelling shows that in Zambia, population estimates are 68,044 MSMs, 133,566 FSWs, 26,840 PWID. The key populations are at higher risk of HIV exposure, are subjected to stigma and discrimination, violence and fear, harassment and have limited access to health services. Interventions for key populations are only concentrated along the transport corridor and in border towns and tourist centres. Services provided to key populations include HIV testing,

antiretroviral therapy, sexually transmitted infections screening and treatment, condoms and lubricant distribution and pre-exposure prophylaxis, though a service package for each type of key population has not been defined.

Zambia has conducted legal environment assessments to address human rights and legal barriers to services. However, laws criminalize same-sex sex and sex work and drug use exposing key populations to indignity, harassment and violence, which hinders their access to health services – while stigma and negative attitudes towards key populations is prevalent in the health system. Specifically, the Zambia’s Penal Code Act (Cap 87) Article 155 expressly criminalizes homosexual relations. Article 158 condemns same-sex relations between men, women and children. Men and women violators are punishable by a sentence of imprisonment for “a term of not less than seven years and not exceeding fourteen years”. The Constitution of Zambia condemns discrimination based on race, tribe, sex, place of origin, marital status, political opinion and colour, but does not mention sexual orientation. The constitution of Zambia does not recognize its obligation to international agreements or to the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights as regards to lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) people.

These vulnerable and key populations have limited awareness of their rights and knowledge or even the capacity to navigate the justice systems, or to seek healthcare related to the sexual and physical violence they experience. Structures to assist vulnerable populations to seek justice and access healthcare (such as paralegal services, peer-led services, supportive community environment and responsive health and justice system) are also weak and the environment may not be supportive of relevant legal and policy reforms. Despite the legal environment and the fact that all citizens in Zambia are allowed to access to health services, key populations still find it a challenge to access these. In response, the Key Populations Consortium carries out advocacy initiatives to mitigate stigma and discrimination.

Young key populations, especially LGBTI people, report high levels of stigma and discrimination such as exclusion, harassment, threats, stalking, bullying in schools and physical violence. The discrimination from healthcare workers includes unfair or inadequate services, complete denial of services, breaches of confidentiality, hostility and humiliation, and threats of social persecution and legal prosecution.⁸⁴ Studies have revealed that young men who have sex with men and young people who use drugs report to have emotional and psychological trauma caused by health provider’s disclosure to their families and communities (breaches of confidentiality). They also avoid public health facilities, for fear of being stigmatized, discriminated against and reported to the police and subsequently arrested.⁸⁵ Consequently, there is inadequate comprehensive sexuality education and health care information relating to same-sex sexuality and services, including social support services, to meet the need of young LGBTI populations and young people who use drugs. There is a need for sensitization of different health conditions among health staff in order to provide required health services to all citizens irrespective of sexual orientation.

The National HIV/AIDS, ISTs, Tuberculosis Council, with support from UNAIDS, has revised and extended the HIV/AIDS Zambia Framework up to 2023 and key populations programmes are part of the framework.

⁸⁴ SALC (2017) Access to Justice for Healthcare Violations: Background Document, Panos Institute (2013) HIV Prevention for Sexual Minority Groups in Zambia, Population Council (2016) Formative assessment of HIV risk and size estimation using census and enumeration methods among key populations most at risk of HIV in Zambia, HEARD (2018) Zambia: Baseline report on young key populations and sexual and reproductive health and rights.

⁸⁵ Population Council, 2016.

CHAPTER 4.

4.5. People with Disabilities

Zambia is signatory to the key conventions for the protection of the rights of persons with disabilities including the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006⁸⁶, ILO Convention Concerning Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment for Persons with Disabilities, 1983 (No. 159), ILO Convention Concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation, 1958, (No. 111). The country domesticated the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities through the enactment of the Persons with Disabilities Act No. 6 of 2012, and the 2016 National Policy on Disability. This resulted in the establishment of the Zambia Agency for Persons with Disabilities, which is responsible for registering and collecting information on people with disabilities.

In 2015, a Zambia National Disability Survey (NDS) aimed at estimating the national prevalence of disability among adults and children, disaggregated by sex, severity of disability and province, while a the rural/urban division was also undertaken.⁸⁷ The survey results showed that the prevalence of disability was estimated to be 10.9 per cent among adults 18 years or older. It was higher in urban than in rural areas, and higher among females than among males. Among children 2 to 17 years old, the prevalence was estimated to be 4.4 per cent. Prevalence varied between the provinces, with the highest estimates in Luapula and Copperbelt provinces among both adults and children. The most common functional problem reported was with sight; this was followed by problems with walking, remembering, hearing, self-care and communication. A large majority (57.9 per cent) reported mild disability; moderate and severe disability were highest for sight and walking problems. About one in three individuals with a disability had more than one functional problem. Severity of disability varied with sex, location and province – and to some extent with increasing age. Nearly one person in three gave disease/illness as the main cause of disability, while one in eight reported that the disability had been present at birth (congenital). While disability onset in the population could occur at any stage of life, about a third identified it as occurring between birth and 20 years of age. More than one in five (21.1 per cent) acquired their disability after the age of 60.

Exclusion of persons with disabilities from education diminishes their possibility of securing employment later in life and results in reduced earning potential exposing such persons and their families to poverty. The NDS (2015) data showed a marked difference between disabled and non-disabled secondary school level attainment in both rural and urban areas, with far fewer persons with disabilities having completed secondary school. Although the overall picture of high school attainment is poor for all categories, it is marginally better at 12.6 per cent for persons with disability as opposed to 9.8 per cent for non-disabled persons. A large majority of respondents reported having accessed formal primary education, though fewer persons with disabilities (80.8 per cent) than without (89.9 per cent) reported having attended school at some point. Generally, persons with disabilities, rural dwellers and females reported fewer years at school. Furthermore, parents and guardians of children with disabilities opt not to send the child with disabilities in preference to the non-disabled children; this is due to misconceptions, myths and stereotypes towards children with disabilities.

The NDS survey found that 41.6 per cent of male adults and 19.4 per cent of females in households without disabilities were in paid employment, while 26.7 males and 16.7 females from households with disabilities were in paid employment. Leonard Cheshire Disability (2014) reported that the exclusion is such that disabled girls may not complete primary school. If they are lucky to complete primary school, they still face the challenge of

⁸⁶ The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disability defines disability as: "...a disability resulting from the interaction of persons with impairments with attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinder their full and effective participation in community or society as equals with others".

⁸⁷ The Survey was initiated by the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS) and implemented by the Zambia Statistics Agency and the University of Zambia (UNZA), in collaboration with SINTEF Technology and Society (Norway) and UNICEF Zambia.

progressing to secondary school. People with disabilities are also segregated on accessing health facilities due to inaccessible settings, exorbitant charges, poor persons with capacity to communicate say with sign language by the service provider. The lack of service to provide reasonable accommodation to such persons may lead to high costs to governments to set up similar parallel facilities for the employers with disabilities.

CCA consultations revealed that there are extremely high levels of unemployment among persons with disabilities. This can be attributed to several factors such as: low skill levels due to inadequate education, discriminatory attitudes and practices of employers, non-availability of policies to support the employment of a person with a disability, inaccessible and unfriendly work environments, inadequate access to information and ignorance in society. The plight of women with disabilities in relation to employment is worsened by the fact that women tend to be less educated than the men folk and therefore face double discrimination as women and as persons living with disability. The Persons with Disabilities Act prohibits discrimination based on disability for all forms of employment, addressing, among other subjects, conditions of recruitment, hiring and employment; continuance of employment; creation, classification, and abolition of positions; determination of wages, pensions, and other benefits; apprenticeship, promotion and career advancement; and safe and healthy working conditions. The Act further allows the setting of an employment quota for persons with disabilities in the public and private sectors. However, the statutory instrument required to enforce this provision has yet to be adopted. Currently, there is no system in place that collects data on the number of PWD that are employed. A positive development is the introduction of tax rebate incentives for employers who recruit persons with disabilities and the establishment of the National Business and Disability Network, hosted by the Zambia Federation of Employers, to support employers that recruit workers with disabilities.

Infrastructure that is not user-friendly in settings at public service places such as council buildings, sanitation and water, and transportation, owing to poor design of the facilities, are a hindrance for persons with disabilities to access public services. According to NDS (2015) about 1 in 10 persons with disabilities experienced problems with accessibility at public places such as hotels, recreational facilities, sports facilities and banks. Fewer accessibility problems were reported for primary health clinics, places of worship, shops, and hospitals. In rural areas, the main problem is that many of the services and facilities are simply not available to persons with disabilities. Fewer children with disability than without disabilities were literate, had accessed formal education, had studied as far as they had planned and were still studying. Since education is key to inclusion and participation in society, it is crucial that there should be equity in access to education. Children with disabilities are less likely to attend schools, may be segregated or hidden at home and are more likely to experience childhood neglect.

From 2017, the government in collaboration with the ILO has been developing a Disability Management Information System that is currently operational in all the 10 provinces; the system will facilitate improved planning and monitoring of services for persons with disabilities. To lessen challenges facing persons with disabilities, the government has provided tax exemptions on equipment/aids such as white canes, braille materials, hearing aids and imported vehicles.

Physical access to health care facilities for young persons with disability is also a challenge due to inappropriate transport and infrastructure issues especially in rural areas. Women and girls with disabilities experience barriers to access mainstream services. Access to other facilities, such as GBV response shelters, courts of law and schools, is also challenging. Mainstreaming disability inclusion in policies and guidelines remains a key and urgent on the agenda.

CHAPTER 4.

There is a need to strengthen country level response to GBV and the sexual and reproductive health and rights needs of disabled people by supporting reviews of sectoral policies, strategies and guidelines to improve access to services for women and young disabled people. Young persons with disabilities are typically not included in the design and development of sexual and reproductive health and rights programmes and thus their unique service requirements are not well articulated in current programmes. Promoting participation and social inclusion of young people with disabilities, empowering them through capacity development initiatives will be key to ensuring their voices are heard during important advocacy and policy dialogue opportunities. There will be a need to mobilize and strengthen the capacity of organisations of people with disability to actively participate in influencing design and delivery of programs in line with the unique needs of women and young people with disability.

Among the strategies of the National Disability Policy is the Social Cash Transfer programme, which benefits persons with disabilities, who are not involved in meaningful income generating activities. Further, the Ministry of General Education has introduced a quota system, whereby 10 per cent of teacher recruitment is reserved for persons with disabilities.

4.6. Internally Displaced Persons, Migrants, Refugees, Returnees and other Groups

Internally displaced persons: An internally displaced person (IDP) refers to persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid, the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, development projects, natural or human-induced disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border (GRZ 2013). Zambia like many other countries is equally facing the challenge of IDPs. The leading causes of internal displacement in Zambia typically include natural and human-induced disasters, land disputes, environmental degradation, development projects, encroachment of populations on land meant for other activities, conflicts along national border areas and differences in social/religious affiliations. The consequences of internal displacement can include overstressing of resources in host communities, displaced populations becoming more vulnerable to diseases and social marginalization, livelihood of displaced communities becoming more fragile (unstable) and heightened tension between host and displaced communities. Between 2013 and 2016 a total of 4,616 displaced persons were recorded in Zambia (Migration in Zambia – A Country Profile, 2019). Floods that occurred in 2019 and 2020 rainfall seasons also resulted in widespread internal displacement, particularly in Southern, Eastern and Luapula provinces. IDPs face specific risks and vulnerabilities which include limited access to basic housing, food, electricity, clean and adequate water and sanitation, health services, land as well as unemployment, underemployment and insecurity among others.

Migrants: A migrant is a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons.⁸⁸ Migrants are often disproportionately vulnerable to human rights violations because they are not citizens of receiving states. The situation is worse off for women migrants who must deal with additional challenges as they face human rights violations based on their migrant status as well as based on their sex. While human rights are inalienable and should not be granted on the basis of citizenship, states often arbitrarily exercise their sovereign power to determine the admission of non-nationals into their country, detention of migrants and removal or expulsion of

⁸⁸ IOM, 2019: Glossary on Migration - https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/iml_34_glossary.pdf

non-nationals. It is however noteworthy that although states have the power to manage migration flows into, through and from their territory, they are obligated by international law to do so in such a way that upholds the rights of individuals within their territory and under their jurisdiction. More often than not, migrants are often systematically socially excluded and disadvantaged due to discrimination based on their migrant status or by virtue of having been displacement from their original home. In most instances this discrimination usually occurs in public institutions such as health and education facilities as well as in legal systems and social inquisitions.

Zambia is a country of origin, transit and destination of millions of migrants, refugees, displaced people and ex-convicts whose human rights may be at risk of abuse, exclusion, including sexual and gender-based violence and treatment. According to the 2010 national census, Zambia hosted 43,867 immigrants, which represented 0.4 per cent of the total population. Male immigrants accounted for 53 per cent, while females accounted for 47 per cent. Immigrant workers constitute a share in the national labour force as evidenced by the fact that between 2013 and 2017 the Department of Immigration issued 101,792 permits to migrant workers. Employment Permits were the most issued at 49.4 per cent of total permits issued, followed by Temporary Employment Permits at 19.5 per cent. While Zambia experiences some significant irregular migration, data on irregular migration flows and populations are underestimates of irregular migration in the country.

The number of identified and assisted stranded migrants increased from 29 in 2015 to 205 in 2016 and slightly increased to 215 in 2017. The majority of stranded migrants were Ethiopian nationals. Most irregular migrant flows into Zambia originated from the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the East and Horn of Africa, Malawi and Mozambique. Despite the clandestine nature of human trafficking, official statistics indicate a steady increase in the prevalence of trafficking from 33 cases in 2015 to 206 in 2020. The total number of official victims of trafficking recorded for the period 2015 to 2020 is 405 of which 181 were females. Accordingly, Zambia hosts different categories of migrants with diverse vulnerabilities and often unable to effectively enjoy their human rights as well as being at increased risk of violations and abuse. It is therefore imperative to ensure that their human rights are respected, protected and fulfilled. Invariably, the extent of exclusion vulnerabilities differs significantly but a large proportion of migrants do require specific protection because of the circumstances and conditions under which they travel or face on arrival, or because of personal characteristics such as their age, gender identity, disability or health status.

Refugees: As of 31 May 2021, Zambia hosted 98,976 people of concern (refugees, asylum seekers and former refugees) comprising 32,723 households in three settlements (Meheba 32,313, Mayukwayukwa 19,441, Mantapala 17,232), urban areas (Lusaka/Ndola 17,586) and the 12,404 self-settled (UNHCR and COR, 2021). Several factors combine to increase the risk of persons of concern being left behind and these include, but are not limited to, regulatory and policy framework, legal and civil documentation, access to social protection for people of concern, access to skills development and tertiary education and poor services infrastructure. While Zambia has made significant strides in improving the legal and legislative environment for people of concern,⁸⁹ there are still some lacunae which limit the enjoyment of specific rights and create a foundation for people of concern to be left behind. Further, the Refugees Act of 2017 is not backed by a comprehensive policy and there is a misalignment between the act and other auxiliary pieces of legislation such as the Immigration and Deportation Act. Further, there is more to be done to ensure improved access to civil and legal documentation including birth registration, refugee related documentation and resident permits to ensure full integration of refugees. People

⁸⁹ The government repealed and replaced the 1970 Refugees Control Act with a more enabling 2017 Refugees Act.

CHAPTER 4.

of concern still have limited access to social protection, basic social services such as education and healthcare, skills development and tertiary education. Currently, refugee settlements do not have tertiary education and skills development facilities. Consequently over 20,000 youths comprising both refugees and Zambians living in and around refugee settlements are left with no prospect of formally acquiring skills or opportunity for pursuing tertiary education if they cannot get a scholarship. Refugees also remain ineligible for national and other scholarships. The situation perpetuates long-term vulnerability, adversely impacting prospects for attaining self-reliance. In addition, the three refugee settlements in Zambia are in remote areas characterized by high levels of deprivation in many aspects including education, health, WASH, shelter, connectivity and access to electricity among others.

Ex-convicts/or inmates: Ex-convicts are usually discriminated against when they want to look for employment or integrate into society. It is therefore imperative to support capacity building training to ensure community reintegration and reskilling of convicts and ex-convicts. The setting up of skills training centres helps ex-convicts with skills for livelihoods post serving their sentences. Without such skills society is usually suspicious of ex-convicts and whenever a mishap occurs, they will be the first suspects. It is desirable to have an increase in the number of such centres to promote integration and reduce exclusion. In situations where support is not offered, ex-inmates experience great social exclusion mainly driven by stigma and discrimination and therefore have significantly higher levels of unemployment even when qualified due their record of having been incarcerated. This causes most of them to re-offend, finding themselves back behind walls even when rehabilitative and corrective interventions were successfully applied. Ex-inmates also face difficulties in accessing social and health care services for similar reasons and many times default in continued treatment for those on chronic medication.

While the rights of incarcerated people are limited, they are still entitled to some basic rights such as access to food, water, access to medication when they fall sick, as well as access to legal representation in the case of a need to appeal. Zambia embraces such rights as provided by the constitution. Inmates that are infected with HIV are entitled to access to ART. The onset of COVID-19 also required that they too are given the right to wear masks to protect themselves from the spread of the pandemic. The Zambian Correction Services in collaboration with cooperating partners pursued strengthening of health facilities in prisons and came up with prison health committees constituted by both officers and inmates (Topp et al., 2018). Topp et al., (2018) found that the committees improved health services for both inmates and officers, improved inmate-officer relations, and improved trust and collaboration in generating solutions for health problems. This approach reduced the exclusion of inmates to the fundamental right to health services.

Older persons: According to the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 378 out of 1,000 people in Zambia are aged 65 years or older. Older persons are particularly vulnerable members of Zambian society as data has shown that the incidence of poverty tends to increase as the age of the household head increases. The 2015 LCMS shows that the age group with the lowest poverty incidence is that headed by individuals aged 15 to 24 years at 47.9 per cent while households headed by individuals aged 65+ years have the highest poverty rates at 67.2 per cent.

Persons living with HIV/AIDS: Six years after Zambia agreed to the ambitious 2016 UN General Assembly Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS and global target to end AIDS by 2030, momentum is being compromised. The global targets for 2020, have been missed in many sub-populations and geographic settings. The stark contrast of successes in some population groups and urban areas and failures in other population groups and rural areas

confirms that HIV remains a pandemic of inequalities. Women are more likely to be HIV-positive than men (14.8 versus 8.9 per cent). Infection rates are more than twice in urban areas as in rural areas (15.9 versus 7.1 per cent). Of particular concern is the inattention to the needs of displaced persons, migrants, mobile populations, prisoners, persons with disabilities, marginalized and criminalized sexual minorities, adolescent girls particularly those living in the streets and vulnerable to HIV especially in high-burden settings. Children living with HIV are much less likely to receive treatment than adults, and their health outcomes are much worse. The COVID-19 pandemic has placed enormous additional pressures on HIV responses, health systems and people left behind and in need of services.

Indigenous populations: Zambia has small populations of indigenous peoples, primarily the San and the Batwa. The San are found in south (Sioma area) and southwest of Zambia (Shangombo area). The Batwa are found in remote parts of Luapula, Western and Southern provinces. There is a general lack of disaggregated data on indigenous populations in Zambia, making them a particularly invisible segment of the Zambian society. This invisibility primarily stems from the fact that Zambia does not recognize the existence of indigenous populations in the country. As they are not specifically factored in national development policies and programmes, Zambia's indigenous populations are among the poorest in the country. The Committee on Elimination of Racial Discrimination has observed that the San suffer from high rates of poverty and that they do not have access to their ancestral lands, education, housing, employment, health care and political participation and representation. The Batwa have also been historically discriminated against with the result that they face significant obstacles in realizing their human rights and accessing social services.

Social exclusion of minority groups may start to raise tensions in a country. If disadvantaged group such as the ex-convicts, refugees, asylum seekers who need support are not given the opportunity and means, this could pose risks in terms of violent extremism and terrorism.

People Living in Informal settlements: Informal settlements are home to the majority of urban poor and constitute a major part of the population in cities. About 70 per cent of the urban population in Lusaka for example, reside in high density areas which are overcrowded, with poor housing conditions, inadequate infrastructure and with inadequate basic services such as schools, clinics, clean energy, water supply and sanitation. The settlements are the most visible expression of urban inequality and poverty as they are the most accessible and affordable living option for the urban poor and migrants moving to the cities (UN-Habitat, 2012).

As most of the informal settlements are in areas that were originally not suitable for human settlements, they are unplanned and tend to be prone to disasters such as perennial flooding and sporadic outbreaks of diseases such as cholera, which resulted in approximately 5,900 cases and 114 deaths in 2018.⁹⁰ They have also not been spared by the COVID-19 pandemic, which had resulted in 137,026 cases and 1,794 deaths nationally by 23 June 2021.⁹¹ It is the vulnerable women, elderly, youth and persons living with disabilities residing in these settlements that are disproportionately affected by these natural and human induced disasters, thus disrupting the already fragile livelihoods and exacerbating the existing adverse living conditions. According to the National Disability Survey (2015), the prevalence of disability was estimated to be 10.9 per cent among adults and higher in urban than rural areas. Therefore, with the majority of the urban population living in informal settlements, it entails that many people with a disability are resident to these settlements and are subjected to no user-friendly facilities both in public places and at home. Further, youths lack employment and have limited economic opportunities

⁹⁰ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 2018: <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/67/wr/pdfs/mm6719a5-H.pdf>

⁹¹ Ministry of Health, Zambia National Public Health Institute, 2021

CHAPTER 4.

thereby increasing the risks of engaging in criminal activities resulting in pockets of criminal hubs including drug and substance abuse within these settlements. As the country strives to realize the aspirations of the National Development Plans, Vision 2030 and the SDGs, the residents in informal settlements/slums should not be left behind.

4.7. Data Availability and Monitoring The SDGs

Data are essential for the identification of challenges and their solutions in both the implementation of SDGs and monitoring of progress towards their achievement. In Zambia, the monitoring of SDGs is led by the Ministry of National Development Planning with support from the Zambia Statistics Agency, which is mandated to carry out national surveys on behalf of the government. Other data, particularly administrative records are collected by line ministries and other government agencies. These databases are collated and managed by the SMART Zambia Institute.

Analysis of the Zambia data ecosystem shows that the country has requirements and gaps in data, capacities and processes that should be supported, resourced, and enabled to achieve SDGs. Given the breadth and complexity of the SDGs, many different types of data are required (demographic, economic, social, environmental) with varying levels of coverage and disaggregation. A solid framework of indicators and statistical data to monitor progress, inform policy and ensure accountability of all stakeholders is imperative (Hlatshwayo, G. 2017). In 2020, the Ministry of National Development Planning conducted a voluntary national review of the SDGs. This report shows glaring data gaps on the reporting of SDGs. Zambia reports on 233 indicators across all 17 SDGs except SDG14. As of 2020, the country achieved a partly 36.1 per cent reporting rate owing to missing data or missing metadata. SDG13 has the worst reporting rate at zero per cent while SDG6 is the best reported at 70 per cent (for more detail, cf. Annex 2: Status of SDG indicators reported by Goal, Zambia 2020).

There are several factors affecting data availability in Zambia. In summary, these relate to major gaps, barriers and challenges in relation to both the policy environment and the national statistical system. According to Horstman and Mutombo (2020),⁹² these include:

- (a) **Limited evidence-based planning and policy making:** Overall, there is an apparent insufficiency in the demand for data and use of information, and consequently, a lack of an institutionalized culture of evidence/ results-based policy making and planning.
- (b) **Insufficient financial support:** The limited demand and competition for scarce domestic resources has resulted in insufficient financial support for the National Statistical System to function properly and apply quality standards to their full extent as required by the National Statistical System Act 2018. This has caused the use of less optimal data producing methodologies and cost-effective procedures and jeopardised the accuracy/reliability of data and timely dissemination of new data and information.
- (c) **Rigid administrative structures:** In addition to the financial constraints, the proper functioning of the high-level decision-making mechanism for the National Statistical System (Statistical Board) and changes at the organizational level (ZamStats) in response to required functions in the National Statistical System Act 2018 are needed to establish a robust and timely responsive and well-coordinated system. Though the Smart Zambia Institute has started collating data from government ministries and agencies, a large part of

⁹² Horstman R. and Mutombo N (2020). Africa Demographic Data Mapping. Country Report: Zambia. UKAid.

administrative statistics remains uncollated and underutilized to inform key decision-making processes. Further, there is a resistance to change, hindering the adoption of new policies and operating procedures vis-a-vis data and innovation.

- (d) **Low capacity to analyse, disseminate and use data:** Overall, there are capacity shortcomings in the public and private domains at national and subnational levels (government departments, line ministries), non-state institutes and the private sector to appreciate and understand data, conduct data analyses, interpret results, translate data to policy-relevant information and produce tailor-made products. There are also no incentives for different communities of data stakeholders to share information and access to this information remains a big barrier to data use.
- (e) **Key data producers face technical staffing and physical constraints:** Constraints in technical human resource capacity apply to the key data producing organizations, which also are experiencing critical physical and technical infrastructure limitations (hard and software). The latter affect the timeliness of data production and publication for the census and surveys and has caused *inter alia* that the wider research audience has no instant online interactive access to cleaned micro and metadata and is not regularly updated about upcoming and available new data.

Other barriers/challenges include:

- (a) Low levels of data literacy among the general population
- (b) Lack of periodic upgrading of survey and data questionnaires
- (c) Lack of compliance of data collection methodologies with international data standards
- (d) Low levels of data coordination and information sharing within national statistical systems
- (e) Inadequate coordination of donor assistance; outdated data-related processes, particularly with respect to documentation and a lack of incorporation of available technological solutions by many government agencies and departments
- (f) Little impact statistical advocacy in sectors and across the systems
- (g) Legislative gaps in emerging areas, including rules around the collection of data from non-traditional sources, sharing of data among data stakeholders and compliance
- (h) Varying knowledge of and compliance with the regulatory framework by data producers; and several unresolved issues concerning data openness and interoperability

In this context, data communities within Zambia – from traditional to non-traditional producers and users of data – as well as the UN system, are challenged to work together and demonstrate collaboration and greater coordination of efforts. While on the surface this is a technical exercise, it is also a political one: data collection can accelerate sustainable development by improving monitoring, accountability, and decision-making within countries. Frequent measurement of progress, combined with open and transparent access to this data, will be vital to meeting the SDG targets. Better and disaggregated data can shed light on communities and populations that are excluded from the benefits of sustainable development.

The first step, therefore, is to upgrade data and statistical systems for all players in the data ecosystem. This requires undertaking a thorough assessment of the data and statistical ecosystems of the country. This includes assessing

legal and policy frameworks and capacities for official statistics; entry points for action and obstacles for multi-stakeholder engagement on data for SDG implementation and monitoring; innovation and new technologies for plugging data gaps; and the infrastructure requirements for improved collection, dissemination and use of data. In addition, it is important to evaluate efforts to support the creation of national and international frameworks for monitoring and accountability.

The government has already started this by working on Zambia's Statistical reforms. In 2017, Zambia's National Statistical System was assessed by the World Bank during its routine capacity assessment exercise and was given a score of 52 per cent (VNR, 2020⁹³). The score was a measure on how the system was responsive to the country's data requirements. In the assessment only 7 per cent of indicators with available data used administrative data sources vs the 90 per cent that is required by the 7NDP and SDGs.

Statistical reforms were then done but first with the enactment of the Statistics Act No. 13 in 2018 repealing and replacing the Census Statistics Act of 1964 (VNR, 2020). The statistical reforms carried out by Zambia were designed to strengthen the National Statistical System. The Central Statistics Office was then transformed to Zamstats. Under the new changes, Zamstats coordinates the NSS and has powers to lead statistical code of practice in Zambia. Zamstats also guides data collection, processing of data collection, standardization of methodologies and proclamation of statistics as official statistics.

While Zamstats is the central and official data office that handles SDG data, there is an urgent need to bring onboard complementary data stakeholders such as civil society, philanthropic institutions, academic and tertiary institutions, and private businesses to participate in the data ecosystem of Zambia. Once fully commissioned, together through the coordination of Zamstats, they can tackle several gaps that remain in critical areas across the national ecosystem. To redress these gaps, a series of capacity development activities can be carried out by different communities of data stakeholders. Apart from human, infrastructure and institutional strengthening, capacity development can also include role definition and coordination among all stakeholders. The key interventions include the following: improve perception on the usefulness of evidence-based information and institutionalise a culture of accountability and transparency; strengthen sub-national and disaggregated data collection; strengthen thematic in-depth analysis of data; increase financial support; instigate organisational changes and high-level decision-making mechanisms for improved functioning of the National Statistical System; and strengthen the capacity of data producers.

It is also imperative to explore ways and means to collect data and variables for groups previously left out such as adolescents less than 15 years old, people with disability, sexual minorities, migrants, and Zambian nationals in the diaspora.

Meanwhile, non-official data stakeholders such as civil society, philanthropic institutions and private businesses could consider participating in more dialogue platforms to identify data related social, environmental and governance risks, and to collaborate with governments to find solutions.

⁹³ Ministry of National Development Planning (2020). Voluntary National Review: Zambia Sustainable Development Goals. Ministry of National Development Planning, Lusaka.

Academic and tertiary institutions could undertake innovative research in new technologies, data platforms, and knowledge generation, and sharing to provide long-term perspectives and resources at all levels. Finally, more coordinated support and resources for statistics would be needed from donors and development partners.

Achieving the SDGs in Zambia will require integrated action on social, environmental and economic challenges facing the country. It also presents a strategic opportunity to build on the momentum of the current global data revolution to bring about a shift in the way ministries, departments and agencies, as well as the public and private sectors, use data and statistics. To this end, a data ecosystem mapping exercise for Zambia may provide a preliminary step towards moving to a fully developed culture of statistical literacy in Zambia, and to supporting a more sophisticated approach by official and non-official data producers alike to data production, use, coordination, analytics, visualization and communication.





CHAPTER 5. Commitments under International Norms and Standards

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Zambia became a member of the United Nations on 1 December 1964⁹⁴ following its independence on 24 October 1964 and became a member of the African Union (formerly the Organization of African Unity) on 16 December 1964.

Zambia has ratified all core UN Human Rights Conventions, except for the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families commitments and treaties. It has also accepted the first Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Zambia has a dualist system in which both statutory and customary laws apply, which requires domestication of international instruments for them to be enforced in a court of law. There is still no legal framework or set of guidelines for the domestication of international instruments. Zambia has also ratified the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and has signed but not ratified the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. It has also ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

Zambia has thus made binding international and regional legal commitments to respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights contained in these instruments (a more detailed list of conventions, commitments and treaties ratified by Zambia is available in the Annex 3). Zambia's legal obligations are the overarching prism through which to view its efforts to realize the SDGs and it has a duty to report to and follow-up to the recommendations of the treaty monitoring bodies. It has also engaged successfully with all three cycles of the Universal Periodic Review. The Human Rights Council at its 37th Session in 2017 adopted Zambia's recommendations for the UPR third cycle. The recommendations from the UPR third cycle touched on cross cutting issues such as equality and non-discrimination, development, the environment, business and human rights, as well as right to life, liberty and security of person, administration of justice, including impunity and the rule of law. Pertaining to economic, social and cultural rights, issues relating to right to work and to just and favourable conditions of work, right to an adequate standard of living, right to health and right to education. The recommendations also touched on specific persons or groups such as women, children, persons with disabilities, migrant, refugees and asylum seekers. In response to a recommendation to strengthen the existing national human rights mechanism, Zambia established the national mechanisms for reporting and follow-up (NMRF) in December 2018. However, there is still the need to constitute the mechanism with permanent focal points from government ministries, and to consider amending the legislation to include a NMRF in the existing legislation as a coordinating body on State party reporting and implementation of recommendations. The institutional framework for the promotion and protection of human rights in Zambia includes the Zambia Human Rights Commission and the judiciary. Other institutions with a human rights mandate include the Gender Equity and Equality Commission and the Zambia Agency for Persons with Disabilities.

In terms of engagement with Special Procedure mandate-holders, on 16 July 2008, Zambia made a standing invitation to special procedures, which is an open invitation extended by a government to all thematic special procedures. By extending a standing invitation Zambia announced that it will always accept requests to visit from all special procedures. Four Special Procedure mandate holders have undertaken visits to Zambia namely the Independent Expert on Poverty (2009), Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women (2010), Special Rapporteur on Disability (2016) and the Special Rapporteur on Food (2017), who have made salient recommendations requiring follow-up.

⁹⁴ <https://web.archive.org/web/20061022200845/http://www.un.org/Overview/unmember.html>

CHAPTER 5.

Zambia has ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disability (CRPD) on 1 February 2010, which results to the adoption of many laws and policies around disability. The Government of Zambia signed the 2018 Global Disability Summit Charter for Change, with specific benchmarks such as to promote inclusive education at all levels by 2022. The government committed to mainstream disability in all sectors through focal point persons, as well as to initiate and improve targeting and programming of projects for girls and women in rural areas.

However, the implementation and knowledge of CRPD are still limited. There are notable concerns in terms of equality and non-discrimination, which affects women and children with disabilities, accessibility, access to justice, liberty and security of the person, freedom from exploitation, violence and abuse, living independently and being able to be included in the community and right to education. In this regard, several organizations are working on improving the situation of persons with disabilities in Zambia. In this regard, the Zambian Agency for People with Disabilities focuses on health support, assistive devices, capacity building, empowerment, accessibility, education support, mainstreaming of disability, rehabilitation and habitation, awareness raising and registration. In civil society, the Zambia Federation of Disability Organizations is an umbrella for 15 organizations of people with disabilities.

While Zambia ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child on 6 December 1991, the country has only signed but not yet ratified the first and second optional protocols to the convention and these include the Optional Protocol on Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and the Optional Protocol on Children in Armed Conflict. Zambia has sound legislation in many sectoral areas to the convention. Significant efforts have been invested in advancing the regulatory framework for the protection of children through the draft Children's Code, however this legislation is yet to be fully endorsed by Cabinet and adopted by Parliament. In addition, the profession of social work, which is the key professional practice for the protection of children and for addressing GBV, remained unregulated despite the draft Social Work Association Law of Zambia being in place awaiting endorsement at executive government level.

Although Zambia has not yet ratified the Convention against Discrimination in Education, the country has intentions of ratifying and has already agreed to the convention and is reporting on its implementation – the last report being in 2016. As well, Zambia has ratified the Education 2030 Agenda whose objectives are similar to those in the convention. Hence, Zambia is implementing the following: primary education free and compulsory; secondary education in its different forms, generally available and accessible to all (though places in grades 10 to 12 are inadequate); opportunities for those who missed all or part of their primary education and their continuation of education; training opportunities for the teaching profession without discrimination (catering even for students with disabilities); and the right of members of national minorities to carry on their own educational activities.

Zambia ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights on 10 April 1984. In line with this ratification, Zambia rolled out massive infrastructure development countrywide. These include roads and bridges, hospitals, schools, water reticulation systems and other support infrastructure thereby creating an enabling environment for socio-economic development. Health care centres and schools have been completed. However, there are areas of concerns in relation to economic, social and cultural rights notably those related to employment and favourable conditions of work, budget and resources allocated in these areas, right to education, budget and resources, right to social security and right to work, right to health. Specifically in the area of education, Zambia has entered a reservation in respect of its obligation to provide compulsory and free primary education. The reservation essentially provides that while Zambia is committed to take the necessary

steps to provide compulsory and free primary education, it cannot immediately guarantee full compliance due to financial constraints.

Zambia ratified the Convention in the Elimination of All forms of Discriminations Against Women on 21 June 1985. With regards to gender equality and women's empowerment, Zambia has an adequate legal framework that guarantees equality between men and women. Equality is recognized as a national principle under Article 8 of the Republican Constitution. Further, Sections 20, 21 and 22 of the Gender Equity and Equality Act provide for the Right to Nationality, Sexual Reproductive Rights, Marriage and Family Life. Though there is still more work to be done, the number of women who reported to have experienced physical violence has declined from 43.3 per cent in 2014 to 36 per cent in 2018. Through collaboration between the government and cooperating partners, capacities have been built for the police service to be able to identify, probe, codify and isolate GBV cases as opposed to treating all GBV cases as general assault. As a result, cases are being referred accordingly, enabling survivors to receive appropriate and sometimes specialized services.

Concerning women's participation in political leadership, the proportion of seats held by women has remained low at 19 per cent since 2016. On a positive note, the proportion of local government seats held by women rose from 10 per cent in 2016 to 38 per cent in 2019. Persistent challenges include lack of gender-disaggregated data for planning, monitoring and evaluation; difficulties of enforcing statutory law in a traditional setting; and persistent low representation of women in leadership.

Zambia ratified the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discriminations on 4 February 1972. The latest report on its implementation has been submitted in 2019. While considerable efforts are made by the government, it is noted that there is a lack of a comprehensive anti-discrimination legislation in line with the convention. In fact, there is the need for an effective incorporation of the convention provisions in municipal law. The text of the convention should be translated and disseminated, at least among the principal linguistic groups. Law enforcement officials should receive intensive training so that in the performance of their duties, they respect and protect human dignity, as well as uphold human rights of all persons without distinction as to race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin. While the Zambian Human Rights Commission is the main entity to support in the implementation of these recommendations, the commission has noted that inadequate funding had made it "extremely difficult" for it to execute its mandate.⁹⁵ In its 2018 report, the commission also noted that it continued to operate with only 41 per cent of the required staff component and that it had only established physical presence in six of the ten provinces of Zambia.⁹⁶

Zambia has ratified 48 ILO Conventions, 40 of which are in force including the eight fundamental conventions on forced labour and abolition of forced labour, freedom of association, right to organize and collective bargaining, equal remuneration, discrimination, minimum age and worst forms of child labour. The latest ratified conventions are those on occupational safety and health convention, and private employment agencies.

In the area of environment and climate change, Zambia has ratified the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change on 28 May 1993, the Kyoto protocol on 7 July 2006 and the Paris Agreement on climate change on 9 December 2016. Climate change is one of the major priorities of the government that is contained in Vision 2030

⁹⁵ Zambia Human Rights Commission, Annual report 2018 (2019) p. 46.

⁹⁶ Zambia Human Rights Commission, Annual report 2018 (2019) pp. 46-47.

CHAPTER 5.

and the NDPs, including the 7NDP, and the National Policy on Climate Change, which provides a framework for coordinated action to climate change issues. Several mitigation measures on GHG reduction as well as mitigation measures have been implemented both in rural and urban areas.

Zambia is committed to eight declarations related to HIV/AIDS, the latest being the Declaration made on 8 June 2021 to end inequalities and getting on track to end AIDS by 2030, which should be then taken into account in the National Development Plan, the Nations HIV and AIDS framework. Therefore, Zambia had embarked on a programme aimed at attaining universal health coverage and as part of this, is aiming at ending HIV/AIDS by the year 2030. The declarations to which Zambia is committed are systematically used to inform the National AIDS Strategic Framework.

Zambia is a State Party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol but has entered reservations regarding the right to employment (Article 17.2), education (Article 22.1), freedom of movement (Article 26) and travel documents (Article 28). Zambia is party to the 1954 Convention relating to the Status of Stateless People but not to the 1961 Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness. Zambia is a signatory to the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, also known as the Kampala Convention, which Zambia ratified on 6 December 2010. In Zambia, the leading causes of internal displacement typically include natural and human-induced disasters, land disputes, development projects, encroachment of populations on land meant for other activities, conflicts along national border areas and differences in social/religious affiliations. In 2013, the government developed the Guidelines for the Compensation and Resettlement of Internally Displaced Persons that provide a mechanism for responding to the needs of these. Among others, the guidelines identify rights and guarantees that are relevant to the protection of persons affected by internal displacement, including provisions for their protection and assistance during times of displacement, as well as during return, resettlement and/or reintegration.

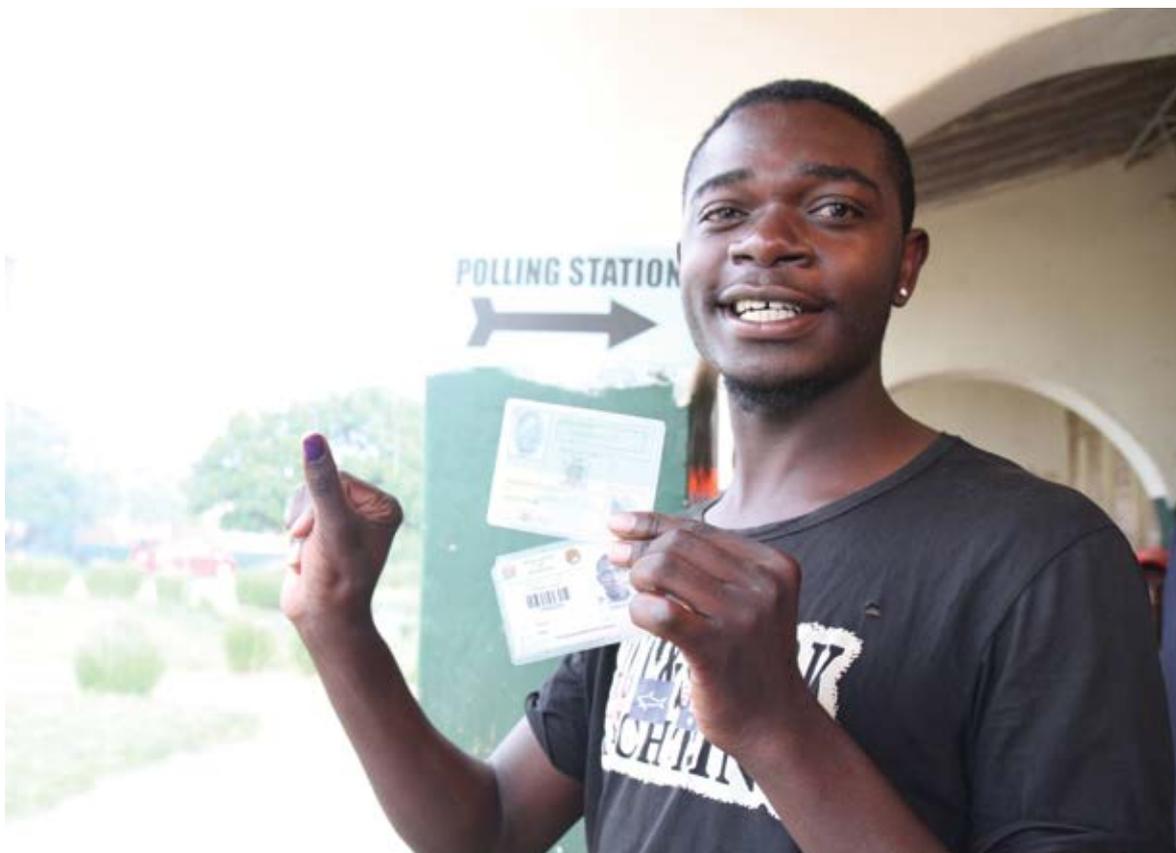
Zambia is party to the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) 2000 by accession. The UNTOC calls upon States Parties to criminalize trafficking in persons as well as laundering of the proceeds of crime and corruption. State Parties are obligated to adopt measures for the prosecution of offenders. Further, Zambia ratified the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children on 24 April 2005 supplementing the UNTOC. Zambia was one of the first countries in the SADC region to take steps to comprehensively address trafficking in persons through its Anti-Human Trafficking Act No. 11 of 2008, which is currently the primary legislation in as far as human trafficking is concerned. However, there have been calls to review the national definition of trafficking to align it to the Anti-Trafficking Protocol. Furthermore, there is a mismatch between successful trafficking in persons prosecutions compared to the reported cases. Accordingly, there is need for more capacity building for the justice delivery system.

In 2018, Zambia became a signatory to the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM)⁹⁷, the first ever intergovernmental agreement, prepared under the auspices of the United Nations, to cover all dimensions of international migration in a holistic and comprehensive manner. The GCM is grounded in international human rights law and reaffirms states' commitment to respecting, protecting, and fulfilling all human rights for all migrants. The GCM rests on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and each of the nine core international

⁹⁷ The GCM was adopted by most UN member states including Zambia, in December 2018 in Marrakech, Morocco and formally endorsed by the UN General Assembly a week later.

human rights law instruments. Zambia recognizes that migrants are entitled to the same universal human rights and fundamental freedoms, which must be respected, protected and fulfilled at all times. Therefore, the country supports humane and orderly migration and is committed to managing migration for the benefit of migrants as well as the countries of origin, transit and destination. In this regard, the national migration policy is currently being developed setting the strategic direction on migration management in Zambia. Further, the government developed and is operationalizing the Zambia Diaspora Policy to harness the development potential and participation of the Zambian diaspora in socio-economic development of the country. However, Zambia has not ratified the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Zambia is party to the Transnational Organized Crime Convention and its supplementary protocols on trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling.

Zambia ratified the United Nations Convention against Corruption on 7 December 2007. As a result, Zambia has legislative framework to fight corruption such as the Anti-Corruption Act No. 38 of 2010. Other relevant laws on fight against corruption also include the Penal Code Act, as well as the Prohibition and Prevention of Money Laundering Act No. 14 of 2001 and the Forfeiture of Proceeds of Crime Act No. 19 of 2010. The principal anti-corruption institution in Zambia is the Anti-Corruption Commission. Weak enforcement of legislation remains a major challenge. In some instances, legislation require some strengthening to effectively address issues such as liability of legal persons, confiscation (or forfeiture) of assets and establishing evidentiary rules, as well as procedures for the physical protection of witnesses





CHAPTER 6. Cross Border and Regional Dimensions

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6.1. Impact of Cross-Border Issues and Regional Dimensions on the 2030 Agenda and SDGs Implementation

Zambia is an active member of various regional bodies, which gives the country an opportunity to benefit from trade and collaboration in other sectors. In terms of linkages, Zambia hosts the headquarters of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and is also active in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC). It is a founder-member of both groups. Zambia has also affirmed its commitment to inter-regional trade with the East African Community (EAC) to form the COMESA-EAC-SADC-tripartite integrated trade market with a combined population of 600 million and a total Gross Domestic Product of \$1 trillion. Zambia has also ratified the protocol on Agreement of African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA) which entered into force on 30 May 2019.

Effective implementation of the AfCFTA will create a single market for goods and services, which also allows for the free movement of business and people—thus provides the opportunity to create the world’s largest free trade area with the potential to unite more than 1.2 billion people in a \$2.5 trillion economic bloc and usher in a new era of development. The AfCFTA is being viewed as a possible means to assist African countries to recover from the economic disruptions that have arisen from COVID-19.⁹⁸ These memberships are important for Vision 2030 in promoting export-led growth and economic diversification and socio-cultural exchanges.⁹⁹

Future trading for Zambia looks positive and participating within the regional trade markets should be a focus for the government. Enhancing bilateral and regional trade agreements is key in promoting trade, economic growth and sustainable development. Analysis shows that Zambia trade performed relatively well in the past year despite the negative impacts of COVID-19.

Figure 9. Cumulative Total Trade



(Source: ZamStats, International Trade Statistics, 2021 Note: Total Trade = Exports + Imports)

Despite COVID-19 restrictions and lockdowns, Zambia recorded a trade surplus of K6.3 billion in December 2020 compared to a surplus of K7.2 billion in November 2020. Exports mainly comprising domestically produced goods, decreased by 0.1 per cent to K16.3 billion in December 2020 from K16.4 billion in November 2020. This was

⁹⁸ Policy Monitoring and Research Centre 2021 Zambia National Budget Analysis (2020)

⁹⁹ https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Generic-Documents/Zambia_Country_Profile.pdf

CHAPTER 6.

mainly due to a 21.3 per cent, 9.2 per cent, and 8.1 per cent decrease in export earnings among capital goods, raw materials and consumer goods categories, respectively. Imports increased by 9.0 per cent to K10.1 billion in December 2020 from K9.3 billion in November 2020.

6.2. Access or Barriers to Markets including Cross Border Trading in the Context of COVID-19

In an unprecedented global health crisis like COVID-19, trade is essential to save lives and livelihoods. It will require deliberate policies by member countries to keep borders open and to allow essential goods to flow. To contain the spread of COVID-19, a number of countries, including Zambia have imposed temporary border closures and travel restrictions, which has had a significant impact on trade. COVID-19 has introduced further barriers to markets and caused cross border trading restrictions that have caused untold suffering to the poor and those left behind. Out of the 117 districts in the country, 13 were rated high risk for COVID-19. The major non-health impacts of the epidemic affecting cross border trading include:

- (a) Poor performance of the economy due to business closures, social distancing, restriction of travel and movements of goods, and diversion of resources from other sectors to health
- (b) Closure of schools, religious and social places due to social distancing and public anxiety
- (c) Transport and travel restrictions, both local and international
- (d) Xenophobia to foreign nationals
- (e) Mass migration of people from localities deemed to be high risk
- (f) Escalating civil misconduct, crime, sexual and GBV¹⁰⁰

To help alleviate the impact of cross-border mobility barriers, Zambia became an active member of the Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa, an initiative which started in 2000 to create a framework for regular migration dialogue among SADC Member States to enhance inter-state cooperation to improve migration governance. However, periodic government policy changes create uncertainty for foreign investors. Moreover, the development of Zambia's business environment is hindered by corruption and a weak institutional framework. Zambia's ranking on the Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index in 2020 was 117 of 180. Corruption is prevalent in all business operations, including company registration, obtaining a construction permit, setting up utilities and paying taxes. Public procurement remains prone to corruption. The practice of paying bribes by companies in the tendering process for government contracts is quite ubiquitous.

Cross-border and national water resources and or water bodies. Climate change is expected to impact the availability of water resources, including the increased frequency and intensity of floods and droughts, heightened water scarcity, intensified erosion and sedimentation, reduced glacier, permafrost and snow cover, poorer water quality and degraded ecosystems. With regards to cross-border cooperation and regional integration, it is estimated that over 70 per cent of the 250 million people living in the SADC region rely on groundwater as their primary source of water. In this regard, the SADC Secretariat is implementing groundwater management

¹⁰⁰ COVID-19 WHO Zambia Country Office Operational Plan (2020)

programmes through the SADC-Groundwater Management Institution. The Chirundu cross-border water supply project between Zambia and Zimbabwe is another ongoing project located at one of the most important strategic developmental nodes in the region. It will ensure provision of clean and sustainable drinking water and sanitation services to both countries. Also noteworthy, is the transboundary water infrastructure project between Tanzania and Zambia. The water project seeks to improve cross-border water supply and sanitation in the border towns of Nakonde (Zambia) and Tunduma (Tanzania).

The COVID-19 pandemic has elevated the imperative for the population to access safe and clean water to curb the spread of the disease and various communicable diseases that the country is susceptible to and need to prepare for to avert the adverse effects of future pandemics.

Access to regional public goods such as energy and transport systems. Freight and passenger transport services are a major intermediate input in production and in trade facilitation. This broadly covers road, rail and air transport. The sectors are broadly open to foreign suppliers of services. SNDP focuses on infrastructural development in terms of building and upgrading the road and rail network. However, transport costs in Zambia are high. They are said to be five times higher than those in industrial country markets (World Bank, 2008: 13) and account for about 60 per cent of the cost of goods (World Bank, 2008: 26). They add up to 40 per cent the cost of final product (ADB, OECD and UNDP, 2014: 253). They are among the highest transport costs in the region. This has nothing to do with being landlocked. For instance, it is estimated that the “cost of exporting a container from Zambia is 25 per cent higher than from Malawi, another landlocked country” (World Bank, 2008: 13). The high costs are due to the poorly regulated nature of the transport sector, despite the sector being open. This is especially the case with passenger transport in cities, which is of poor quality, totally unregulated, congested and expensive (Rom Transportation Engineering Ltd, 2013). This ultimately affects the cost of doing business.

Examples of improvements to transport infrastructure include the \$298 million Kazungula Bridge linking Zambia and Botswana once completed. The bridge will facilitate increased regional trade and reduce transit time for freight and passengers.¹⁰¹ With regards to rural roads, the Improved Rural Connectivity Project is being implemented and will cover 3,375 kilometres across the country over a period of five years. To date, 501 kilometres have been contracted out of which 82 kilometres have been rehabilitated. The upgrading of the country’s international airports is also underway, and near completion.

Zambia has abundant energy resources. The most important energy source is electricity stemming from its significant hydropower potential. Electricity is currently being generated by three major hydropower stations, namely Kariba Dam North Power Station, Kafue Gorge Power Station and Victoria Falls Power Station. The country has an estimated hydropower capacity of 6,000 MW. Only about 27 per cent (1,640 MW) of the total capacity has been installed (ZESCO), despite the fact that entry into the generation, transmission, distribution and supply of electricity has been liberalized and is free. However, ZESCO still dominates the sector, and there has been little private investment flowing into the sector to increase the country’s energy generating capacity. Furthermore, there has been an increased demand for electricity because of recent real growth. There has been a deficit in power, especially since 2007, leading to insecurity and an unreliable power supply, which has disrupted productive activities and adversely affected production, and tends to push up the cost of production. The lack of investment in generation and distribution is a major problem. The sector needs to be reorganized to promote investment.

¹⁰¹ <https://pmrczambia.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/Analysis-2021-Zambia-National-Budget.pdf>

CHAPTER 6.

6.3. Illicit Financial Flows and Irregular Trade

Zambia is the world's seventh-largest producer of copper, however over 60 per cent of the population lives in poverty. The practice of illicit financial flows, which lead to externalization of profits from the mining sector for instance, has contributed to this problem. Illicit Financial Flows stemming from crime, corruption and tax evasion are a challenge for Zambia and are a direct risk to the turnaround of the economy. Some studies concluded that illicit outflows correlate to higher poverty and inequality, and to lower human development.¹⁰² The mineral resources are being exploited with limited benefits for the ordinary Zambians; the men, women and children who live in villages and compounds continue to live in poverty. According to a report from the Zambian Financial Intelligence Centre, money laundering and suspicious transactions increased from 4.5 billion Zambian kwacha (\$382 million) in 2017 to 6.1 billion Zambian kwacha (\$520 million) in 2018 (US Department of State 2019). The Global Financial Integrity reported that \$8.8 billion left Zambia in illicit financial flows between 2001 and 2010. Over 42 per cent of people are living in extreme poverty amid this mineral wealth in Zambia. This situation cannot continue, and the Zambian government must act now. The recent African Union (AU) report launched in February 2014 indicates that Africa losses over USD\$ 50 billion every year due to these illicit financial flows.¹⁰³

Cross-border issues and impacts of insecurity and conflicts. Zambia's cross-border window around the country remains stable, apart from isolated incidences. This includes the first sign of cross-border tension between the DRC and Zambia since the meeting in October 2020 between the authorities of Tanganyika, DRC and Zambia to normalize the border situation.¹⁰⁴ As of January 2021, Zambia hosted 90,263 people of concern¹⁰⁵ – refugees, asylum seekers and former refugees – comprising 29,889 households in three settlements (Meheba 28,386, Mayukwayukwa 17,698, Mantapala 14,473), urban areas (Lusaka/Ndola 17,302) and the self-settled (government estimate of 12,404). Since 2020, the country has been receiving between 450 and 500 asylum seekers per month mainly from the DRC, Burundi and Somalia.¹⁰⁶ The increasing numbers are placing additional pressure on the limited basic services and compounding humanitarian and development needs, thus calling for systematic planning and resource allocation to meeting the needs of both the host communities and the people of concern. The 2019 Zambia Migration Profile was developed by the Technical Working Group on Migration Data, which was led by ZamStats and the Department of Immigration, and with technical support from the International Organization for Migration. The Migration Profile demonstrates that Zambia has complex and dynamic migration trends, as it is a country of origin, transit and destination for mixed migration flows mainly from the DRC and the East and Horn of Africa. The main nationalities (top 10) of immigrants include the DRC, Angola, Zimbabwe, India, Rwanda, the United Republic of Tanzania, South Africa, Somalia, the United Kingdom and Burundi.¹⁰⁷

In view of this, the government should pursue dialogues and agreements with other countries that promote well-managed labour mobility and skills exchange while taking a rights-based approach.

¹⁰² <https://gointegrity.org/?country=zambia>

¹⁰³ <https://www.danchurchaid.org/articles/illegal-financial-flows-by-the-mines-leading-to-poverty-in-zambia>

¹⁰⁴ <https://www.africanews.com/2020/05/18/tensions-as-drc-zambia-border-dispute-escalate-morning-call/>

¹⁰⁵ The refugee response is led and coordinated by the government to achieve its commitments toward the Global Compact on Refugees and the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework.

¹⁰⁶ <https://reliefweb.int/report/zambia/zambia-unhcr-operational-update-july-2020#:~:text=Zambia%20registered%20new%20refugees,expected%20to%20depart%20in%202020.>

¹⁰⁷ https://www.iom.int/sites/default/files/country/docs/zambia/zambia_migration_profile_2019.pdf

6.4. Opportunities and Challenges of Regional and Continental Cooperation Mechanisms on Zambian Economy

The Zambian services sector is fairly open, however, few sectors are committed at the WTO. Entry by foreign service providers is fairly liberal in most sectors. There are very few restrictions inhibiting trade in services. Zambia is part of AfCFTA¹⁰⁸, COMESA¹⁰⁹ and SADC. Closer to home, the SADC integration agenda and objectives reflect the first two regional bodies, including establishment of a free trade area by 2008, customs union by 2010, common market by 2015, monetary union by 2016 and a single currency by 2018.

The benefits of the cross-border payment system are its efficiency and the reduction in transaction costs. Whereas previously transactions would go through correspondent banks, all intra-regional transactions are now handled within the region. The elimination of intermediaries – often western correspondent banks – means money stays in the region and payments are processed faster. In the area of exchange controls, all Member States have liberalized the current account. Four Member States (Botswana, Mauritius, Seychelles and Zambia) have liberalized the capital account. However, Zambia has not fully exploited its membership of regional blocks.

Opportunities

There is more research supporting the role of regional agreements, such as the AfCFTA and the Tripartite, in promoting economic growth through trade and investments. These agreements are widely viewed as a crucial driver for economic growth, industrialization and sustainable development in Africa. Despite these potential benefits, there are fears of significant tariff revenue losses and an uneven distribution of costs and benefits as countries implement some of the measures leading to integration. Being in regional cooperation, Zambia will benefit largely through a number of areas.

Regional cooperation will assist Zambia to increase its production through economies of scale making the country more efficient. As the economies are opening due to regional trade agreements, production costs will be reduced, making larger companies with a competitive advantage. With the larger markets from COMESA, SADC and AfCFTA, Zambia will be able to diversify its products even more to meet the increasing demand from these markets. There are high expectations that the country will reduce its dependency on copper as it diversifies to other products. As Zambia trades through regional markets, local companies will continue to improve the quality of product to meet the high standards at regional and continental markets through competitiveness. The country also enjoys the duty-free inputs as a result of trade agreements within these blocks.

Regional cooperation is key in promoting industrialization. Through the COMESA Industrialization Joint Project, Zambia and Zimbabwe have signed a memorandum of understanding aimed at promoting self-sustained, balanced and inclusive economic growth between the two countries. This will further provide opportunities for the private sector to benefit from AfCFTA through enhanced competitiveness.

¹⁰⁸ AfCFTA is one of the 15-flagship projects identified by the African Union (AU) and adopted by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government that contribute towards the realization of the AU Agenda 2063. The AfCFTA brings together 55 AU Member States with a total population of about 1.3 Billion and a combined GDP of about \$ 3.4 Trillion.

¹⁰⁹ <https://www.comesa.int/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/AfCFTA-Stimulant-for-Intra-COMESA-Trade-24.2.21.pdf>

CHAPTER 6.

Under peace and security, Zambia will also benefit from being a member of regional bodies such as SADC through protocols and policies to achieve economic and political integration of SADC Member States. The pillar of promoting peace, security and good governance in SADC is being supported by Member States and SADC partners. Germany is leading in providing financial support to this pillar.

Zambia also benefits from regional cooperation through the Yellow Card regional third-party motor vehicle insurance scheme, which provides third-party legal liability cover and compensation for medical expenses resulting from road traffic accidents caused by visiting motorists. Besides offering third party liability protection to the insured or the driver while in a foreign country, the COMESA Yellow Card scheme also offers emergency medical cover to the driver and passengers of the foreign motor vehicle involved in the traffic accident.

Challenges

Despite numerous advantages of regional cooperation, many countries do not reap the full benefits of the integration agenda due to several challenges. While regional cooperation was supposed to promote intra-African trade, the continent's current trade intensity barely stands above 12 per cent. This is against Africa's own agenda to boost intra-regional trade from the current level to 25 per cent or more by 2022.

Zambia is a member of both COMESA and SADC and the two blocks implement similar projects. Numerous protocols from both SADC and COMESA have been signed, which are being implemented by its member countries including Zambia. The multiple memberships of Zambia to the regional economic communities pose a huge challenge particularly regarding financial contributions and implementation of multiple projects from COMESA and SADC. Zambia's human capacity is also stretched as it tries to implement several programmes from these regional bodies. Multiple memberships to regional economic communities not only create confusion, competition and duplication, but also constitute a burden on the taxpayer. The overlapping of mandates does put pressure on countries to meet their obligations and this could also send confusing signals to donors.

Many countries including Zambia fear loss of revenues if they implement some of the regional blocks' protocols. This has caused the slow pace of ratification of protocols on AfCFTA. Although some countries have now signed and ratified the protocols, the implementation of the AfCFTA is still not well established. Many countries fear a substantial cost in terms of lost revenue leading to delays and reluctant to pursue trade reform in their national development plans.





ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 7. Financial Landscape

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7.1. Financial Landscape for Sustainable Development

Financing requirements for implementation of Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development in Zambia is from a combination of financing sources. This includes domestic revenues, domestic and foreign borrowing, private sector engagement through mechanisms such as public-private partnerships), foreign direct investment (FDI) and support from cooperating partners through official development assistance (ODA). There have been shifts in the financing landscape with sources such as FDI and ODA posting negative trends. This could be attributed to the financing deficits at global levels driven by the global economic crisis and more recently, the COVID-19 pandemic. According to the World Investment Report (2021), FDI in-flows to developing countries have been declining and the prospects remain bleak as economies begin to recover from the effects of COVID-19. FDI in-flows in Zambia significantly reduced from \$548 million in 2019 to \$234 million in 2020. This reduction has the potential to roll back initial SDG investments and will have far reaching consequences for the country as it navigates through a COVID-19 exacerbated recession coupled with an unfavourable business environment and generally poor economic fundamentals. FDI remains dominated by large mining investments from Canada, Australia, United Kingdom, China and the United States, in addition to large infrastructure and other projects funded almost entirely by Chinese companies. Zambia's inadequate infrastructure, which is a barrier to investment, should be strengthened by investments in the road network, railways and the construction of power plants. Table 5 provides a summary of FDI for 2017-2020.

Table 5. Summary of Foreign Direct Investment for 2017-2020 for Zambia

| Foreign Direct Investment | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
|--|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| FDI Inward Flow (million \$) | 1,108 | 408 | 548 | 234 |
| FDI Stock (million \$) | 19,866 | 20,435 | 19,134 | 19,368 |
| Number of Greenfield Investments* | 15 | 15 | 20 | 12 |
| Value of Greenfield Investments (million \$) | 2,008 | 1,123 | 625 | 882 |

Note: * Greenfield Investments are a form of Foreign Direct Investment where a parent company starts a new venture in a foreign country by constructing new operational facilities from the ground up.

(Source: UNCTAD - Latest available data.)

The role of international financial Institutions in financing specific economic sectors has been significant. In 2021, the IMF has released \$1.3 million worth of special drawing rights and these have almost doubled the country's reserves. Further, the government is in negotiations with the IMF for an additional \$1.5 million bail out through the Expanded Credit Facility, which is expected to help support economic fundamentals. In addition to the IMF, the World Bank has also been provided significant support to the energy as well as extractive sectors.

At the domestic level, government revenue constitutes an important source of funding for sustainable development. However, the proportion of government revenue as a percentage of GDP has remained static wavering between 17 and 19 per cent between 2015 and 2020. In 2021, the domestic revenue target is estimated at 18 per cent of GDP compared with 22 per cent in 2020. This could be attributed to subdued economic activity and the low ability to mobilize resources through tax and non-tax revenues due to COVID-19.

CHAPTER 7.

To meet the immense financial needs, Zambia needs to explore additional partners beyond the international financial institutions. A Development Financing Assessment being conducted by UNDP will be instrumental in defining financing needs and additional partnerships needed for an expanded support.

7.2. Overview of the Financial Landscape for SDGs, including Domestic, Foreign, Public and Private Finance Resources

The SDG horizon in Zambia coincides with the aspirations of the country's national long-term Vision 2030, which is implemented through the medium-term frameworks. The 7NDP has mainstreamed the SDGs to a great extent. However, the 7NDP period (2017-2021) has been marked by worsening macroeconomic conditions characterized by high fiscal deficits, unstable exchange rate, declining commodity prices, and decreased production because of persistent droughts and power generation deficits. Zambia's fiscal deficit widened to 10.7 per cent of its GDP in 2020 from 9.3 per cent in 2019, reflecting increased debt service and capital expenditure overruns. The COVID-19 pandemic has worsened this situation, making it imperative for the government to aggressively explore financing development with sources beyond traditional means (domestic and public sources).

Considering these unfavourable macroeconomic conditions, Zambia is navigating a tight fiscal space for financing the SDGs. The main source of funding for the SDGs has been public and publicly guaranteed debt, which nearly quadrupled from 20.5 per cent of the GDP in 2011 to 78.1 per cent of the GDP in 2018, driven by accumulation of both external and domestic debt. The national debt composition also significantly shifted towards commercial and Non-Paris Club bilateral creditors, exacerbating the country's exposure to exchange rate and market risks. External debt increased to \$12.8 billion by end of 2020 from \$10.05 billion at the end of 2018. The stock of government guarantees on a net basis is stated at \$1 billion, and domestic arrears, excluding VAT refunds increased from K15.6 billion (\$1.2 billion) in December 2018 to K20.2 billion (\$1.57 billion) at the end of June 2019. This amounts to a considerable total debt position of \$12.8 billion – excluding VAT refunds.¹¹⁰

7.3. Analysis of the National Budget Allocations and Identify Potential Opportunities for Leveraging SDG Financing for the Country

There has been progress in aligning the SDGs to Zambia's national planning and budgeting processes. The enactment of the National Planning and Budgeting Policy in 2020, which was operationalized in 2021 allows for provisions for the integration of NDPs, SDGs, the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework and the National Budget in such a way that the processes improve responsiveness, transparency, accountability and results-orientation. It also provides for a more inclusive planning and budgeting system which increases the participation of all stakeholders at all levels, from the district, provincial, sectoral to the national levels.

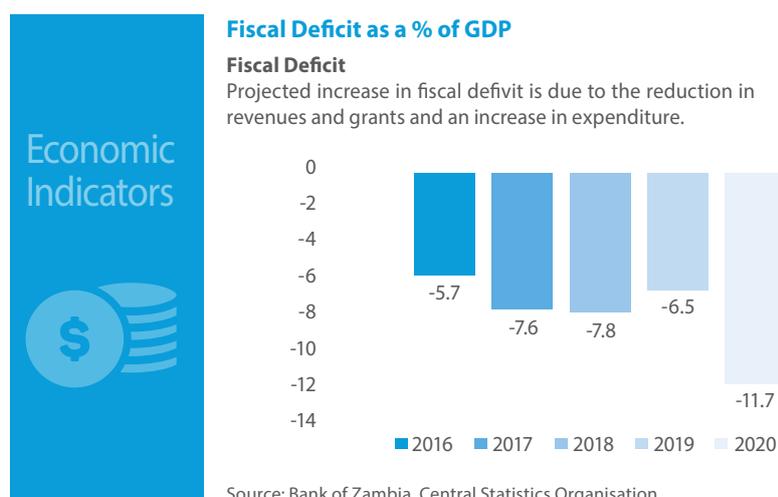
Despite progress in alignment, financing the SDGs is still a challenge as inadequate resources are allocated to key socio-economic sectors that would spur sustainable development. Funding the social sectors is critical to poverty reduction and reducing inequality and critical to ensuring no one is left behind. However, although the social sector budget has been increasing in nominal terms, it has actually been reducing as a share of the total

¹¹⁰ <https://www.pwc.com/zm/en/assets/pdf/zambia-budget-bulletin-2020.pdf>

budget. For instance, the social sector budget nominally increased by 10 per cent, from K27.7 billion in 2020 to K30.4 billion in 2021, largely due to a K2.2bn increase in the Social Protection budget. However, expressed in relation to the total budget, the Social Sector Budget declined from 26.1 per cent in 2020 to 25.4 per cent in 2021. The decline is a result of an ever-decreasing fiscal space caused by increased debt servicing. In the 2021 budget, debt servicing costs account for 70 per cent of domestic revenues. Shrinking fiscal space and declining allocation to the social sectors poses a risk to funding the SDGs aligned to this sector, which include education, nutrition, health and social protection. Expanding the fiscal space for social spending by use of progressive tax such as we income and wealth tax will be key given the low domestic resource mobilization caused by slow economic growth.

Both a weakening economy and the effects of the global pandemic have put significant strain on Zambia's fiscal budget. Figure 10 presents Zambia's increasing fiscal deficit from 2016 to 2020. With a worsening fiscal deficit, reigning in public spending and reducing the country's total debt stock has become a fiscal priority.

Figure 10. Zambia fiscal deficit 2016-2020



According to the Ministry of Finance public debt report,¹¹¹ a significant portion of public debt has gone towards financing government projects in energy and infrastructure. This ranges from developing additional energy producing capacity through hydropower to improving the road network. Zambia faces the challenge of attaining debt sustainability while ensuring key sectors outlined in Vision 2030 and the 7NDP, such as agriculture, health and energy, remain sufficiently funded. To attain debt sustainability, Zambia must stop accumulating new external debt, increase domestic revenues, curb runaway public spending, and create a stronger institutional public financial management framework. To avoid a severe liquidity crunch, the government has initiated a creditor engagement strategy aimed at securing immediate debt service relief with its external creditors.

¹¹¹ 2020 Public Debt Report: https://www.mof.gov.zm/?wpfb_dl=352

CHAPTER 7.

The debt burden and tight fiscal space have resulted in poor disbursements to financing the SDGs that include the social sector. For the 2021 budget, the government proposed an expenditure of K119.6 billion anchored on enhanced domestic revenue collection aimed at increasing government resources to undertake essential public services and development programmes as outlined in the 7NDP. Of the total budget of K119.6 billion, K46 billion, representing 38.5 per cent will go towards debt service. 80.0 per cent of the budget is to be financed by external and domestic debt (43.0 per cent) and local taxes (37.0 per cent).

There are emerging opportunities to finance the fiscal deficit as the government has approached the IMF for support. Discussions between the government and the IMF have reached advanced stages and if the financing materializes, it will provide the needed funding into the economy. Further, copper prices have been increasing and may have passthrough effects on the exchange rate and commodity prices.

The United Nations supported Joint Programme to develop and operationalize an integrated national financing framework in Zambia is a timely contribution as it seeks to improve development financing to ensure the SDGs are actualized at national and subnational levels. Key to the integrated national financing framework programme is to develop an SDG-aligned financing strategy to mobilize and effectively manage additional domestic and international resources, both public and private, seeking innovative financial solutions and broadening partnerships. Particular attention will need to be on addressing the social and economic effects of COVID-19, including addressing the recovery efforts.

7.4. Existing Mapping of Aid and Investment Flows

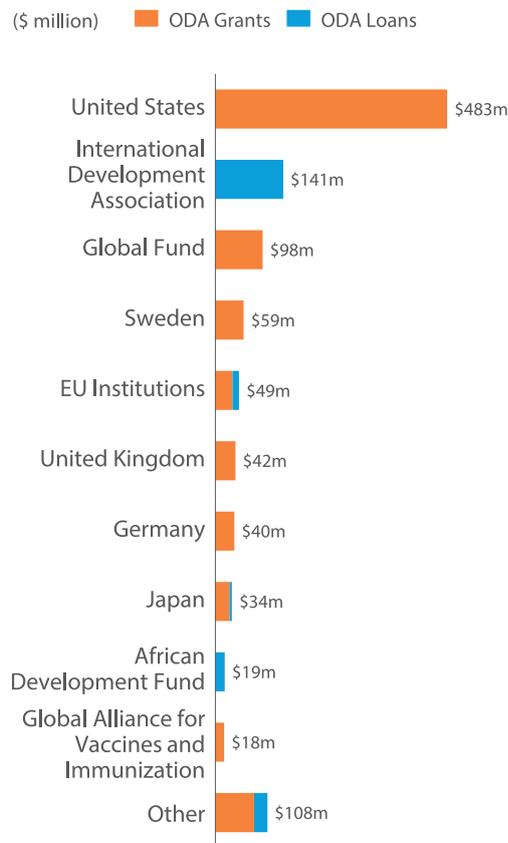
The government recognizes and values the role that aid and investment flows play in supporting the achievement of national development goals. The many improvements made in sectors such as education, health, agriculture, social protection and infrastructure benefitted from the support of cooperating partners. In the education and health sectors, for instance, the contribution of partners has been very crucial in achieving the significant progress that the country made towards meeting the targets set under the Millennium Development Goals. Cross-cutting issues such as gender, governance, climate change and HIV/AIDS, also benefitted from the support of cooperating partners.

ODA is an important source of financing for social development, capital expenditures as well as budgetary support to the government. While donors used budget support between 2007 and 2014, project support became the key modality thereafter. Between 2008 and 2010, the country received \$3.43 billion, which marginally declined to \$3.1 billion in the period 2011 to 2013. In the period 2014 to 2017, Zambia received \$2.79 billion (WDI database, 2018). In per capita terms, net ODA declined from \$3.7 billion in 2010 to \$64.8 billion in 2013 and to \$60.7 billion in 2016. The decline in external development assistance as a percentage of Gross National Income (GNI) can partially be explained by an increase in GDP growth rate and government expenditure.

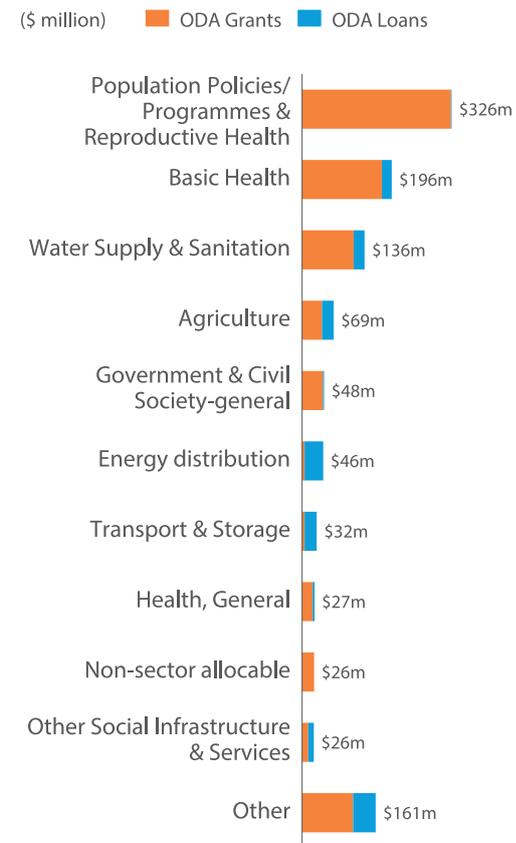
Figure 11. Zambia ODA by donor and sector

In 2018, Zambia received ~ \$1.1 bn in ODA, ~81% of which were grants; US largest donor (~44%); UN involved in 7.4% of ODA

ODA disbursements by donor

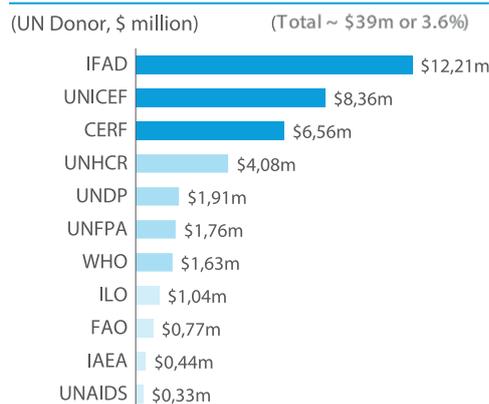


ODA disbursements by sector

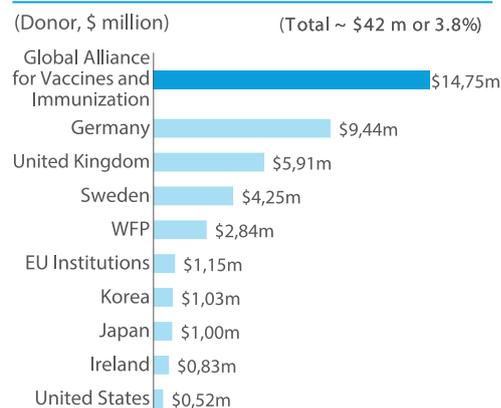


Source: OECD, 2018

ODA where UN is the donor



ODA where UN is the primary channel



CHAPTER 7.

As the pandemic continues affecting the country, a considerable amount of ODA is channelled towards health expenditure. While the economic impact of COVID is being felt already, the depth of the impact and the pace of the economic rebound depend on several factors, including the magnitude and duration of national shutdowns, the extent of reduced demand for goods and services, and the speed at which significant fiscal and monetary policy support takes effect. Several ODA budgets are directly linked to GNI levels, and thus there is expected to be a corresponding fall at the aggregate level as national incomes levels are affected including the tax base of funding Member States. With countries facing challenges of dealing with the COVID-19 crisis, both at home and abroad, existing and future ODA commitments could either be reduced in volume or redirected to humanitarian emergencies. However, progress towards stability and the SDGs could be compromised if ODA is diverted to the COVID-19 response.

There could be need for Zambia as a country to participate in the 2021/2022 Development Cooperation Forum Survey exercise (led by UNDESA in Q4-2021), which will help to assess the state of play in terms of effectiveness of development cooperation in Zambia.

Zambia's Foreign Direct Investment registered a growth equal to 3.2 per cent of the country's Nominal GDP in December 2019, compared with a growth equal to 1.5 per cent in the previous year. The data reached an all-time high of 8.5 per cent in December 2010 and a record low 1.5 per cent in December 2018. In the latest reports of Zambia, Current Account recorded a surplus of \$597.1 million in September 2020. FDI increased by \$189.5 million in September 2020. Zambia Direct Investment Abroad expanded by \$97.1 million in September 2020. Its Foreign Portfolio Investment increased by \$33.2 million in June 2020. The country's Nominal GDP was reported at \$17.1 billion in December 2019.¹¹²

Figure 12. Summary flow of FDI in Zambia from 2010 to 2018

Compound annual growth in Zambia over 8 years shows FDI declining at ~ -13%, personal remittances growing at ~ +13%; ODA increases to ~\$1.1 bn

Foreign direct investment, net inflows

(\$ million)



Source: IMF and UNCTAD

Personal remittances received

(\$ million)



Source: World Bank and IMF

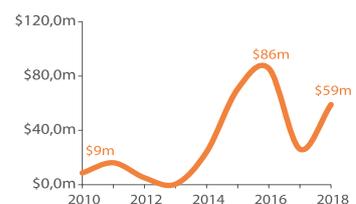
ODA grants and loans

(Gross, \$ million)



Other concessional loans

(Gross, \$ million)



Source: OECD

¹¹² <https://www.ceicdata.com/en/indicator/zambia/foreign-direct-investment--of-nominal-gdp>

To accelerate implementation of the SDGs, it will therefore be important for the country to further strengthen the existing coordination frameworks, enhance efficiency, improve targeting and allocate resources to deliver better results. This is on the premise of the lessons learned with the implementation of the 7NDP. Zambia will continue to rely on the partnership, support and cooperation of all partners at national and international level in the realization of this agenda in the face of the challenges and limitations that the country faces.¹¹³

Diaspora remittances are a source of foreign exchange that contributes to recipient countries' macroeconomic stability. At a micro level, remittances constitute a supplementary source of household income that allows basic necessities to be afforded. Because they stimulate consumption, remittances can have multiplier effects on local economies. The percentage contribution of inbound remittances to GDP growth was highest in 2017 at 0.7 per cent and lowest in 2014 at 0.4 per cent. While the impact of remittances on GDP is currently marginal, there is potential for growth over time. There is scope to increase the diaspora remittances through deliberate and conducive policy and regulatory measures.

Table 6. 2021 Budget allocation by function of government

| Function | 2021 Budget (in ZMW) | Share of budget |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| General Public Services | 57,819,227,707 | 48.3% |
| Defence | 5,642,820,724 | 4.7% |
| Public Order and Safety | 3,078,694,172 | 2.6% |
| Economic Affairs | 21,499,987,741 | 18.0% |
| Environmental Protection | 955,530,142 | 0.8% |
| Housing and Community Amenities | 2,221,524,168 | 1.9% |
| Health | 9,653,313,513 | 8.1% |
| Recreation, Culture and Religion | 151,357,265 | 0.1% |
| Education | 13,772,752,981 | 11.5% |
| Social Protection | 4,820,803,202 | 4.0% |
| TOTAL | 119,616,011,615 | 100.0% |

(Source: Zambia National Budget 2021)

¹¹³ Government of the Republic of Zambia 2020. Voluntary National Review of the SDGs.



ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 8. **Analysis of Risks**

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As good practice adopted across the UN and in order to optimize on existing analysis, the present risks analysis has been undertaken within the preparation of the Regional Monthly Review on Zambia that took place in September 2020 within which all UN agencies operating in Zambia have taken part. As the situation has evolved the last few months, the analysis has been updated accordingly. As per the review's guidance, the risks analysis has been conducted around thirteen risk areas, namely by alphabetical order, democratic space, displacement and migration, economic stability, environment and climate, food security – agriculture and land, gender equality, infrastructure and access to social services, internal security, justice and rule of law, political stability, public health, regional and global influences, and social cohesion – equality and non-discrimination.

The analysis has revealed that in Zambia, all risks areas are clearly interrelated. In summary, the risk analysis has revealed that economic stability, political stability, democratic space, environment and climate change, public health, gender equality, and regional and global influences constitute critical areas. All these main risks could potentially impact the areas of food security and agriculture, social cohesion, equality and non-discrimination justice and rule of law, displacement and migration, infrastructure and access to social services, and internal security. Ultimately, these risks threaten a reversal of developmental gains and could derail the country's sustainable development path towards the achievement of SDGs.

8.1. Seven Main Risk Areas and their Impact on the other Risk Areas

Economic stability

Zambia faces an uncertain macroeconomic outlook in the 2020 to 2024 period, with the government struggling to meet its increasing debt obligations while continuing to borrow money for infrastructure projects. The country has low foreign exchange reserves, unsustainably high public and external debt stocks and a wide fiscal deficit, partly explained by reduced revenue collections underpinned by slowdown in economic activity on account of the COVID-19 pandemic. In this regard, the mining, tourism and transport sectors have been worst affected by the restrictions on movement containment measures, causing deep job losses. The lack of economic diversification makes the country even more vulnerable as it is highly dependent on the copper mining industry. In fact, the mining and agricultural sectors constitute approximately one-fifth of Zambia's GDP annually and employ more than three-quarters of the working population.

The country continues to experience capital outflows from the local debt market, external debt arrears and falling investor confidence in the government's policy direction, which has resulted in unstable exchange rate of the Kwacha against the USD. These challenges in economic stability have resulted in volatile and rising inflation, affecting both consumers and producers, and adversely affecting the services sector.

There is a notable spiral effect on the cost of the food basket further perpetuating food insecurity in the country, and government's inability to sustain the Farmer Input Support Programme due to liquidity challenges is likely to affect agriculture production. The unsustainable government input subsidies through the Farmer Input Support Programme poses risks of cementing a maize monoculture or crowding out diversification and disincentivizing the private sector participation thereby further affecting agriculture production in the country.

In addition, affecting further the economic stability and due to the COVID-19 pandemic, most people living in the urban and peri-urban informal settlements have lost their livelihoods and main sources of income further

CHAPTER 8.

widening vulnerability and inequality. The resurgence of transboundary and migratory pests in Zambia is further eroding the weak livelihood options for the many farming households, especially those that are still reeling from the impact of the 2019/2020 loss of the production base and food and nutrition security.

Political stability and democratic space

Political stability and democracy are two risk areas very much inter-linked in Zambia, and could cause issues affecting social cohesion, equality and discrimination, justice and rule of law, and eventually, can affect displacement and migration as well as internal security.

The country held tripartite (Presidential, Parliamentary and local government) elections in August 2021 with a peaceful transition of power from the ruling Patriotic Front to the main opposition United Party for National Development Alliance. Zambia has been often referred to as a beacon of peace in the region and has held several elections resulting in peaceful transition of power. Despite this, the pre-election period was characterized by shrinking democratic space marred by violations of human rights and pockets of political violence and harassment of citizens. Alleged selective application of the Public Order Act and COVID-19 protocols around political campaigns fuelled political tension between the ruling and the opposition parties. This, coupled with the unexplained gas attacks on the population and alleged extrajudicial killings of some citizens by the police, caused tensions to remain high throughout the electoral period. The immediate post-electoral environment in some parts of the country was tainted by pockets of violence and harassment of political party opponents. However, following the peaceful transition of power and strong warnings from President Hichilema over none-tolerance against caderism, tensions began to lower. Voting patterns in the country suggest that deep-rooted political and ethnic polarization exists despite the inroads made by the current government in previous strongholds of the previous administration. The pre-election election period was further characterized by shrinking space for media organizations to operate independently and allow for divergent opinions, though the election process continue to be reported in various sections of print and electronic media. At present the new administration policy announcements suggest a stronger focus on rule of law and adherence to governance values and principles. This trajectory, if maintained, will redress some of the notable fissures in society such as the weakened social cohesion and polarization across regions which have worsened, partly due to the socioeconomic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The country has also noted potential violent extremism and Islamic insurgency activities at the border with Mozambique, which needs to be monitored closely.

Environment and climate change

The country has been experiencing unpredictable and more frequent adverse weather patterns due to climate change, which have been causing droughts and floods resulting in food insecurity, population displacement and massive infrastructure damage. Significant rainfall deficits continue to be experienced each year in Southern and Western provinces, which have sharply reduced national cereal crop production prospects in the two regions. The droughts have already caused power shortages and load shedding affecting the local economy, the provision of health and education services, and productivity. Also, high climate risk exposure is substantially impacting economic activities. In addition, climate-induced changes to physical and biological systems are already being felt and exerting considerable stress on the country's vulnerable sectors. It is worth mentioning that the rate of deforestation is estimated at 270,000 hectares annually.

It is evident that the country's sensitive sectors, namely agriculture, food security, wildlife, forestry, water and energy, health, infrastructure and social services have been adversely affected by climate change, thereby affecting the economic, social, and environmental dimensions of the national sustainable development.

Public health

Zambia is currently (as of July 2021) hit by the third wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. This third wave has been more lethal than previous waves, and the percentage of test positivity has been the highest compared to the two previous waves. The COVID-19 pandemic has also continued to impact access to social services. Beyond COVID-19, there are several infectious disease threats in Zambia, including measles, polio and cholera. National-level analyses from the Health Management Information System indicates a decline in health service utilization, particularly antenatal care, health facility deliveries, and uptake of family planning. This projects a potential increase in fertility, and maternal mortality and morbidity especially among adolescent girls, as a result of low utilization of routine services, including family planning and adolescent sexual and reproductive health services, for fear of contracting COVID-19 in health facilities. Additionally, the closure of schools as part of mitigation measures to reduce the further spread of COVID-19 has predisposed adolescent girls to pregnancy and child marriage, which could contribute to an increase in the country's already high fertility rates and maternal deaths. This situation may be exacerbated by the current fiscal challenges rendering the country unable to adequately cater for essential medicines and vaccines.

Gender equality

Development efforts in Zambia are in vain if women, who constitute half of the population, remains in a situation of vulnerability and are not empowered to develop their full potential. In Zambia, gender equality is still far from being a reality, as many cultural practices hinder gender equality. With regards to women economic empowerment, females are more economically dependent than males, thus, women and girls have limitations in their ability to act to either report or move away from violence especially where it is perpetrated by the person they are dependent on for their livelihood and essential personal needs. Within the COVID-19 context, GBV has been on the increase as women and girls are locked down with their perpetrators due to restricted movements, with limited access to GBV services. For this reason, continuity of essential services such as GBV and sexual and reproductive health services is limited, as attention and resources (human and financial) are now focused on prevention and treatment of COVID-19 patients. In addition, the pandemic has led to more exclusion and discrimination against marginalized groups more specifically women in the informal economy who lack social protection. Gender equality in Zambia is also interlinked with social cohesion, equality and discrimination.

Regional and global influences

In Zambia regional and global influences are a potential risk factor for displacement and migration, as well as internal security. On one hand, the border dispute between the DRC and Zambia may increase the number of asylum seekers and internally displaced Zambians. On the other hand, closed borders due to prevention against COVID-19 might worsen the reduced fiscal space and adverse macroeconomic conditions as well as fuel irregular migration smuggling and trafficking of persons and goods. Economic and social meltdown in neighbouring countries may have spill over effects on Zambia, more notably the reported shrinking of the South African economy by over 50 per cent will affect Zambia as most essential commodities are imported from South Africa.

CHAPTER 8.

8.2. SDGs Affected by the Risk Areas

Table 7 indicates the ranking of Zambia's key risks areas, with brief descriptions of each, and the SDGs primarily related to those risks.

Table 7. Zambia risk areas and related SDGs

| Risk area | Brief description | Primarily related SDG |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| 1. Economic stability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertain macroeconomic outlook in the 2020 to 2024 period, with the government struggling to meet debt obligations while continuing to borrow money for infrastructure projects • Low foreign reserves, widening fiscal deficit • COVID-19 measures have led to heightened food insecurity, pushing more people below the poverty line | SDG1, SDG2, SDG7, SDG8, SDG9, SDG10, SDG11, SDG17 |
| 2. Political stability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk of violence related to election • Political environment characterized by polarization of issues along regional and ethnic lines, divisions within the ruling party | SDG16, SDG7 |
| 3. Democratic space | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risks to civic space through curtailment of fundamental freedoms such as freedom of expression and opinion, freedom of movement and freedom of assembly and association – affected population includes political activists, civil society organizations, human rights defenders, media workers and journalists • Risk to freedom to peaceful assembly being curtailed particularly using the Public Order Act by making it increasingly difficult to assemble – this has been exacerbated by COVID-19 and the regulations being used to also stifle participation. • Risk to freedom of expression being curtailed using criminal defamation laws and with the recent enactment of the Cybersecurity and Cybercrime Law • COVID-19 measures have led to a clamp down on civic activism impacting peaceful assembly • Trust and legitimacy of the government is at stake, risk of shrinking democratic space in the name of public health | SDG16, SDG17 |
| 4. Environment and climate | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental degradation, frequent adverse weather patterns causing droughts and floods resulting in food insecurity and infrastructure damage, therefore affecting access to social services • Climate conditions affecting food security and population displacement | SDG13, SDG14, SDG15 |
| 5. Public health | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weak public health sector could quickly be overwhelmed as most attention is on COVID-19 pandemic | SDG3, SDG6, SDG10 |
| 6. Gender equality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural practices that hinder gender equality • Women are economically dependent than males • Gender-based violence • Impacts of the pandemic leading to more exclusion and discrimination against marginalized groups more specifically women in the informal economy who lack social protection | SDG3, SDG4, SDG5, SDG10, SDG16 |
| 7. Regional and global influences | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Border dispute between the DRC and Zambia • Violent extremism at the border with Mozambique • Economic and social meltdown in neighbouring countries | SDG16, SDG17 |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| 8. Social cohesion, equality and non-discrimination | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited opportunities for Zambians to access decent jobs lead to higher income inequalities and increasing poverty exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic • Young people face increasing barriers in entering the labour market, due to limited skills not matching labour force needs • Gender-based discrimination (access to land, socio-economic opportunities) • Discrimination against and lack of access to social and economic opportunities for people with disabilities • Xenophobic attacked against migrants | SDG16, SDG5, SDG10 |
| 9. Food security, agriculture and land | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prior to COVID-19, over 18 per cent of the population were already at risk of food insecurity, up to 35 per cent of children under five years old are stunted • COVID-19 caused high risk of food insecurity in urban and peri-urban areas, supply chain and trade disruptions • Almost two-thirds of the population earn their livelihood from agriculture, yet the sector only contributes around 10 per cent of GDP. Most farmers remain locked into low-productivity subsistence agriculture characterized by lack of access to key inputs, extension services, poor road and market infrastructure, lack of access to financial services and over-reliance on rain-fed agriculture | SDG1, SDG2, SDG12 |
| 10. Displacement and migration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Border dispute between the DRC and Zambia causing displacement • Risk of above average rainfall may result in flooding, displacements and damage to socio-economic assets • Travel restrictions due to COVID-19 may fuel irregular migration | SDG10, SDG16, SDG3 |
| 11. Justice and rule of law | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weak normative framework and gaps in implementation of human rights commitments. Growing concerns on judicial independence and integrity. Growing public perception of the judiciary as polarized and compromised institution with judges influenced by political biases • Impunity of government officials, particularly in cases of corruption • Impunity and increased instances of excessive use of force by law enforcement agencies against protesters and demonstrators | SDG16 |
| 12. Infrastructure and access to social services | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority of the population has no access to basic services, social security or protection and has limited income-earning opportunities • Lack of investment in public services such as education, housing, health, food and others. • Lack of adequate infrastructure and medical equipment to respond to COVID-19 • Risk of focus of resources to COVID-19 and reduced access to health services due to social distancing measures and stigma • Close of schools which could lead to increase in drop out of school | SDG3, SDG4, SDG5, SDG6, SDG9, SDG10, SDG11 |
| 13. Internal security | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political increase in crime because of difficult socio-economic situation aggravated by COVID-19 • Possibility of extremist armed groups infiltration from Mozambique | SDG16 |

(Source: UNCT Zambia risk analysis 2021)

While the UN has initiated preventive measure to mitigate Zambia's key risks, it is important to note that long-term and sustainable interventions are expected from the UN, in its role as a multilateral partner, to ensure that those risks do not hinder ongoing efforts to support Zambia to achieve the SDGs.



ZAMBIA

CHAPTER 9. Gaps and Challenges towards Achieving the 2030 Agenda

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9.1. Gaps under SDGs and Cross-Sectoral Linkages within the Broader Political, Economic, Social, and Environmental Context at Country and Regional Level

Given the confluence of persistent poverty, political polarization, high inflation, widening fiscal deficits, unsustainable debt levels, low international reserves, and tight liquidity conditions on one hand and COVID-19 pandemic on the other hand, the achievement the 2030 Agenda for Zambia will depend to a large measure on careful planning and good governance across all sectors and all ministries, departments and agencies. Currently, there are gaps, barriers and challenges in relation to both the policy environment and the national statistical system to integrate population dynamics into development planning.

COVID-19 prompted governments in the world to adopt policies to cope with the total disruption of lives across the world. In most circumstances, some organizations have accelerated advancement in the use of technology, strengthening of global access to supply chains and expansion of overseas markets (Business Survey report, June 2020). Such planning has not yet yielded fruit in Zambia. The private sector is currently lobbying for government support in the form of enabling policy adjustments, access to grants and low-cost loan facilities, flexible payment periods, reduction in importation tax on information and communication technology (ICT), equipment/online facilities as well as advocating for alternative payment methods to cash.

9.2. Challenges Preventing Economic Transformation & Sustainable, Pro-Poor Growth

The vision of Zambia's Trade Policy is to "make Zambia a net exporter of value-added goods and services through competitiveness at the domestic, regional and global level". To achieve this outcome, the government's focus is to improve macroeconomic indicators, inclusive of infrastructure, technology and research and development. Furthermore, the government plans to improve efficiency and costs of cross-border movements, as well as to increase the quality of locally manufactured goods to make them more competitive in the global export markets.

While Zambia has experienced credible economic growth, this has not translated into the creation of sufficient decent work opportunities in the formal sector. Despite adopting decent-work country programmes in recent years, the country is yet to make much improvement particularly in the informal sector as incomes tend to be low, inconsistent and unpredictable. Consequently, the national poverty levels remain high, with the rural communities being among the most vulnerable. The goal going forward is to ensure that future economic recovery and growth gains translate into gains for the rural and informal economy workers.

Overreliance of the Zambian economy on the mining sector (particularly copper exports) is particularly worrying in times of external shocks, as also pointed out by Ndulo, et al. (2009). The current COVID-19 pandemic has not only reduced export earnings but has also translated to job losses in the mining sector evidenced by the temporary closure of the Glencore copper mine in 2020.

Zambia is also concerned with the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on its agricultural value chains. The country's debt (estimated at 78 per cent of GDP), the limited coverage of social protection programmes, and the high share of people working in the informal sector, put additional constraints on the country's coping strategies (Siwale, 2020). The impact of COVID-19 on the informal sector poses a real threat to economic transformation and sustainable pro-poor growth. Small-scale cross border trade, which is a lifeline for a major proportion of those in the informal sector, has been severely disrupted. There is a need for the government to prioritize and make

CHAPTER 9.

deliberate measures to facilitate human mobility, access to finance, product aggregation, quality standardization and trade facilitation for small-scale cross-border traders.

Zambia does not have a deliberate labour export framework. Countries like Bangladesh and the Philippines benefit from diaspora remittances which constitute a significant proportion of their countries' GDP. A deliberate Zambia labour migration strategy will go a long way to address the unemployment challenge, as well as to present new opportunities to maximize the migration and development nexus.

The service sector accounts for over half of Zambia's GDP. The main economic activities within this sector are wholesale and retail, tourism, real estate and information/communication. A strong service sector is vital for rapid industrialization and formalization, as adequate service provisions and infrastructure are crucial for competitiveness. It is key to therefore prioritize those service sectors required for industrialization, such as manufacturing-related services. In the case of Zambia, road infrastructure and ICT are two main areas that require further development investments. This is particularly more so, considering the country's landlocked profile and prominent status as a conduit for inter-regional movement of goods. These prospective investments are also in line with the Vienna Programme of Action. With respect to ICT development, Zambia has the objective of becoming the regional ICT hub as per 7NDP.

Another set of challenges for Zambia are in the governance space. Growing restrictions on fundamental freedoms and shrinking democratic space, an increase in general frustration of the population over deteriorating economic conditions compounded by COVID-19, worsening climatic factors and food insecurity could trigger protests and civil unrest in the country and prevent economic transformation and sustainable, pro-poor growth for Zambia, especially for those left behind or at risk of being left behind. The government's lack of accountability for donor funds earmarked for the social cash transfer in 2018, has resulted in programme revisions that have undoubtedly reduced the acceleration of pro-poor growth initiatives.

Massive development projects, in this case, through foreign investments occurring against the backdrop of ethnic-based fissures can increase the propensity for identity-based violence in Zambia. This is especially so in the mining sector, and there are growing concerns marked by the creation of an elitist economy, worsening environmental degradation, manifest erosion of labour rights, and neglect of safety standards, which have led to calls by locals to stop the mistreatment of Zambian workers. These issues have been constantly flagged by many organizations including OHCHR, UNHCR, UNDP, ILO, Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, and International Crisis Group.

These stakeholders have urged the government to actively mitigate against the risk of political manipulation, ethnicity polarization, and exclusion on the basis of gender, disability or other social qualifiers. These inclusion outcomes are being strengthened through the national legal framework, as well as policy and program strategies that seek to promote a blanket participatory approach to all facets of social life, inclusive of the electoral process.

9.3. Obstacles Preventing Social Equity and Pose Risks that those Being Left Behind

Obstacles to social equity in Zambia emanate from various divides – including urban-rural imbalances in resource allocation, gender equality and women empowerment, failure to plan for demographic dividend, and poor

governance. These obstacles have caused over 60 per cent of the population to be left behind or at risk of being left behind.

Children: Children in Zambia are excluded from many development programmes, resulting in high poverty among children. The situation for children differs significantly depending on their area of residence. Children in rural areas are at a much higher risk of poverty than children living in urban areas. Poverty has affected children in social, economic and health dimensions. For instance, the prevalence of stunting was higher among children in rural areas (36 per cent) than among children in urban areas (32 per cent). Similarly, the level of underweight declined from 23 per cent in 2001/2002 to 12 per cent in 2018. The prevalence of underweight was higher among children in rural areas (12.4 per cent) than among children in urban areas (10.8 per cent). The government response intervention was the implementation of programmes such as Scaling up Nutrition, 1,000 most critical days of life, the Social Cash Transfer and the Food Security Pack.

Gender Equality and Women Empowerment: While Zambia's legal framework and constitution highlight gender equality, women and girls are still highly excluded in many spheres of life. Section 20 to 22 of the Zambian Constitution on Gender Equity and Equality Act covers sexuality rights, nationality as well as marriage and family. However, teenage pregnancy is still high at 29 per cent since 2014 and more prevalent in rural areas compared to urban areas. Few Zambian women occupy positions of leadership and authority. While there has been an increase by 4.9 per cent, from the 14 per cent in 2011, of the parliamentary positions held by women to 18.9 per cent in 2019, this is still low in comparison to the 50 per cent target set in the 7NDP.

There are glaring gaps in ensuring advances in promoting gender equality. For instance, the government is yet to set up the Gender Commission as prescribed by the Gender Equity and Equality Act No 22 of 2015. Further, there is still a need to advocate for the full operationalization of the Anti-GBV Act No. 1 of 2011 and ensure that government-run shelters and Anti-GBV funds for GBV survivors are available in all provinces. Additionally, the National Gender Policy of 2014 is being revised to ensure that new trends and issues are included. This will create a more comprehensive policy environment in as far as gender equity and equality and women empowerment are concerned.

Zambia has a dual legal system, namely Customary Law and Statutory Law. For instance Article 23(4) d-f of the constitution on marriage provides customary law to take precedence over statutory law on issues of succession, property sharing and marriage. Customary law tends to be observed more in resolving disputes or sharing of matrimonial property thus putting man at an advantage at the expense of the dictates of gender equity. Such inconsistencies discriminate against the feminine gender, yet equal rights are enshrined in the Zambian Constitution Act 2 of 2016. Gender disaggregated data is needed to articulate the disproportionate impacts of various risks on women and girls and mobilize resources, while collaborating with international financial institutions to ensure that women's economic empowerment remains a core pillar of relevant interventions. A comprehensive gender assessment is also needed, to develop a gender strategy.

The government must strengthen its commitment to the protection of human rights through the ratification and immediate implementation of major human rights treaties, in particular, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and the Optional Protocol to the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

CHAPTER 9.

In December 2018, Zambia established a National Mechanism for Reporting and Follow-up (NMRF) with its Secretariat within the Ministry of Justice. The Terms of Reference for the NMRF have not yet been approved by the Cabinet. Pending Cabinet approval, the NMRF has not yet been integrated within the legislative framework of the Zambia Ratification of International Agreements Act, No. 34 (2016). The Act provides a legislative framework for Zambia's international agreements and includes reporting to bodies monitoring treaty implementation. Article 11(1) of the Act stipulates that where an international agreement provides for the submission of State reports as part of the monitoring mechanisms, the ministry responsible for the subject matter of the international agreement shall prepare and submit the State report within the period specified in the international agreement. This stipulation cannot effectively address challenges in the preparation of State party reports to human rights mechanisms in Zambia because ministries that are required to prepare State party reports do not have the technical capacity to do so as required in Article 11(1). There is therefore the need to have an NMRF to serve as a coordinating structure that can drive preparation of reports and follow-up to their recommendations.

Relatedly, Zambia has issued a standing invitation to Special Procedures experts mandate holders and has hosted some, the most recent of which was the visit of the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food in 2017. Several other experts including the Independent Expert on Foreign Debt, the Special Rapporteur on Toxic Wastes and the Independent Expert on Albinism are awaiting the government's feedback on requests to visit the country. The government is encouraged to welcome these visits in line with its standing invitation and stated commitments to advancing realization of human rights for all.

To address the challenges that Zambia is facing in ensuring that no one is left behind, the following additional actions and interventions are recommended for the Government of Zambia to take:

- (a) In the context of the debt and balance of payments crises that government is addressing in the post-COVID period, ensuring commitment to minimum core obligations of ESCR particularly in the context of debt default and restructuring should be a priority.
- (b) Given the tight fiscal space, focus on the most vulnerable groups and large households with high dependency ratios and that rely mainly on vulnerable and informal sector workers.
- (c) Within the context of minimum core obligations, further target marginalized groups to ensure that inequality does not widen for this group. Specifically, the groups outlined in the previous sections of this report and the emphasis on targeting female headed households who bear a higher burden of poverty and incidence of HIV.
- (d) Honour its obligations under the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women by taking immediate action to implement principles that protect the livelihood of rural women and eliminate their vulnerability.
- (e) Take all appropriate measures to modify social and cultural patterns that reinforce discriminatory practices against groups that are being left behind, primarily women, children, older persons, persons with disabilities, persons living with HIV/AIDS, migrants, asylum seekers and refugees.
- (f) While recognizing the scarcity of resources and the importance of international cooperation, allocate adequate budgetary allocations to social protection programmes. Public spending on the provision of social services and social protection must be maintained and enhanced.

- (g) Ensure the full investigation of corruption cases, and those responsible are held accountable for their actions as a way of expanding fiscal space for social spending.
- (h) Ensure the inclusion of socio-economic rights in the Constitution.
- (i) Guarantee access to all levels of education and educational resources to all children, without discrimination.
- (j) Ensure coordination among institutions involved in enhancing human development.
- (k) Strengthen its commitment to the protection of human rights through the ratification and immediate implementation of major human rights treaties, in particular, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Optional Protocol to the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.
- (l) Prepare and adopt a human rights-based national framework law on the right to food, with effective benchmarks and implementation plans for each region, which should include a financial structure that contains the necessary budgetary and taxation measures for support smallholder farmers, as well as gender sensitive budgeting; protect long-term sustainability for agricultural production; establish authorities and agencies responsible for implementation; and provide for proper supervision and accountability mechanisms to promote the full and active participation of all interested parties, including those most vulnerable.
- (m) Ensure availability of an effective, affordable and trusted vaccine – as the centre of economic policy – to ensure a quick turnaround depending on how persistent the COVID-19 pandemic remains.

Gender equity/equality and women empowerment remain some of the most important enablers of national development. Thus, gender mainstreaming is important at national and sub-national levels. The National Gender Policy of 2014, which is currently being revised, will augment the national policy framework with regards to gender equality and women empowerment. The aspirations of men and women, boys and girls, as well as the empowerment of those left furthest behind, mostly women and girls, is a key component of the CCA and will be a critical aspect of the partnership framework.

9.4. Institutional Transformation in Policy Frameworks, Coordination, and Implementation Capacities

The government identified weaknesses in the planning and budgeting processes, which were likely to impede the success of the country's national development plans (NDPs). These included weak linkages between budgeting and development planning procedures, and ambiguous and variable processes used for preparing medium-term expenditure frameworks, budgets and NDPs. The lack of a legal framework linking budgeting and planning compounded the problem. To address this challenge, in October 2020 the country assented to the Planning and Budgeting Bill. The recently enacted National Planning and Budgeting Act No. 1 of 2020 is expected to strengthen accountability, oversight and participation mechanisms in the national planning and budgeting process. In addition, the legislation will strengthen the coordination of NDPs and SDGs within the national planning framework as well as promote participatory and decentralised national planning and budgeting processes involving state and non-state actors.

CHAPTER 9.



There is a need to improve data availability to report on SDG indicators and articulate related gaps, with regards to disaggregation by incomes, gender, geography and age. Limited integration of population dynamics into development planning and data inadequacies have hampered the country's ability to effectively plan, monitor and evaluate development programmes, including the SDGs. The government undertook an assessment to determine and identify the availability and reliability of data for SDG indicators, and review the data needs, methodology and consistency of indicators through production of the SDGs Indicator Baseline Report. The exercise found that only one-third (34 per cent) of the indicators had the required data, 51 per cent of the indicators had no data, and 15 per cent of the indicators had no metadata. The following are among the challenges identified in the assessment about the statistical capacity of the country:

- (a) Lack of data management mechanisms/systems
- (b) Lack of SDGs data sharing mechanisms
- (c) Lack of coordination/collaboration within and between institutions
- (d) Weaknesses in the sector information management systems
- (e) Limited disaggregation of data

There is also a lack of alignment of monitoring and evaluation needs to the availability of data.

9.5. Challenges in Setting up a Greenfield Business and Doing Business in Zambia

The ease of setting up and doing business in Zambia was compared using the World Bank (2020) assessment of indicators against 190 economies (see Table 8). Zambia ranked poorly across most of the indicators which may present a challenge in attracting FDI and other investments in the country which could otherwise contribute to middle income economy by 2030.

Table 8. Ranking of selected indicators

| Indicator | Ranking |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Starting a business | 117/190 – Owing to difficulties in procedures, cost time, and paid-in minimum capital to start a limited liability company. |
| Construction permits | 67/190 – When assessed on procedures and formalities that are required to, for example, build a shop and warehouses. |
| Getting electricity | 129/190 – The process appears very difficult in Zambia, areas to improve are transparency of the process, reliability of electricity, time, and costs to get connected. |
| Property registering | 149/190 – Areas that need improvement are time, procedures, and cost associated with transfer of a property and the quality of the land administration system. |
| Cross border trade | 155/190 – Trading across borders is a difficult and challenging process for Zambian firms. This makes it difficult for the country to obtain forex from outside trading. |
| Enforcing contracts | 130/190 – Conducting business based on agreed contracts is difficult. It is easier for contracting parties to have a party default and get away with it. A lot of time and money are spent to resolve commercial disputes, which is deemed too high by the parties. The quality of the judicial processes is sometimes questioned by aggrieved parties. |
| Flexibility in employing workers | 85/190 – There is little flexibility in employment regulations and a high risk of paying redundancy costs. The ranking indicates that it is not very easy to do business in Zambia. Improving job creation and the achievement of a middle-income economy by 2030 are critical for business in Zambia. |
| protecting minority investors | 72/190 – The rights of minority shareholder need to be better protected to attract investments from minority persons. |

Annexes

ANNEX 1: Examples of National Policies, Frameworks and Legislation Promoting Non-Discrimination of Women on the Basis of Sex

- (a) The 7NDP (Vol.1) and the Implementation Plan (Vol.2) has a pillar on reducing developmental inequalities including but not limited to gender inequality. The 7NDP also gives strategic targets on women's economic empowerment and other interventions that contribute towards gender equality.
- (b) Gender Equity and Equality Act No. 22 of 2015 provides for penalties of the sexual harassment offence and prohibits gender discrimination across all sectors. It also provides for equal opportunities for men and women in terms of access to economic opportunities.
- (c) The Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act No. 1 of 2011 provides for the protection of GBV survivors, the constitution of the Anti-GBV Committee and the establishment of the Anti-GBV Fund; the establishment of shelters and litigation by way of civil procedure in addition to the already existing criminal procedure.
- (d) The Education Act No. 23 of 2011 provides for GBV protection of learners and teachers including prohibition of marriage of learners. The age of a child is defined as someone who is below 16.
- (e) The Penal Code (Amendment) Act No. 15 of 2005 introduced the offence of sexual harassment and made indecent assault a felony. The amendment also created stiffer penalties for other sexual offences such as rape, attempted rape, incest and defilement to a period of not less than 15 years upon conviction. Currently, the Penal Code is being reviewed to align it with the Anti-GBV Act.
- (f) The Anti-Human Trafficking Act No. 11 of 2008 prohibits trafficking of persons of either sex. It provides for medical care, psychological and legal assistance as well as family-tracing and skills building/recreation for survivors – as well as shelters, safety, security and legal status.
- (g) The National Long-Term Vision, 2030 recognizes GBV as a critical area of concern in the provision of domestic security, particularly in cases related to violation of girls' rights and its contribution to the spread of HIV.
- (h) The National Gender Policy of 2014 (currently under revision) provides policy direction and strategies for the development sectors to ensure gender-responsive programming. The policy's vision is "to achieve full participation of both women and men in the development process at all levels in order to ensure sustainable development and attainment of equality and equity between the sexes".
- (i) The National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework 2017 – 2021 recognizes gender inequalities including GBV as one of the factors fuelling HIV transmission in the country and aims to reduce the impact of such violence on HIV transmission by promoting lifesaving access to post-exposure prophylaxis as a key intervention in halting transmission of HIV between the perpetrator and victim of sexual violence.

ANNEX 2: Status of SDG Indicators Reported by Goal, Zambia 2020

This status has been estimated based on the 2020 Ministry of National Development Planning Report on Voluntary National Review of SDGs.

| SDG | Description | Number of indicators | Reporting | |
|-------|--|----------------------|-----------|-----|
| | | | % | No. |
| 1 | End poverty in all its forms everywhere | 14 | 42.8 | 6 |
| 2 | End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture | 13 | 23.1 | 3 |
| 3 | Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages | 27 | 55.6 | 15 |
| 4 | Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all | 11 | 36.4 | 4 |
| 5 | Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls | 13 | 61.5 | 8 |
| 6 | Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all | 10 | 70.0 | 7 |
| 7 | Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all | 6 | 28.6 | 2 |
| 8 | Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all | 18 | 55.6 | 10 |
| 9 | Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation | 12 | 50.0 | 6 |
| 10 | Reduce inequality within and among countries | 11 | 27.3 | 3 |
| 11 | Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable | 15 | 6.7 | 1 |
| 12 | Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns | 13 | 7.7 | 1 |
| 13 | Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts | 8 | 0.0 | 0 |
| 14 | Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| 15 | Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss | 14 | 21.4 | 3 |
| 16 | Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels | 23 | 30.4 | 7 |
| 17 | Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development | 25 | 32.0 | 8 |
| Total | | 233 | 36.1 | 84 |

Annexes

ANNEX 3: Selected List of Conventions, Commitments and Treaties Ratified by Zambia or to which Zambia Committed

UN, African and Regional Human Rights Mechanisms

| Core human rights treaties | Date of ratification / accession | Reporting status |
|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination | 4 February 1972 | Report submitted on 14 February 2018 |
| African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights | 10 January 1984 | Periodic report overdue |
| International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights | 10 April 1984 | Report submitted on 6 January 2020 |
| International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights | 10 April 1984 | Report overdue on 30 June 2010 |
| Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women | 21 June 1985 | Report overdue on 1 July 2015 |
| Convention on the Rights of the Child | 6 December 1991 | The combined fifth to seventh Period Report to CRC submitted on 21 June 2021 |
| Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment | 7 October 1998 | Report overdue on 30 June 2016. Initially due in 2012 |
| Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa | 3 May 2006 | Periodic report overdue |
| African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child | 2 December 2008 | Periodic report submitted in 2018 |
| Africa Youth Charter | 16 September 2009 | |
| Conventions on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities | 1 February 2010 | Report submitted on 19 September 2017 |
| International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance | 4 April 2011 | Report overdue on 4 May 2013 |

Other UN conventions

| Treaty description | Date of ratification / accession |
|---|----------------------------------|
| Convention against Discrimination in Education, 1960 | December 1962 |
| Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961, as amended by the 1972 Protocol | 12 August 1965 |
| Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage | 4 June 1984 |
| United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change | 28 May 1993 |
| Convention Against the Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988 | 28 May 1993 |
| Convention on Technical and Vocational Education | 26 April 1995 |
| United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, supplemented by Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air | 24 April 2005 |
| Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime | 24 April 2005 |
| Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, Paris, 17 October 2003 | 10 May 2006 |
| Kyoto Protocol | 7 July 2006 |
| United Nations Convention Against Corruption | 7 December 2007 |
| The Hague Convention of 25 October 1980 on the Civil Aspects of International Child Abduction (HCCH 1980 Child Abduction Convention) | 26 August 2014 |
| The Hague Convention of 29 May 1993 on Protection of Children and Co-operation in Respect of Intercountry Adoption (HCCH 1993 Adoption Convention) | 11 June 2015 |
| Istanbul Declaration on Human Settlements and the Common African Position for New Urban Agenda | October 2016 |
| Paris Agreement (on climate change) | 9 December 2016 |
| Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration | 2018 |
| Global Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications Concerning Higher Education | November 2019 |

International and regional Commitments

| Agreement / framework | Date of ratification / accession |
|--|---|
| International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) commitments; and Addis Ababa Declaration on Population and Development beyond 2014 (AADPD) | 1994 (ICPD); 2014 (AADPD) and 2019 (recommitment to ICPD) |
| SADC Protocol on Trade signed on 24 August 1996 | 3 February 2001 |
| SADC Protocol on Fisheries signed on 14 August 2001 | 8 July 2003 |
| Ministerial commitment on comprehensive sexuality education and youth friendly services for young people in Eastern and Southern Africa | 12 December 2013 |
| SADC Protocol on Trade in Services signed on August 19 2012 | 15 December 2020 |
| EAC-COMESA-SADC Tripartite Free Trade Area | 15 January 2021 |
| African Continental Free Trade Area agreement | 5 February 2021 |

Annexes

ILO Fundamental Conventions¹¹⁴

| Conventions | Ratification date | Status |
|---|-------------------|--|
| C029 - Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) | 2 December 1964 | In force |
| C105 - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105) | 22 February 1965 | In force |
| C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) | 20 June 1972 | In force |
| C111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111) | 23 October 1979 | In force |
| C138 - Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) | 9 February 1976 | In force (minimum age specified: 15 years) |
| C087 - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) | 2 September 1996 | In force |
| C098 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98) | 2 September 1996 | In force |
| C182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182) | 10 December 2001 | In force |

Zambia's Commitments on HIV and AIDS

| Treaty or Commitment Description | Date of commitment |
|---|--------------------|
| Abidjan Declaration by African Mayors and Municipal Leaders on STDs/AIDS | 9 December 1997 |
| UN General Assembly (UNGA) Political Declaration: Intensifying our Efforts to Eliminate HIV/AIDS | 27 June 2001 |
| Maseru Declaration on the fight against HIV/AIDS in the SADC Region | 4 July 2003 |
| UNGA Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS | 2 June 2006 |
| UNGA Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS: On the Fast Track to Accelerating the Fight against HIV and to Ending the AIDS Epidemic by 2030 | 8 June 2016 |
| UNGA Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS: Ending Inequalities and Getting on Track to End AIDS by 2030 | 8 June 2021 |

¹¹⁴ The remaining list of ILO conventions ratified and in force in Zambia can be found at https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11200:0::NO::P11200_COUNTRY_ID:103264

ANNEX 4: Recommendations to Zambia from Human Rights Mechanisms

Zambia is due to undergo its Universal Periodic Review in 2023.¹¹⁵ In the 2017 review process, the country received 204 recommendations. Of these, it accepted 184 and noted 90. Two relating to the Bill of Rights are pending.¹¹⁶ All information on Zambia's participation in the Universal Period Review can be found at <https://www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/upr/pages/zmindex.aspx>.

The recommendations to Zambia pertain to the following:

- (a) Acceptance of international norms
- (b) Constitutional and legislative framework
- (c) National Mechanisms for Reporting and Follow-up
- (d) Follow-up to Treaty Bodies and Universal Period Review recommendations and cooperation with the Special Procedures
- (e) Institutions and policies
- (f) National Human Rights Institution
- (g) National Action Plans for human rights
- (h) Inter-State cooperation and development assistance
- (i) Good governance
- (j) Human rights education and professional training in human rights
- (k) Budget and resources for human rights implementation
- (l) Equality and non-discrimination
- (m) Business and human rights
- (n) Human rights and the environment
- (o) Prohibition of slavery and trafficking
- (p) Freedom of opinion and expression and of peaceful assembly and association
- (q) Administration of justice and fair trial
- (r) Right to life, death penalty, conditions of detention
- (s) Rights related to name, identity and nationality
- (t) Right to participate in public affairs and to vote
- (u) Economic, social and cultural rights implementation;
- (v) Right to social security
- (w) Right to work
- (x) Right to health
- (y) Right to education
- (z) Discrimination and violence against women and their empowerment
- (aa) Participation of women in public and political life
- (bb) Children (definition, general principles, and protection, including against exploitation
- (cc) Juvenile justice
- (dd) Persons with disabilities
- (ee) Minorities
- (ff) Human rights defenders
- (gg) Refugees and asylum seekers

¹¹⁵ <https://www.upr-info.org/en/review/Zambia>

¹¹⁶ https://www.upr-info.org/sites/default/files/document/zambia/session_28_-_november_2017/responses_to_recommendations_upr28_zambia.pdf

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