Report on Economic and Social Conditions in Southern Africa, 2000/2001

United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa

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Or contact
The Director
Sub-Regional Development Centre for Southern Africa (SRDC-SA)
P.O.Box 30647
Lusaka, Zambia
Tel: +260-1-231062/228503
Fax: +260-1-236949
E-mail: srdcsa.uneca@un.org

Foreward

As in the past, the Report on Economic and Social Conditions in Southern Africa 2000/2001 reviews the economic performance of the 11 Southern African countries served by the Subregional Development Centre[1] (SRDC-SA) during 2000 and considers the prospects for the short and medium term.

The statistical information on which the Report is based includes data collected by national statistical offices and submitted to ECA and statistics provided by other UN specialized agencies as of December 2000. The section on macroeconomic performance relies to a large extent on data from major international economic publications. Whenever possible, the most up-to-date national sources have been used, provided that data quality and comparability with other national and international statistical collections were sufficient. In addition to a wide range of academic literature, the public debate underway in many countries has also been used in the analysis presented in the Report.

The preparation of this report, like the previous ones, has required mobilization of resources and cooperation on the part of Southern African member States, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), particularly the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Secretariat. Valuable assistance and collaboration were also received from both private sector and civil society organizations, and this is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

It is my expectation that the data and information herein will prove valuable to decision makers, planners, academics and researchers.

Robert M. Okello

Director

[1]Countries include Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Contents

Executive Summary

For most Southern African countries, the year 2000 was a period of continued economic growth. However, negative growth rate recorded in Zimbabwe, which is estimated at 6 per cent, greatly affected the average gross domestic product (GDP) of the subregion. For the 11 countries served by the Centre, aggregate GDP grew by 3.3 per cent in 2000, as compared to 3.4 per cent in 1999.

The generally improved performance in 2000 was mainly due to progressive implementation of macroeconomic policies in the subregion, strong business investment, particularly in transport and telecommunications, as well as favourable weather conditions. GDP rose at a sharply higher pace than in 1999 in some countries, including Angola, Mauritius, South Africa and Zambia. In other countries, GDP growth rate was either maintained or increased only marginally compared to 1999. Only one country, Zimbabwe, recorded a negative growth rate.

Most countries that managed to achieve higher growth rates in 2000 also registered an increase in foreign direct investment (FDI), which injected additional resources to the national economy. Investors in the subregion have been encouraged because of the deepening of structural reforms and subsequent improvement in macroeconomic environment in most of the countries. This has coupled with improvements in governance and democracy as well as with the effective implementation of economic co-operation and integration agreements. The negative growth rate recorded in Zimbabwe was due to discontinued FDI inflows arising from political uncertainty after the occupation of farms in April 2000.

Inflation rates remained in the double digits in some countries, with the average rate higher in 2000 than in 1999. The most prominent cases were registered in Angola and Zimbabwe. In Angola, for example, inflation was estimated to have reached 239.3 per cent in 2000, while in Zimbabwe, inflation reached levels estimated at 59.6 per cent in 2000. High inflation rates in these two countries are the consequence of continued civil war and civil unrest. On the other hand, annual inflation decreased significantly in two countries, Malawi and Mauritius. In the former, average inflation was estimated to have dropped from 44.8 per cent in 1999 to 28.4 per cent in 2000, while the corresponding figure for the latter is 6.9 and 4.6 per cent, respectively.

HIV/AIDS remained a major crosscutting concern for Southern African countries. Figures for 1999 indicate that 12 million people were living with HIV/AIDS in 11 countries of Southern Africa, with the cumulative number of deaths from AIDS being estimated at 973,700 for the same period.

The overall cereal crop in Southern Africa in 2000 was normal, notwithstanding the damage caused by floods and cyclones in some parts of the subregion. Cereal production, mainly maize, was above normal. However, continued food assistance was required in some areas affected by floods and cyclones, mainly in Mozambique and to some extent, parts of South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe. In Angola, the food situation of some 2.6 million internally displaced persons was precarious.

Member States continued to make efforts towards the provision of social services such as education, health and sanitation. However, the actual provision and accessibility of such services, including employment opportunities continued to differ across countries.

Infrastructure, particularly transport and communications continued to improve. Good progress was made in a number of areas including air transport infrastructure and serviceability. However, further development is required to cope with the current rapid growth of air traffic in the globalized economy. Institutional reforms were well underway in the sub-sector, and a regional, integrated air traffic safety system was developed. The telecommunications sub-sector, also improved considerably, with more private companies providing telephone facilities in most countries.

Although no new armed conflict emerged in the subregion, the impact of continuing war in Angola contributed to poor diversification of economic activities away from oil. This subsequently had a paralysis effect on economic and social activities throughout the country. In addition, the civil war in the Democratic Republic of Congo continued to impose massive costs and increased poverty in neighbouring countries, particularly in Angola, Namibia and Zambia.

Macroeconomic policy management continued to vary from country to country. Nevertheless, the overriding objective of national policies did not diverge in content from that of deepening structural transformation of the economy and implementing economic co-operation and integration agreements in the respective countries. Thus, the need for economic cooperation and integration was appreciated by all member countries as a fundamental requirement that underpins future investment and growth, to attain a large, economically viable and unified Southern African subregion.

Prospects for 2001 are rather uncertain due to the uncertainty usually associated with the vicissitudes of the external economic environment and weather conditions. However, there are modest grounds for expecting continued improvements in the economic performance of the subregion. Average GDP growth rate is expected to be between 3.5 and 5 per cent in 2001.

This optimism is based on the assumption that member States will continue to implement economic reform programmes and to deepen market-based, private sector-driven policies. In addition, the effect of the Common Market of Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) Free Trade Area, the entry into effect of the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Trade Protocol, as well as the commitments by the member States to pursue and effectively implement far-reaching economic co-operation and integration policies, are some factors that will greatly help to boost investor confidence in the subregion. The expected increase in investment, both foreign and domestic should, in turn, translate into higher levels of economic growth.

1. AFRICA AND THE WORLD ECONOMY

World economy

The world economy continued to improve in 2000. Global output exceeded the earlier forecast of 3.5 per cent and grew by 4 per cent, the strongest ever achieved in more than two decades. This improvement was not only impressive, but also widespread in all major regions of the world. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN-DESA)[2], only four countries namely, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Moldova and Zimbabwe, experienced a fall in gross domestic product (GDP) in 2000. Figure I summarizes world output growth rates by main economic groupings, 1998-2000.

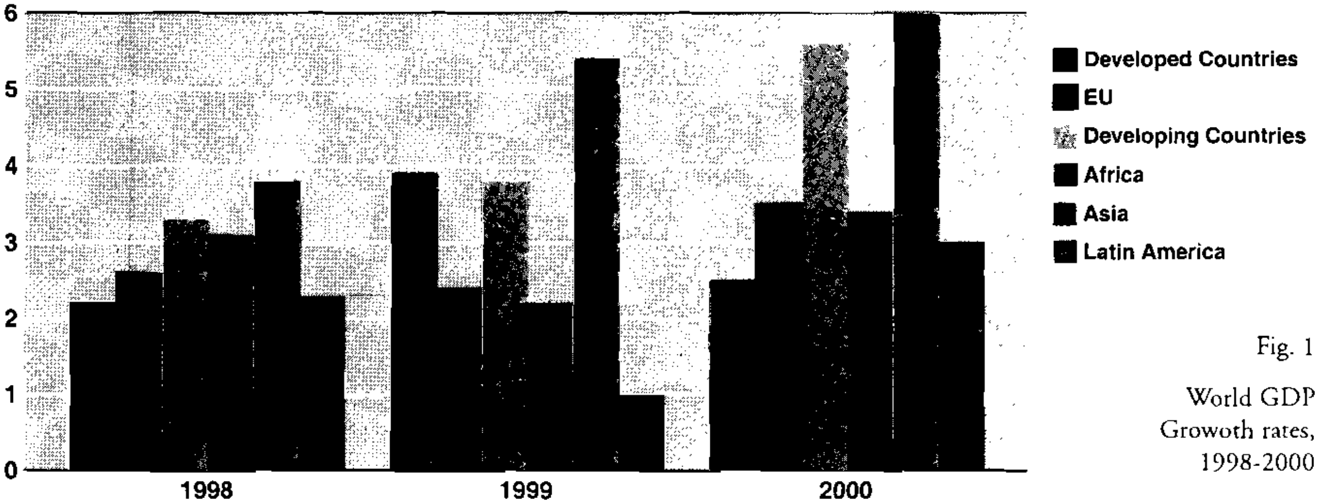

Fig. 1

World GDP Growoth rates, 1998-2000

Among the major factors that contributed to the increase was the rise in aggregate demand in international trade and improved commodity prices particularly oil prices. The latter more than doubled over the course of 1999 and continued to climb in 2000. World exports increased by 10.6 per cent compared to 5.8 per cent in 1999. Global demand from developed economies increased by 8.8 per cent, while that of developing economies increased by 15.7 per cent. Among the factors that contributed to the upturn in the world economy was the growth in the European Union (EU) member States. The economies of countries in the Euro economic space grew by 3.5 per cent in 2000 compared to 2.4 per cent in 1999.

Investment in information and communication technology (ICT) and related processes, robust consumption spending and increased exports bolstered economic performance in most developed economies in 2000. Germany, for example, increased by 3.1 per cent, from 1.5 per cent the previous year. Japan's economy grew significantly by 1.4 per cent, from 0.2 per cent in 1999, while the USA grew by 5.1 per cent in 2000 compared to 4.2 per cent in 1999.

With respect to the emerging market economies of East and South-East Asia, the upturn was testimony to resolute actions by policymakers to deepen reform efforts in response to

[2]UN-DESA, World Economic Situation and Prospects, 2001.

the sharp decline in capital inflows during the 1997-1998 financial crises. In East Asia, for example, there was renewed confidence in the financial systems, which led to a remarkable recovery of the economy, with 7.2 per cent growth compared to 5.9 per cent in 1999. In Latin America and the Caribbean, reforms by Brazil managed to lessen the severity of the downturn and prepared the foundation for recovery in that subcontinent. The overall GDP growth averaged 3.9 per cent, compared to 0.3 per cent in 1999. Within the global context, African economies also showed signs of recovery, with a marginal increase in growth rate from 2.8 per cent in 1999 to 3.2 per cent in 2000.

The positive turnaround of the global economy should be viewed in the context of the serious challenges facing most of the economies that rely heavily on commodity market developments. One such challenge was the doubling of oil prices to more than $US25 per barrel, since the third quarter 1999. This was mainly due to production curbs by the Oil Producing and Exporting Countries (OPEC) and other producers.

With regard to non-fuel commodities, on average, prices rose by 46 per cent from mid-1993, and dropped by 30 per cent in late 1999. The production of many commodities continued to increase rapidly, however, leading to a price cycle. The cycle in primary commodity prices was driven by changes in global demand, weather-related supply shocks and technological innovations that have reduced production costs.

Metal and mineral prices tended to be driven by the changes in world industrial production. These changes pushed down metal prices from the last quarter of 1999, and by mid-2000, prices had dropped by 4.2 per cent. The price of gold, for instance, dropped by 5.9 per cent, reaching $US266.20 per oz. This drop followed the suspension of forward sales by major producers and the attempt by Central Banks in Europe and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to auction off their gold reserves. This downward trend was reversed towards the end of 2000 by cuts in production as in the case of copper, and supply disruption as in the case of nickel.

African economy

Economic performance in Africa in 2000 was modest compared to other regions of the world. Africa's growth rate at 3.2 per cent was third in the world after the USA at 5 per cent and the Euro zone at 3.4 per cent. Developing countries as a group registered a growth rate of 5.6 per cent in 2000 compared to 3.5 per cent in 1999.

This expansion was led mostly by the growth in export earnings of the region's oil-exporting countries, as a result of the increase in oil prices to more than $US25 per barrel, since mid-1999. A recovery in demand for some non-oil commodities in Asia and Europe improved export earnings in other countries. Sound macroeconomic policies and favourable domestic economic environments, as well as good weather conditions, contributed to Africa's improved growth performance in 2000. On average, the volume of African exports increased by 4.7 per cent from -1.7 per cent in 1999. Exports from non-oil exporting countries were also slightly higher than the 1999 rate. Figure II shows economic performance in Africa by sub-regions in 1998 -1999, the latest period for which figures are available.

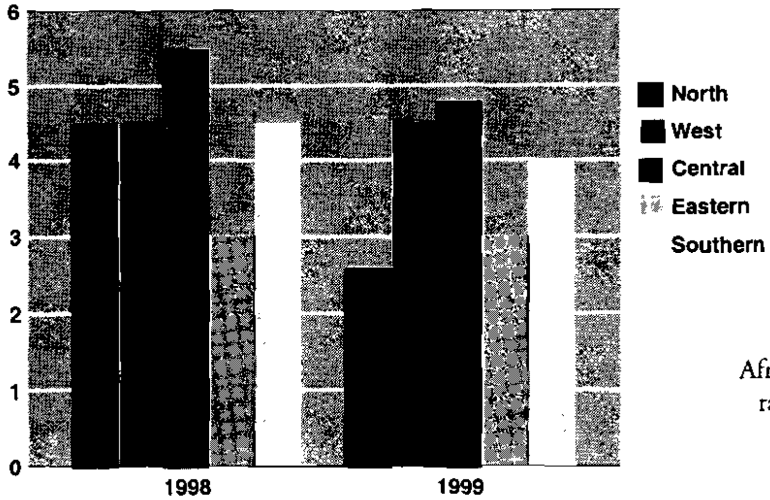

Fig. 2

Africa GDP Growth rates by subregion, 1998-1999

Increased domestic and foreign investment also contributed to the GDP growth rate in several African countries, including Equatorial Guinea, Libya, Mauritius, South Africa and Zambia. These countries have made significant progress in either maintaining stable money supply growth, low inflation or lowering fiscal deficits. In addition, privatization and market liberalization policies opened up opportunities for a strong private sector with large projects such as the Maputo Corridor (between Mozambique and South Africa), offering some solutions to Africa's pressing infrastructure needs.

South Africa, the largest economy in the subregion, regained its growth momentum after two years of decline caused by the turbulence of the Asian financial crises. Exports recovered with the strengthening of world demand. Currency depreciation, high domestic interest, escalating inflation and consumer reluctance observed in the latter part of the 1999 were reversed by mid-2000 as international investors responded positively to the sound macroeconomic management followed in the country.

Despite these positive global developments, external debt servicing continued to impose additional downward pressures on economic activity in the sub region. This demonstrated once again the fragile nature and external dependency of the African economies.

Average agricultural output increased by 2.3 per cent in 2000 as a result of improved weather and crop-growing conditions, in sharp contrast to the previous two years. This provided additional stimulus to GDP growth in most countries. Nevertheless, some countries continued to face exceptional food emergencies. The worst affected included Angola, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Sierra Leone, Somalia and the Sudan, all of which are suffering from the impact of war or civil conflicts. Others, such as Kenya, Madagascar and Tanzania were hard hit by drought and/or cyclones.

II. SOUTHERN AFRICAN ECONOMY

Overview

Economic performance in Southern Africa improved in 2000 as compared to 1999. However, many countries experienced difficulties with their balance of payments as a result of the higher oil prices, since most of the countries are net importers. In addition, the negative growth rate recorded in Zimbabwe, which is estimated at 6 per cent, greatly affected the average GDP growth rate of the subregion. As a result, preliminary data for the 11 Southern African countries served by the Centre[3] indicate that aggregate output grew by 3.3 per cent in 2000, compared to 3.4 per cent in 1999. The growth rate of real GDP per capita was on the decline in most countries in 2000. In Lesotho, for example, real GDP per capita declined from $US410 in 1999 to $US383 in 2000, while the correspo

nding figures for Namibia and Swaziland are $US1, 645 and $US1, 269 in 2000 as compared to $US1, 714 and $US1, 318 in 1999, respectively.

Most countries that managed to achieve higher growth rates in 2000 also registered an increase in foreign direct investment (FDI), which injected additional resources into the national economy. All countries, except Zimbabwe, managed to achieve positive, albeit lower, GDP growth rates in 2000, compared to 1999. Investors have been encouraged partly by the deepening of structural reforms and subsequent improvement in macroeconomic environment in most of the countries, coupled with the improvements in governance and democracy.

Related to the latter, it is worth noting that over the last two years, six general elections were held within the subregion in Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Most of these returned to the *status quo* they did so, in many cases, with large majority. In Mozambique, for example, despite the devastating floods early in 2000, the country remained attractive to overseas investors. FDI inflows to the country are estimated to have reach $US334 million, a five-fold increase in just two years.

In Zambia, since privatization in February 2000, the introduction of fresh investment, new technology and improved management in the copper mines began to reverse the decline in copper production. Though real increase in copper production was not significant in year 2000, new investment in the mining sector, together with expected increase in copper prices, should help the economy to grow by at least 5 per cent in 2001, as compared to the estimate of 3.5 per cent in 2000.

Low aggregate GDP growth rate in other countries was the consequence of unattractive economic environments, particularly in Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Malawi. The negative growth rate recorded in Zimbabwe, for example, was due to discontinued FDI inflows, which contributed to depressed earnings from commercial agriculture and related industries, of about 40 per cent.

Despite the overall progress in 2000, GDP growth rates remained below the sustainability target of 6 per cent in most countries, the growth target defined in the United Nations New

[3]These are: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Agenda for Development in Africa (UN-NADAF) as the minimum required for sustainable economic development. Only two countries namely, Mauritius and Mozambique, succeeded in surpassing the GDP growth requirement of 6.2 per cent. This was the target agreed to in 1995 at the World Summit for Social Development, for reducing poverty by half by year 2015. This implies that the region is still not benefiting fully from its abundant natural resources and economic potential. Figure III gives GDP growth rates in Southern Africa for the period 1998-2000 and estimates for 2001.[4]

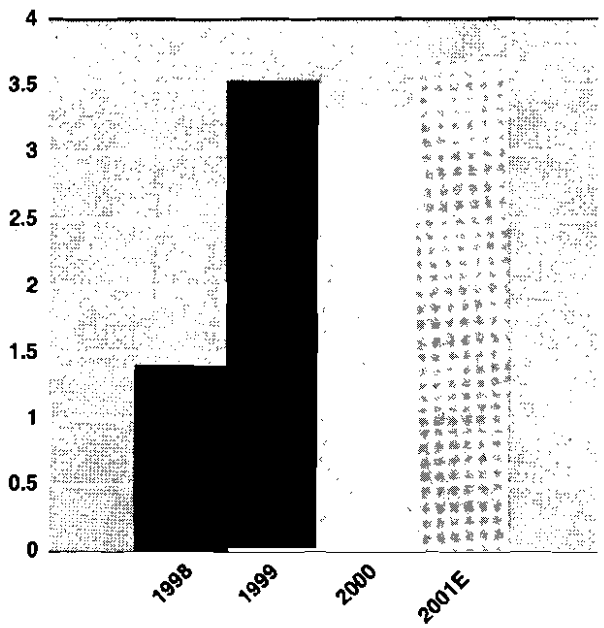

Fig. 2

Southern Africa
GDP Growth rates,
1998-2001

Many of the factors that have accounted for weak economic performance in Southern Africa over the years were still at work in 2000, though to different extents and with varying intensities across countries. One underlying cause for the low economic performance continued to be failure to diversify the narrow production and export base.

The region experienced heavy rains in January/February 2000 causing severe flooding in Southern Mozambique, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, northern and eastern South Africa as well as eastern and southern Botswana. These floods disrupted economic activities and had a strong bearing on economic performance in the year 2000, particularly for Mozambique. Moreover, close to 700 people lost their lives in Mozambique, over 70 in Zimbabwe, and 13 in Botswana. Mozambique had close to 1 million people homeless, Zimbabwe 20,000 and Botswana 106,776.

There were strong inflationary pressures in a number of countries in 2000, especially in Angola and Zimbabwe. In Angola, inflation was reported at 239.3 per cent, and in Zimbabwe it was estimated at 59.6 per cent. At the same time, inflationary pressures in Malawi and Mauritius significantly reduced between 1999 and 2000, from 44.8 to 28.4 per cent, and from 6.9 to 4.6 per cent, respectively. This was primarily a result of greater fiscal and monetary discipline, including the curtailment of salary increases, which contributed to a sharp reduction in budget deficits.

[4]Figures for 2001 are preliminary estimates from The Economist Intelligence Unit.

High levels of external debt continued to be a crushing burden on economic growth in most countries of the subregion and four are classified as severely indebted, low-income countries.[5] Aggregate data indicate total external debt at $US81.7 billion in 1998, the last year for which complete data are available. Debt-servicing requirements in hard currency prevent many countries from making adequate investments in education and health care, and from responding effectively to natural disasters and other emergencies.

However, the aggregate data on total external debt conceal wide variation at country level. With the exception of Lesotho and Malawi where external debt increased by 2.3 and 1.2 per cent respectively in 1998, most countries achieved an encouraging, albeit modest, decrease in the volume of their external debt. In Mauritius, for example, debt stock decreased by over 20 per cent while in Namibia, it decreased 12 per cent from $US146 million in 1997 to $US128 million in 1998. In the Republic of South Africa, the corresponding decrease was much more modest at 2 per cent. While Mozambique remained particularly dependent on external borrowing and development assistance, its external debt decreased by 2 per cent in 1998. As a result of strict debt management policies and the avoidance of new borrowing by member States, there are indications that the total outstanding debt of Southern African countries will decline further in 2001 if more debt cancellation is effected.

The incidence of poverty, measured by a minimum level of consumption expenditure per head, remained remarkably high. The proportion of population living under conditions of poverty increased in both the rural areas, where the economy continued to decline, and in urban areas, where there was a lack of dynamism in fostering growth and job creation in the industrial and service sectors.

In Mozambique, for example, the first comprehensive household data report published by the Government in 2000 indicates that the incidence of poverty countrywide is 69.4 per cent, while in Malawi government estimates place 60 per cent of the population below the poverty datum line. In Zambia, the percentage of people living in dire poverty was estimated to exceed 70 per cent in 2000.

Divergence in performance at country level

Macroeconomic performance has been rather uneven at country level partly due to some structural differences in economies and international community responsiveness to specific macroeconomic policies. In contrast to the slow growth and even decline in some countries, Mauritius and Mozambique registered economic growth rates above 7 per cent in 2000. The other countries exhibited lower, albeit positive growth rates, which with the exception of Lesotho, Malawi, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, were above 3 per cent. One country, Zimbabwe is estimated to have recorded a negative growth rate of more than 6 per cent in 2000.

Angola: Despite the effects of war there was a rebound in growth in 2000. GDP growth rate is estimated to have increased by 4.9 per cent compared to 2.7 per cent in 1999. Contributing to the strong growth of GDP was the increase in oil production and prices. Crude oil production is estimated to have increased by 20 per cent from 980 thousand barrels per day (b/d) in 1999 to more than 1million b/d in 2000. These resources, however, have been diverted towards government war efforts.

[5]The countries are Angola, Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia. World Bank, Global Development Finance, 1999

Botswana: Strong economic recovery in the non-mining sector, particularly in transport and communications, hotels and restaurants and general government contributed to the high rate of growth of 8.5 per cent in 1999. In 2000, preliminary economic indicators show, however, that GDP grew by only 5.5 per cent, owing to a fall in diamond production and the impact of drought on agriculture in mid-1999.

Lesotho: After the political unrest in September 1998, damaging effects of which carried over to 1999, there have been some positive signs following government efforts to revive the business environment and restore macroeconomic balance in the country. Privatization proceeded successfully when 70 per cent of Lesotho Telecom and the Government's remaining holding in Vodacom were sold. Although GDP growth rate has been stagnant at 2 per cent in 1999 and 2000, preliminary figures for the year 2001 indicate a modest growth rate of 2.2 per cent.

Malawi: Policy orientation in 2000 emphasized strengthening fiscal discipline, increasing accountability, and accelerating liberalization and privatization. Performance in the tobacco sector, however, remained the main determinant of economic growth. The GDP growth rate was estimated at 2.5 per cent, down from 4.7 per cent in 1999, owing to poor tobacco prices. The Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), which was published in August 2000, will continue to be the basis of government policies in the short- to -medium term.

Mauritius: After the slight decline in GDP in 1999, due to adverse weather conditions associated with *La Niña*, the successor of the *El Niño* oceanic current, the economy experienced a strong rebound in exports. Domestic demand remained robust and tourism activities increased by 10 per cent. In 2000, agricultural production recovered from the drought-hit season of 1999 and output was estimated to have grown by 34 per cent in 2000 with real GDP increased by 8 per cent.

Mozambique: The devastating floods that hit the country during the first quarter of 2000 have resulted in reduced GDP growth. Real GDP growth rate was estimated to be 7.5 per cent in 2000, compared to 10 per cent in 1999. Nevertheless, continued international support to the economy, coupled with government implementation of monetary and fiscal austerity measures, should continue to underpin macroeconomic stabilization and high rates of real GDP growth rate in 2001. In addition, the mining sector, which is believed to have considerable potential, is attracting FDI associated with exploration activities. Furthermore, conducive conditions for profitable and well-managed banking operations in the country have made the financial sector increasingly dynamic in recent years with newer banks, such as *Banque Nationale de Paris* (BNP) and Nedbank of South Africa, aggressively increasing their presence in the country.

Namibia: GDP is estimated to have increased by 3 per cent, following an increase in offshore diamond production, the resumption of precious metal production by the Tsumeb Corporation, continued growth in agriculture and fishing, as well as higher value added in the construction industry. With the three main mining vessels now fully operational, Namibia Mineral Corporation (Namco) is on course to expand its offshore diamond production from 1,600 carats in 2000 to 450,000 carats in 2001. This will in turn boost GDP growth rate to about 4.8 per cent in year 2001.

South Africa: The most advanced economy in Southern Africa began to recover from the disappointing growth rates recorded in 1998 and 1999. After two consecutive years of decline, GDP rebounded in 2000 and grew at 3.1 per cent compared to 1.9 per cent in

1999. In addition to the impressive growth of the tertiary sector (trade, banking, insurance and related services), various policy measures also played an important role in stimulating the economy, including sound macroeconomic policies, the recovery in financial assets values and the tax relief measures contained in the 2000/2001 budget. Furthermore, export recovery, particularly in the mining sector, as a result of stronger markets in both the European Union (EU) and Asia, also contributed to the recovery of the economy in 2000.

Swaziland: Although the country has not yet joined the free-trade area of the COMESA-FTA, the Government relaxed import controls as part of its policy of trade liberalization. Preliminary estimates indicate a GDP growth rate of 3.9 per cent in year 2000, compared to 3.1 in 1999. This modest increase was attributed to the expansion in sugar production, which according to the Swaziland Sugar Association, increased to 556,000 tonnes in 2000/2001, compared to 534,000 tonnes in 1999/2000.

Zambia: A combination of good rains, increased area under cultivation and improved farmer access to fertilizers made 1999/2000 a credible season. Rice production, for example, increased by 130 per cent to 89,700 tonnes. This contributed to an improved GDP growth rate, from 2.2 per cent in 1999 to 3.5 per cent in 2000. In addition, the falling food prices due to a good maize harvest resulted in a marginal drop of the annualized inflation rate from 30 per cent in 1999 to 26 per cent in 2000.

Zimbabwe: The general elections of June 2000 were contentious, highly divisive and dissipated government efforts to improve management of the economy. Economic performance was adversely affected by lack of external financial support to government economic programmes, coupled with weak tobacco and gold prices. The country's economy contracted significantly with GDP estimated to have fallen by nearly 6 per cent in 2000. In addition, political uncertainties following the occupation of farms in April 2000 significantly reduced tourism receipts, which also aggravated the decline of the economy.

Trade, Finance and Investment

The subregion enjoyed a fairly open investment and trade regime during the reporting period. While aggregate intra-subregional trade data are not available it is believed that this trade is taking place and would have increased to high proportion, particularly following the launching of COMESA-FTA and the entry into effect of the SADC Protocol on Trade in October and September 2000, respectively. It is anticipated that both developments will have a positive impact on trade among the member States and will build business confidence in the subregion and beyond.

Within the context of SADC, Southern African member States have been involved in intensive and complex negotiations on tariff reduction schedules, rules of origin, harmonization of customs and trade documentation, non-tariff barriers, sanitary and phytosanitary and other trade measures since January 1999. While not all details have been resolved, agreement was reached on a critical mass of the technical issues so that member States were able to ratify the Protocol, publish tariffs reduction and set a date for the start of the gradual liberalization of intra-subregional trade within the frameworks of both COMESA and SADC. Both institutions have worked closely to ensure harmony and coherence in trade regimes as the two organizations share some common memberships.

In the finance sector, there has been remarkable liberalization of exchange controls in the subregion as the economies adopted market-oriented exchange rate regimes. The current account in all the member States has been liberalized and there are no foreign exchange controls. However, there are variances with respect to the capital account. Countries such as Botswana, Mauritius and Zambia have completely liberalized their capital accounts, whereas other countries still maintain certain form of controls with benchmarks or thresholds below which there are no controls. It should be noted that for investments destined for the Southern Africa subregion, the threshold is higher than that obtaining for investment destined for third countries.

Following harmonization of listing requirements and the regulations of stock exchanges in most Southern African member States, there has been an increase in activity on the various stock exchanges. There is now provision for cross or dual listing of companies on the stock exchanges in the region. This move is expected to attract more portfolio investment into the subregion.

In addition, capital markets continued to undergo significant developments in some countries in 2000. Harmonization of legal framework and listing requirements at the Southern African level contributed to improved performance of stock exchanges in the subregion. For example, the Mozambique Stock Market, the *Bolsa de Valores de Moçambique* (BVM), was opened in 1999 with the first listing being the beer producer, *Cervejas de Moçambique* (CDM). The listing of other privatized companies is expected to follow.

The investment climate in much of Southern Africa has improved dramatically since the mid-1990s as governments have been active in creating a more attractive policy environment. All countries have loosened barriers to foreign investment and introduced a mix of investment incentives, which vary from country to country. Due to these changes, foreign investment in Southern Africa is looking rosier than it has for decades, although the response has not been concomitant to the efforts made. This can be linked to the perception held outside the region that investments are not safe in the region, with the ongoing conflicts in Angola and the land issue in Zimbabwe as examples.

Notwithstanding these conflicts, the investment climate has improved significantly in other member States. Progress towards an improved investment climate for domestic and foreign investors was particularly evident in areas such as capital markets and tax reforms. Opportunities were also created in the areas of infrastructure development, privatization of state enterprises and joint management of natural resources. An example is the first trans-frontier game park in Africa that combined Gemsbok National Park in Botswana with the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park in South Africa. There are similar initiatives underway with Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe.

Policy Focus

The majority of the countries maintained macroeconomic stability in 2000. While policies varied from country to country, the overriding objective comprised two major elements: macroeconomic stability and supply-side reforms. Fiscal consolidation, as indicated by the reduction and control of inflation and the lowering of general government budget deficits, has been the centrepiece of macroeconomic stability measures. Concrete measures focused on better expenditure control programmes and revenue collection measures. The supply-side policies concentrated on deregulation of product and factor markets, privatization of state-owned assets and the supply of services, and liberalization of international trade and capital markets.

The underlying assumption has been that the smaller the role of the State, whether in the actual production of goods and services or in its attempt to intervene in the workings of the market economy, the better is the economic performance of the private sector and of the economy as a whole. This "mainstream" policy framework has been the cornerstone of the macroeconomic policy stance in most countries since 1999.

Privatization continued to be another area of focus for economic reforms. The main goal was to cut waste, improve economic efficiency, stimulate the private sector, mobilize more foreign and domestic investment and revive economic growth. Although accepted as a major policy objective, privatization in Africa as a whole remains highly controversial and politically risky. In some countries, the process is fraught with many problems such as strikes against proposed sell-off of state enterprises as unions fear for job loses or reduced benefits. As a result, governments have tended to proceed more carefully with the privatization programmes in order to avoid charges of "selling the family jewel for a song."

There is, therefore, an understandable reluctance on the part of many African countries, including those in Southern Africa, to dispose of public enterprises entirely to foreign investors at prices that are often seen as unfavourable. On the other hand, weak entrepreneurship, low domestic savings and small capital markets combine to preclude the participation of indigenous nationals in the privatization process. Furthermore, some governments want to proceed in a measured way, in order to avoid the pitfalls, conflicts and setbacks that marked many of the privatizations carried out in the late 1980s and early 1990s. This latter approach is becoming increasingly evident across the subregion.

Over the past few years, the telecommunication sector has become a major focus for privatization. Many Southern African countries realized that selling shares in their telecommunication enterprises to established foreign companies, the so-called strategic partners, was an easy way to gain access to new technologies and investment resources to modernize and expand their systems.

III. DEVELOPMENTS IN MAIN SECTORS

Food and Agriculture

Agriculture continued to be the mainstay of economic activity in nearly all the Southern African member States. The importance of agriculture in the sub-region is due to the fact that over 70 per cent of the population live in rural areas and are dependent on agriculture for their livelihood. Furthermore, there is evidence that all economies in the subregion, regardless of their economic base, tend to be driven by agricultural conditions for growth, stability and the control of inflation, particularly with regard to food prices.

The cereal crop in Southern Africa in 2000 was normal, notwithstanding the damage caused by floods and cyclones in some parts. Generally, Southern Africa's cereal production, mainly maize, was above normal and the food supply situation was satisfactory. However, continued food assistance was required in some areas affected by the floods and cyclones, mainly in Mozambique and to some extent, parts of South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe. In Angola, the food situation of some 2.6 million internally displaced persons was precarious.

Aggregate food production in 1999/2000 increased by 12 per cent compared to the 1998/1999 season. Individual cereal forecasts indicate an increase of 12 per cent in maize production over last year's; a reduction of 19 per cent in winter wheat, and an increase of about 25 per cent in sorghum and millet. This, therefore, suggests a satisfactory cereal availability position at subregional level.

As in previous years, production varied across countries and by commodities. On the one hand, surpluses for cereals in the 1999/2000 marketing season were recorded in South Africa (2.02 million tonnes), Malawi (447,000), Tanzania (204,000) and Zambia (89,700 tons). This was due to the combined effect of carry-over stocks and good rains in these countries. Swaziland and Zimbabwe, on the other hand, faced maize deficit/import requirements amounting to 5,000 tonnes and 929,000 tonnes, respectively. Production was uneven in other countries.

The flooding crises, which worsened considerably from February 2000 when Cyclone Eline hit Mozambique, bringing heavy rains to lands already waterlogged by weeks of storms, caused the worst flooding to hit the country in 50 years. Cyclone Eline also hit the northern province of South Africa, the southern half of Zimbabwe and spread into eastern and southern Botswana.

Besides human losses, the affected countries also experienced crop and livestock losses. More than 170,000 hectares of cropland were destroyed in Mozambique, and similarly 30,000 hectares in Zimbabwe and 144,000 hectares in Botswana. Swaziland, on the other hand, estimates a drop in maize production of 37 per cent over last year's due to flooding.

In addition, agricultural performance in Southern Africa continued to suffer from a combination of several mitigating factors and the production index remained stagnant (table 1). First, was the intensified internal hostilities in Angola and in Democratic Republic of the Congo, which have caused thousands of nationals to flee to neighboring countries as refugees, thereby aggravating the already worsening food security situation. Secondly, the debt burden has continued to claim most of the resources of member States in debt repayments, leaving them with very little for investing in agriculture and other economic and social sectors.

Country	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000E
Angola	103.2	109.6	108.5	123.6	121.8	126.8	127.4	146.1	138.6	122.8
Botswana	107.2	103.3	103.4	89.8	105.7	105.5	93.9	95.8	98.3	100.3
Lesotho	84.7	96.4	107.4	114.7	97.7	111.8	115.9	95.3	99.9	102.6
Malawi	106.7	87.1	114.6	89.9	109.1	117.4	111.8	116.5	125.1	108.6
Mauritius	101.3	106.0	104.7	98.4	103.1	104.2	110.6	106.8	80.5	101.7
Mozambique	95.3	82.4	94.0	91.8	109.6	123.2	130.9	140.6	142.8	112.3
Namibia	102.5	104.9	107.6	114.5	110.1	118.3	85.8	96.3	97.6	104.1
South Africa	99.5	84.4	94.4	98.9	85.3	100.6	100.5	95.2	100.4	95.4
Swaziland	104.6	93.7	90.7	93.3	84.4	94.8	84.2	83.6	81.1	90.0
Zambia	97.6	80.1	118.2	99.5	93.5	111.8	95.9	91.2	100.2	98.6
Zimbabwe	99.6	74.4	96.0	101.1	82.8	112.4	116.7	111.9	109.0	100.4
AVERAGE	101.0	93.5	101.0	102.3	99.4	105.3	103.5	104.3	104.7	103.3

Table 1

Agricultural Production Index, 1991-2000 (1988/9 = 100)

Source: FAO Yearbook, 1999

E = SRDC-SA Preliminary estimates

The main crops affected by the above market forces were tobacco, tea, coffee and cotton. Cotton prices, for example, fell by 11 per cent from their 1998 level. On a brighter note, sugar producers were cheered with the good news of a price rise, which went up by 8.3 per cent. This could be a reflection of the reduced output due to the drought, which hit some of the main sugar-producing countries such as Mauritius during the 1998/1999 season. In contrast, beef production, particularly in Botswana, was mainly affected by drought, although this situation did not influence increased release of animals by farmers, contrary to expectations.

Deteriorating food conditions continued to be a matter of concern in Angola, where the continued conflict affected food crop production negatively in 1999/2000. The total cereal crop production for 1999/2000 was estimated at 33,000 tonnes representing a drop of 11 per cent over the 1998/1999 production. This reflected the impact of renewed displacement of the rural populations in the country. Maize, the dominant crop, representing 80 per cent of the country's cereal production, dropped by 15 per cent from the 1997/1998 production levels, while beans was the most affected with a drop of 20 per cent. On the other hand, cassava was affected least with a drop of only 2 per cent. By contrast, millet and sorghum increased by 12 per cent.

Transport and Communications

Efforts continued to be made to develop the transport, communications and meteorology systems of Southern African member States in order to meet the economic, social, and political objectives of the Community in the twenty-first century. The unprecedented floods, which affected infrastructure especially in Mozambique (worst hit), Botswana, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Swaziland and parts of Zambia, Malawi and Namibia, have had a negative impact on infrastructure and services.

An overview of the sectors shows that, despite the current shortcomings of the region's transport, communications and meteorological services systems, there are three reasons for being optimistic about these systems becoming adequate in the short-to-medium term:

- The basic transport system, communications and meteorological systems are in place. The Community has an elaborate road network, an extensive interconnected railway network, and a well-spaced principal seaport system, which for the most part has natural, deep-water ports. There is a basic telecommunications, postal and meteorological network on which to build.

- Needed policy, legal, and institutional reforms are well underway, and the subregion is committed to their completion within the time span of a few years.
- The subregion's transport, communications, and meteorological services subsectors have established effective working relations with world organizations dealing with transport, communications and meteorology, and these are assisting the region to upgrade its systems and services to international standards.

The ongoing reforms are founded on the SADC Protocol on Transport, Communications and Meteorology that came into force in July 1998. The Protocol sets forth the objectives of the Community with regard to transport, communications and meteorology, and specifies the policies and strategies by which these objectives are to be attained. The Protocol also allows for the incorporation of annexes, which will elaborate and define the methodology for implementing these policies and strategies, and further commit member States to take whatever actions are necessary to achieve the stated objectives.

In terms of implementation, policy reform is far advanced in most member States and in most subsectors. The legislative reform, which of necessity must follow policy reform, is also underway. Furthermore, institutional reform is also proceeding, although it is not yet far advanced in some subsectors.

The remaining challenge is for Southern African member States to bring all transport, communications and meteorological services systems up to international standards, in order that they fully support the achievement of all of the subregion's economic, social and political goals. A general assessment follows:

- The arterial roads are generally in satisfactory condition in the southern tier of SADC countries, while those in Mozambique and the northern tier nations require major network rehabilitation programmes. Some of these programmes are ongoing, except in Angola. The secondary and tertiary roads throughout the subregion require improvement and adequate and timely maintenance. The widespread problem of overloaded heavy-goods vehicles increases the task of keeping the road network in a satisfactory condition.
- Road transport services are generally responsive to market demand, and the provision of cross-border services is currently being liberalized. Road accidents are increasing at alarming rates and cross-border movements, particularly of large-goods vehicles, are still hampered by long delays at some border posts.
- The maritime subsector, by contrast, is most nearly adequate to meet the current and immediate future needs of the subregion. Although a few ports require maintenance dredging of the entrance channels, ports are generally adequate in terms of capacity and characteristics. The exceptions are the ports of Durban and Maputo, which have reached or are approaching their capacity limits for handling containers. A number of specialized terminals are being efficiently operated by the private sector. Shipping services to the subregion are varied, reliable, and generally adequate. It is mainly in the area of maritime safety and protection of the marine environment that the subregion still lags behind.
- The railway network in the southern tier of Southern African countries is in fairly good condition, while that in Mozambique and the northern tier nations is in an unsatisfactory condition due to deferred maintenance. The governments of these member States are pursuing programmes for private sector involvement in the rehabilitation and operations of these railways.

- Air transport infrastructure serviceability is being improved and requires further development to cope with the current and expected rapid growth of air traffic within the globalization process. Institutional reforms are well underway in the subsector, and a regional, integrated air traffic safety system is under development. Most airports, however, still do not have adequate air cargo terminals.
- Entry into the air transport services market is in the early stages of liberalization, and many potentially viable services are not yet being performed or are being underprovided, in some cases at high service prices.
- Telephone density is low in most of the subregion, and service standards are generally poor. There is, however, ongoing expansion of both mobile telephone and Internet service providers, and actions are being taken in a number of member States to effect rapid expansion and improvement of basic telephone services through private sector participation.
- Postal services are being significantly improved in a few member States, and the business sector is being aided by the growing availability of satisfactory and competitive courier services. The introduction of Internet services has, however, posed a serious challenge to the subsector.

The following sections examine the reform process and performance in the provision of transport and communications infrastructure and services:

Road Infrastructure

The approach to ensuring that the region will have a good road network has been agreed upon and implementation is underway in the following four areas:

- Road users must pay fully for maintenance of the entire public road network and progressively for the expansion of network capacity. Revenues from road user charges must be channeled directly to a dedicated road fund for network maintenance and construction.
- The road fund must be overseen and administered by a road fund board, or road board, a majority of the members of which should be from the private sector and road user network.
- Autonomous, streamlined roads agencies must be created to manage the road network in a cost-effective manner, using funds allocated to them by the road fund board.
- Road network construction and maintenance costs should be minimized by selecting contractors for road construction and maintenance contracts through fair, transparent, and easy-to-understand processes of competitive bidding, bid evaluation, and contract negotiation and management.

The Southern African Regional Trunk Route Network (RTRN) was agreed upon and incorporated into the SADC Protocol in 1999. The principal outstanding matter in regard to the regional road network is whether or not the regional routes not included in the RTRN should be designed to accommodate the same upper limits of axle-load and gross vehicle weight (GVW) throughout the subregion.

However, some bottlenecks still exist, arising from institutional aspects and financing policies. The Protocol and World Bank/ECA-coordinated Road Management Initiative

(RMI) prescribes management of road assets in a commercial way, as in any other business. After the understanding by all relevant players, an institutional reform process has been completed or is taking place in almost all member States. This process is leading to creation of a roads board, autonomous road authority and road fund.

Specific guidelines on the way these bodies should be created and how they should interact is elaborated by the Model Legislative Provisions on road management and financing approved by the Committee of Ministers in July 1999. Table 2 summarizes the progress achieved so far by member States in the reforms. It shows that 8 countries (Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia) have established road funds and road boards with different levels of effectiveness and strength of legislation. Plans are underway to do so in other countries. Four member States (Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa) have established autonomous road agencies. Other countries are still in the process of doing so.

Road Transit Charges

After a long process of debate and negotiations, the Southern African member States agreed to implement country-specific charges in 1999. Traffic counting on the regional trunk routes is underway to update the current transit charges. There are plans to draft the implementation manual that will include aspects of the charging system (including coupon system), on the basis of the previous proposals by a joint review team of the Southern African Transport Coordination Conference (SATCC) and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU).

Harmonized Road Design Standards

Road design standards and specifications have been produced and consultants and design engineers in member States have been instructed to use the design standards, which will be reviewed in two years to check on progress. The design standards and specifications produced are the SATCC Standards Specifications for Road and Bridge works; the SATCC Code of Practice for the Design of Roads, Bridges and Culverts; the SATCC Code of Practice for the Design of Pavements; the SATCC Code of Practice for the Geometric Design of Trunk Roads; and the SATCC Code of Practice for Pavement Rehabilitation.

Country	Status of dedicated road fund, autonomous road agency and road board	Plans for establishing road fund, and road agency
Angola	None	National policy and national strategy underway for establishment of the road fund and board. National strategy and legislation for establishment of a roads agency still need to be completed.
Botswana	None	National policy and strategy and legislation underway for establishment of the road fund and roads board. Autonomous roads agency need to be created.
Lesotho	Road fund and road board have been established and are fully operational.	
Malawi	Road fund and roads board established.	National policy completed and some other tasks on national strategy and legislation underway for establishment of a road fund and roads board and a roads agency.
Mauritius	Road fund and roads board established.	National strategy and legislation on a road fund, roads board and roads agency
Mozambique	Road fund already established.	National policy completed. National policy and legislation underway for a road fund, road board and roads agency
Namibia	Legislation completed, road fund, road board and road agency established.	
South Africa	Road fund, roads board and autonomous roads agency established.	National policy and strategy completed for a road fund and roads board, and legislation is underway. For the roads agency, national policy is completed and the national strategy and legislation need to be completed
Swaziland	None	National policy on a road fund and roads agency completed. National strategy and legislation underway. A roads agency still needs to be addressed.
Zambia	Road fund and roads board already in place.	National policy completed on a road fund and roads board. Work on national strategy and legislation is underway. Work on a roads agency still need to be done.
Zimbabwe	None	National policy completed. National strategy and legislation underway for a road fund and roads board. Work on national strategy for creation of a roads agency has started.

Table 2

Progress of Institutional Reforms in SADC, 2000

Source: UNECA/ SRDC-SA

Road Transport Services

Road transport services are generally adequate in the region, as there are large numbers of small and medium-sized operators competing to serve domestic transport demand. In long-distance, cross-border services however, there are still some constraints to market responsiveness, transport service standards, and service charges. These include restrictions to market entry, delays at border posts and operating limitations, especially for small operators who do not have facilities across borders or on long-distance routes.

With regard to delays at borders, the region has agreed in principle on the package of "Border Post Legal Reform". This is a package comprising a regional memorandum of understanding (MOU) on reducing vehicle and freight consignment delays at border posts; model legislative provisions (MLP) to enable member States to implement the MOU; and a model bilateral agreement on the operation and management of border posts along a common border. The MOU calls for the introduction of private sector management at border posts and the adoption of "one-stop operations." This operating scheme would require that all vehicles and persons stop only at facilities in the country of entry, with all exit and entrance processing being done at that location, by respective authorities of the two countries concerned.

Border-post delays are also caused by the manner in which Customs deals with freight vehicles and consignments. The subregion has agreed on harmonized and standardized customs documentation. Agreement has also been reached on improved procedures, structures and operational environment at the borders. SATCC and SITCD, in conjunction with COMESA, have designed projects and are negotiating with cooperating partners to secure assistance to pursue these freight transit facilitation objectives.

Road Traffic

The technical work for harmonization of road traffic signs has been finalized and will be incorporated into the SADC Protocol as an annex. The incorporation of this instrument into the protocol, which was done under the SADC Transport Efficiency Project, is in its final stages. Member States are now using the harmonized signs in their road rehabilitation projects as well as for new construction.

Southern Africa is facing a serious problem with the high incidence of overloaded heavy-goods vehicles, and high levels of road accidents. In an effort to redress the situation, the region has reached agreement on an "Enabling Legal Reform for Vehicle Overloading Control". The adopted approach to control vehicle overloading effectively entails "decriminalization" of overloading, with administrative adjudication of infringements of the legal load limits (with imposition of "stiff" on-the-spot fines), and operation of weighbridges by the private sector. In order to intensify the process, three pilot projects have been designed for testing the effectiveness of private sector operation of weighbridges. These projects are to be carried out in South Africa's KwaZulu Natal Province, and in Botswana and Namibia.

The road safety situation in Southern Africa has continued to deteriorate despite actions by member States to reverse the trend. ECA, in its continued endeavor to assist member States, has launched a Pan-African Road Safety Initiative, whose overall objective is to improve the road safety situation in Africa substantially, through the implementation of short, medium and long-term targeted programmes in a holistic manner. Under this initiative, a SADC regional project has been designed. Discussions are ongoing with the African Development Bank (AfDB) and the European Union (EU) to secure financial support for the project.

Railways

The Southern African railway network, comprising 14 railways, has been divided into 12 railway corridors. The establishment of these corridors is a requirement of the Protocol. An assessment of corridor performance indicates that the shorter corridors (e.g. Swazi Rail /Richards Bay, Ressano Garcia, etc) seem to be picking up quite well on the concept of corridor-based operations. The longer corridors, on the other hand, (e.g. DRC/Zambia/ Zimbabwe/South Africa) need to make concerted efforts to improve the establishment of seamless service. Total corridor coordination is visibly absent in the latter, thereby adversely affecting the efficiency of service delivery.

To correct this state of affairs, Corridor Management Groups (CMG) for each railway corridor were formed to monitor the performance. The CMG is coordinated by one of the railways in the corridor. This is in an effort to ensure the achievement of the Protocol provisions, which are encompassed in the railway Regional Action Plan, whose key elements are that the railways should provide a seamless and predictable service.

Corridor Performance

A significant development in the sector has been introduction of the Corridor Performance Indicators and Statistics by CMGs. Some 36 indices were selected, covering such key areas as business performance; operations efficiency; safety of operations; infrastructure and equipment; finance and accounting; and human resource development. These were deemed pertinent for the initial and immediate kick-start to the new reporting format.

A review of the corridor performance was undertaken for the last six months of 1999 and the results on the Namibian corridor are given below as an example:

TransNamib/Spoornet (Namibian Corridor) Coordinated by TransNamib Rail

Business: Showed an upward trend compared to the last reporting period. Some 322,611 gross tonnes were moved into Namibia and 150,365 gross tonnes were moved into South Africa, registering a total of 287.1 million net tonne-kilometres (NTKM), 4.5 per cent more than the previous 6-month period. The corridor has more capacity than the traffic on offer.

Operations: Overall performance was good. Trainloads averaged 90 per cent of the maximum tractive capacity. Locomotive (loco) kms per month was 7776, 77.8 per cent of the target of 10,000. Wagon turnaround was 9.6 days against a target of 12 days. The corridor transit time was 2.4 days against a target of 2 days. Time keeping of trains was 97.5per cent on time, better than the target of 95per cent.

Safety: record of this corridor was good. Yard derailments were 0.8 per 100 trains dispatched. Mainline accidents were 0.2 per 100 gross tonne-kilometres (GTKM).

Infrastructure and equipment: Loco availability was good. On TransNamib side an average of 41 Locos were available against a requirement of 38 Locos.

Corridor performance assessment: The indicators suggest very high levels of efficiency and other corridors would be urged to emulate this example. If the targets were set to the preference of the customers then the fact that most of the performance is better than targets is a good marketing tool. In fact the CMG would be advised to revisit the customer preferences with a view to revising the targets to more efficient and challenging levels.

As can be seen from the foregone, the corridor performance indicators offer a very effective way of monitoring the corridor performance.

Maritime Ports and Shipping

In Southern Africa there is a system of 14 ports, which are classified as "regional." Mauritius is served by Port Louis while eight regional ports along the Indian Ocean coast, and six along the Atlantic coast serve Continental SADC. The Indian Ocean ports are Nacala, Beira, Maputo, Richards Bay, Durban, East London and Port Elizabeth. The Atlantic coast ports are Cape Town, Saldanha Bay, Luanda, Lobito and Namibe.

The principal transit ports are Nacala, Beira, Maputo and Durban along the Indian Ocean. During the period under review, these regional ports performed satisfactorily. The Angolan ports of Namibe, Lobito and Luanda, which could potentially serve other countries of the subregion, are not operational owing to the prevailing internal strife in that country.

The combined throughput of all the 14 Southern African ports declined slightly from 203.29 million tonnes in 1998 to 201.32 million tonnes in 1999; a decline of some 1.97 million tonnes or 1.0 per cent. A substantial drop in the volume of containerized cargo at the ports of Beira, Durban and Port Elizabeth was a major contributor to this decline.

Restructuring of the port industry is ongoing in nearly all the member States. This entails creating adequate monitoring and regulatory capability to promote and oversee enhanced private sector financing, management and operation of port terminals and facilities as well as provision of port services. The emerging public/private sector partnership in the port industry means that the subregion's port authorities will, as landlord port authorities, be now largely responsible for promotional, monitoring and regulatory functions.

Port restructuring is proceeding in most of the coastal States of the subregion. In Mozambique, most terminals in the port of Maputo are being managed by concessions while the process to arrange concessions for the remaining port functions are due to be finalized later this year. Meanwhile in South Africa PORTNET was split into two autonomous divisions: a landlord port authority division and a port operations division.

The subregion has not yet dealt adequately with concerns of maritime safety and protection of the marine environment. Several IMO Conventions were identified for ratification by the individual member States through the study completed in February 1998. Further, member States are yet to ratify all IMO Conventions that are instruments for the implementation of the two Memoranda of Understanding on Port State Control: the Indian Ocean MOU on Port State Control signed in June 1998 and the West and Central Africa MOU on Port State Control signed in October 1999.

With regard to further port development, Durban and Maputo require immediate attention as they are already operating either close to or above their nominal container handling capacities. The Angolan ports, though currently underutilized, also require urgent attention because of the prolonged periods of neglect and deterioration. Although the remaining ports may not be in need of urgent attention in terms of additional handling facilities, there is need in all ports for efficiency improvements.

Inland Waterways

The subregional navigable waterways are the Zambezi and Congo River systems and Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, and Lake Malawi/Nyasa/Niassa. A "Lake Shipping and Port Services Agreement", which the two countries signed in 1995, presently govern shipping operations between Malawi and Tanzania on Lake Malawi/Niassa/Nyasa. The main service providers are the Malawi Lake Services Company and the Tanzania Marine Services Company, which are both public enterprises, but are being processed for privatization. The study on the navigability of the Zambezi and Shire rivers is still outstanding. Meanwhile, Mozambique has undertaken a preliminary survey of some 600 km. of the Zambezi River, which has shown that navigation along the river is possible up to the level undertaken in the 1980's when 200 ton-barges were operated.

Civil Aviation

Information on commercial air traffic is incomplete and not up to date, and therefore it is not possible to present a comprehensive and accurate assessment of traffic trends or adequacy to meet market demand for services. It is nevertheless possible to arrive at general conclusions on the status of the civil aviation subsector. These general conclusions are:

- Good progress is being made in the legislative and institutional reform for separation of the government overseer and regulatory role from the role of system development and operation.
- Related to the foregoing, good progress is being made in promoting private sector participation in air transport infrastructure investment, management and operation.
- Regarding air traffic safety the subregion is making satisfactory progress toward reducing air traffic accident risk.
- Principal airports of the region generally have adequate capacity for current levels of passenger traffic, and development programs are underway at some airports.
- The air cargo industry has been slow to develop due to a combination of factors, including particularly inadequate airport cargo terminals and general failure to liberalize market entry into the air cargo service industry.
- Intra-regional air passenger services do not respond to market demand, largely due to restricted market entry but also because some "early entries" into the private airline industry have performed poorly or have even failed to commence operations.

In terms of aviation policy liberalization initiatives, there is growing support from private sector airlines that national airlines wishing to participate in liberalized air transport policies should be privatized. There is need to establish a competitive environment where commercial principles and regulations are effectively enforced.

Airline co-operation in Southern Africa is more prevalent than alliance. Alliance Air, the only multilaterally owned airline within the Southern African subregion is reported to be making huge losses. There are co-operation successes in terms of code sharing and franchising involving regional and foreign partners but there is not much change from the code-sharing arrangements reported last year. Some of these arrangements are transforming to ownership. For example, British Airways has bought shares in Comair and Swissair Group has bought into South African Airways.

Linhas Aéreas de Angola (TAAG) continues with its code-share arrangement with Air Namibia between Windhoek, Luanda and Lubango. It also has a code-share arrangement with Air Portugal on the Luanda – Lisbon route. *Linhas Aereas de Mocambique (LAM)* code shares with TAP between Maputo and Lisbon. Air Namibia also code-shares a flight with (LTU) to Frankfurt and has a blocked space arrangement on flights between Namibia and South Africa with BA-Comair. It intends to enter into a strategic alliance with South African Airways and stop its partnership with both LTU and BA.

Zimbabwe Express and Sun Air, which concluded partnership agreements last year, both terminated operations. Air Zimbabwe (UM) continues with its code-sharing arrangement with Quantas, Air Malawi and Air Botswana.

The commercial agreements between Aero Zambia with Ethiopian Airlines and Air Zimbabwe did not go far since Aero Zambia stopped its operations. The Air Zimbabwe/Air Malawi code share arrangement for flights to London using the UM B767 has been scrapped. Similarly the Air Tanzania/Air Malawi joint ventures for the Dar Es Salaam-Johannesburg and Dar Es Salaam-Dubai routes have stopped. For the Dubai route Air Tanzania code shares with Gulf Air using the later airline's aircraft. The expected partnerships between LAM, Air Malawi and Air Zimbabwe did not materialize. Air Zimbabwe's intention to reestablish its partnership with Uganda Airlines and find a partner in Tanzania is nowhere near fruition.

Most Air Mauritius partnerships with other carriers are on a code-share basis. It has code-share ventures with Air India, Air Madagascar, Air Seychelles, Malaysian Airlines, Condor, Austrian Airlines, Singapore Airlines, Swiss Air and Air France. It has commercial bilateral agreements with British Airways, South African Airways, Air Austral and Singapore Airlines. The airline has started to fly between Mauritius and Maputo.

In addition to its code-sharing partnership with Air Mauritius on the Mauritius/Mahe route, Air Seychelles code shares with Air France to Paris and with British Airways on the Nairobi/ Mahe route continue. It also code-shares with Avianova, on flights from Milan and Rome.

South African Airways (SAA) and its subsidiary, South African Express (SAX), and Alliance Air share the same SA code. SAA terminated its code sharing arrangement with American Airlines in favor of its partnership with Swissair alliance group. Other SAA partners include Lufthansa, South African Airlink, Emirates, Scandinavian Airline System, Thai Airways International, Lufthansa and Ghana Airways. On the African scene, SAA has a strategy to establish hubs at Lagos and Entebbe airports in addition to its existing hub at Johannesburg airport.

The status of regional airline co-operation shows clearly that as competition establishes roots, the airlines are moving farther apart from each other with hostility evident among some carriers. There are attempts by some airlines that have already established partnerships with foreign carriers to stop others from doing so by demanding that the other airlines should be sold to them in the name of African renaissance. While there is a growing realization among Southern African airlines that they need to come together to benefit from the unveiling global strategies and trends, the lack of success in their approaches means that they are inappropriate. The attempts made by the airlines of Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe reveal that proximity and interlining are some of the prerequisites for more cooperation and possible voluntary mergers. Such efforts should be encouraged to form a nucleus for strengthening the regional airline industry. Unfortunately, most of the time, these attempts are short-lived.

Regarding air traffic safety, the subregion is in the process of developing an integrated Communications Navigation Surveillance/Air Traffic Management (CNS/ATM) system, and of integrating SADC air space in line with system design. VSAT terminals were established in the remaining member States and this has improved communication tremendously among flight information centres. A SADC Upper Airspace Control Centre is being considered for establishment. Institutional issues associated with this arrangement include legislation, multinational recruitment on merit, creation of one regional organization, identification of the location of the Area Control Centre and setting and overseeing standards and safety oversight mechanisms.

Telecommunications

Good progress has been made in the telecommunications subsector in a number of areas, including the following:

- The exciting developing relationship between the information and telecommunications industries. The number of Internet Service Providers (ISPs) is increasing in the subregion, and the use of electronic mail (e-mail) is growing at a fast pace as a direct result. In 1998, this service grew by 30 per cent. In order to determine policies and strategies that will further accelerate development and use of information technology, the SATCC-TU has prepared a discussion paper that will be considered in the SATCC/SADC structures.
- Equally important, the number of mobile telephone providers is increasing, and use of cellular phones is growing rapidly as a direct result. In 1998, the growth was 60 per cent.
- Regional agreement has been reached on telecommunications policy and model legislation, and on the need for legislative reform to permit implementation of policy. Legislative reform is complete in several member States and should be introduced before the year 2001.
- The active participation of the private sector in the provision of basic telephone services is beginning, and decisions have been made in most member States to privatize, partially or wholly, the government-owned telecommunications entity. As of May 2000, South Africa and Seychelles were still the only member States that had already entered into a strategic partnership for basic telephone services. Tanzania is also about to conclude a strategic partnership agreement. Such agreements will probably be concluded in three other member States (Lesotho, Malawi and Mauritius) by 2000/2001.
- Independent telecommunications regulatory bodies have been established in Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia, while the one in Angola reports directly to the Ministry.
- Regional coordination and cooperation is being strengthened through the transformation of the Southern African Telecommunications Association (SATA) into an industry association and the formation of the Telecommunications Regulators Association of Southern Africa (TRASA).

The impact of reform efforts in the telecommunications subsector can best be seen in the 1998 performance results. The subregion had a telephone density of just 4 per 100 persons in 1997 and reached nearly 5.1 per 100 persons in 1998. Member States reported a particularly good performance between 1995 and 1998:

- Botswana more than doubled the number of telephone lines, reaching the level of 110,000, representing a density of 7.36.
- Mauritius added 90,000 lines, reaching a telephone density of 21 in 1998.

- Namibia increased its network by more than one-third, reaching a 7.5 telephone density in 1998.
- South Africa expanded its installed telephone network by more than 1.3 million lines during the three-year period, reaching a telephone density of approximately 11.9 in 1998.

Other countries have also made progress, but telephone densities in five member States still remain below 1.

Postal Services

The Regional Postal network and systems are adequate in terms of coverage in rural and urban areas in most member States. However, the unit costs remain high and service-delivery standards are low throughout the subregion. The industry is facing intense competition from outside. From the standpoint of the users of communications services, it is a very good thing indeed that the telecommunications, information and courier industries are providing services that were largely unavailable a few years ago, or were available only at high prices. These industries are now becoming increasingly competitive.

From the standpoint of the postal services industry, its market is eroding. The financial health of the industry, never particularly good, is in jeopardy of worsening, unless effective action can be taken to halt market erosion. In 1999, the number of parcels posted and delivered by the subregion's postal industry continued to decline, by an alarming 34 per cent compared to 1998. The number of letters handled in ordinary mail service also decreased by about 12 per cent.

The subregion will be best served by communications services if the postal services industry can become sufficiently competitive to halt the erosion of its market, or at least to limit the amount of market erosion. with regard to remedial approaches, postal services can "borrow" or otherwise "use" some of the strategies of its competitors. The industry is, in fact, already "borrowing" its "track and trace" system from the courier industry. The industry also recognizes that it is not sufficient to just achieve service improvements; it is also necessary to ensure that the general public is aware of such improvements.

Where the introduction of new services is concerned, postal services has advantage of its geographically extensive network of post offices and postal agents. The industry is planning to use this comparative advantage by providing the masses with e-mail services, currently used by only a small percentage of the population. However, the postal industry has only a window of opportunity in regard to these services, as the number of direct e-mail users is rising rapidly in the subregion. Thus, if a scheme to offer e-mail services is to help to secure the postal services market share, the scheme must be implemented within a short period.

Early implementation of an e-mail single-day delivery scheme probably requires the involvement of private sector, joint-venture partners, for reasons of planning and design, as well as for the investment required. South Africa, in 1999, led the way by entering into strategic partnership with an international operator for management of its postal services. It is expected that others will soon also follow this trend.

The industry is also undergoing fundamental changes in policy, regulatory and operational framework as public and private operators are allowed to compete on equal footing. Postal operations are being separated from regulatory functions although the majority of member States have not yet established independent regulatory bodies. At least five member States have regulatory authorities (Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa). A few other countries are in the final stages of doing so. It is anticipated that the remaining member States will have a regulatory framework incorporated into national laws on the basis of the Model Legislative Provisions on Postal Services. At regional level, the Postal operators and, to some extent the Regulators, are in the process of establishing their respective subregional bodies. Thus, the Southern Africa Postal Operators Association (SAPOA) is expected to be established within 12 months from April 2000.

Mining

Mining continued to be the major foreign exchange earner in most economies of the subregion, contributing to approximately 10 per cent of sub-regional GDP and over 60 per cent of foreign exchange earnings. However, the repercussions of the East Asian economic crisis of 1998 greatly affected the sector, particularly when the world's second largest mineral consumer, Japan, went into an economic recession. This situation resulted in low mineral commodity prices, whose overall index increased only by 9.2 per cent in the third quarter 2000 from 15.5 per cent in the second quarter. One of the most affected commodities was copper, whose price dropped by 11.5 per cent in the third quarter 2000.

Low commodity prices precipitated the closure of a number of mines. This was accompanied by laying-off of workers. Declining world demand of asbestos, for example, precipitated mine closures and job losses in the asbestos-producing mines in South Africa, while the closure of the Hartley Platinum Mine in Zimbabwe in June 1999 also caused loss of employment for over 3000 people.

Despite the adverse developments mentioned above, the mining industry continued to be attractive and to receive new investments. Examples include the $US 300 million Skorpion Zinc project near Orangemund in Namibia; the Ngezi project in Zimbabwe; the two Amplats projects in South Africa (Bafokeng Rasimone and Maandagshoek); the $62.5 million nickel expansion project by Tati Nickel Mining in Botswana; and the privatization of ZCCM in Zambia, to name just a few.

These new investment projects, coupled with the recovery in the industrialized and emerging countries in Asia, are expected to boost further the performance of the mines in the subregion. More importantly, the new investments are expected to contribute to employment creation in the mining industry. The promotion of a jewelry fabrication industry in South Africa, for example, is expected to lead to creation of up to 250,000 jobs by the end of the first decade of this century.

Energy

Member States continued to implement important economic policy measures to create a more enabling environment for energy development and trade in the subregion. In the electricity subsector, for example, this has led to the participation by new actors, and utilities have greater flexibility to fix tariffs and make investment decisions based on market principles. Similarly, in the oil refining and marketing system, significant restructuring is under way in most countries. Although at different stages, the progress already made by some countries towards commercialization of utilities and increased scope for private sector participation is commendable.

The present era of globalization and liberalization poses a set of challenges in the struggle to provide economically efficient, socially equitable and environmentally sustainable energy services in the subregion. Such challenges include, among others:

- Deregulation of the petroleum industry;
- Restructuring of the electricity supply sector;
- Increasing environmental concerns;
- Changing energy demand profiles; and
- Access/generation of adequate capital to sustain the implementation of development projects.

A scenario of unmatched supply/demand balance still prevails, although in aggregate, the resources, and even the installed supply capacity, do exist and largely cover the energy demand. There are surpluses of electricity, coal, and petroleum, which do not benefit all the areas when and where a deficit-supply situation occurs.

Although Angola is the only oil producer, the subregion is endowed with huge new and renewable energy resources (NRSE), such as:

- Solar energy for electricity generation and heating;
- Wind energy for water pumping and electricity generation, especially on the coastal areas; and
- Mini and micro-hydro power potential for electricity generation and mill grinding.

Despite this availability of energy resources, most of the population in the subregion live in the diverse rural and periurban areas, with no access to electricity and are dependent on wood fuel. Thus, about 75 per cent of the total domestic energy consumption is wood fuel-based, which contributes to environmental degradation.

In order to increase accessibility to this important factor of development at affordable prices with a sustained quality of service, important steps are being undertaken. These steps are mainly in the area of training, the establishment of fair energy tariffs, strengthening of the existing interconnections and promotion of new interconnections, particularly to those countries that are not yet covered by the subregional grid.

Controversy over critical issues that have already been highlighted still persists. Consensus is still to be achieved on issues such as the practice of establishing tariffs, which do not reflect the costs upstream, thus decapitalizing the utilities, and the slow pace of the process of establishing the new Cahora Bassa energy tariffs.

As of 1999, the total electricity net supply in the subregion amounted to about 207.285 GW/h, a 4.2 per cent increase over the 1998 figure. The total annual maximum demand in 1999 went up to 35.013 MW, exceeding the 32.117 MW registered in 1998 by 9 per cent. The installed capacity stood at 46,020 MW.[6]

[6] SAPP Annual Report, 1999

The total energy consumption figures in Southern Africa are still not an accurate reflection of demand. In most countries, low income prevents electricity supply utilities from expanding networks sufficiently to reach all customers. Besides the low-income constraint, the inability of the majority of Southern Africa utilities to meet demand is typically a reflection of financial weakness, the root cause of which is again the tariff policy.

On the other hand, recent worldwide concern about environment and climate change has stimulated interest in NRSE technologies, as one way of mitigating against the greenhouse effect caused by increased use of fossil fuels. These two facts, combined with the huge NRSE potential in the subregion, if efficiently managed, can contribute significantly to the energy equation and thereby contribute to reduction of greenhouse effects.

Tourism

Tourism is increasingly becoming one of the world's fastest growing industries. On account of its socio-cultural and economic dynamics, it constitutes an excellent instrument for promoting economic development, understanding, goodwill and close relations between peoples.

World tourist arrivals maintained the same level of growth in 1998 as in 1997 (i.e. 2.4 per cent) and reached 625 million, while tourism receipts (excluding international transport) grew to $US 445 billion. The African continent showed the strongest expansion in tourist arrivals in 1998, up by 7.5 per cent over the 1997 level, although receipts increased more moderately in Africa by 5.9 per cent (table 3).

However, in 1998, Africa received only 4 per cent of international tourists and earned only 2 per cent of the global tourism receipts, as compared to other destinations. Clearly, there is room for improvement. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), total international arrivals reached 692 million in the year 2000, and will reach 1 billion by 2010 and 1.6 billion by 2020. The growth rate of tourist arrivals in Africa is expected to be 5.5 per cent between 1995 and 2020.

Region	Tourist arrivals (Thousands)		% Change		Tourism receipts ($US billion)		% Change	
	1997	1998	96/97	97/98	1997	1998	96/97	97/98
Southern Africa	10.58	11.48	6.5	8.5	4.3	4.5	13.1	4.3
Africa	23	25	6.1	7.5	9	10	3.3	5.9
Americas	118	120	1.3	1.4	119	121	5.6	2.1
East Asia/Pacific	88	87	-1.2	-1.2	77	74	-6.9	-3.8
Europe	362	373	3.2	3.0	218	226	-0.8	3.6
Middle East	15	16	5.3	5.3	9	10	10.8	6.4
South Asia	5	5	8.9	5.0	4	4	8.4	2.8
World	611	625	2.4	2.4	436	445	0.1	2.0

Table 3

World Tourist Arrivals and Receipts by region, 1997-1998

Source: World Tourism Organization, 1999

Southern Africa has an immense untapped potential for tourism development – unique natural, cultural and historic resources. The tourist attractions include wildlife, a rich variety of wilderness areas, natural wonders of the world, sandy beaches, mountain ranges and round-the-year sunshine.

The objectives of the SADC tourism sector portfolio are to bridge the gaps in the nature, quality and extent of tourism development of member countries in a phased manner and to harmonize policies to achieve higher economic growth in the subregion. Tourism is one of the catalytic sectors for integration as it is linked to almost all other sectors and is increasingly becoming a major foreign exchange earner in the subregion. However, member countries have very different levels of tourism development, as shown in table 4 below.

In 1998, the Southern Africa subregion received some 11.5 million tourists and tourism receipts increased from $3,162 million in 1995 to $4,448 in 1998, excluding Mozambique on which data are not available. However, no direct correlation exists between tourist arrivals and tourism receipts in the subregion, mainly due to different levels of tourism development.

The Protocol on the Development of Tourism was signed in Mauritius on 14 September 1998 during the SADC Summit. All member States, with the exception of Angola, signed the Protocol. Its objective is to use tourism as a vehicle to achieve sustainable social and economic development through full realization of its potential and to ensure equitable, balanced and complimentary development of the industry throughout the subregion.

Country	GNP ($US m)	Per capita GNP (US$)	Tourism receipts as % of		
			GNP	Merchandise Exports	Commercial services Exports
Angola	3835	340	0.2	0.2	3.4
Botswana	4922	3260	3.7	8.6	112.9
Lesotho	1378	670	1.5	-	52.6
Malawi	2261	220	0.3	1.5	31.8
Mauritius	4347	3800	10.9	29.4	51.7
Mozambique	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Namibia	3606	2220	9.3	24.9	91.6
South Africa	130151	3400	1.8	7.7	45.3
Swaziland	1369	1440	2.9	4.5	35.7
Zambia	3574	380	2.1	8.3	90.4
Zimbabwe	8613	750	2.7	9.2	60.1

Table 4

Tourism in Southern African Countries, 1997

Source: World Tourism Organization, Tourism Market Trends, 1999

n/a = Not available

The Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA) was established in 1996 to form a partnership between governments and the private sector. The mandate of RETOSA is to market and promote the subregion in close cooperation with the national tourist organizations and the private sector. This was aimed at creating a concrete destination identity in the market for the subregion to compete effectively. In this regard, RETOSA, in collaboration with the World Travel and Tourism Council, carried out an economic impact study of tourism in the SADC subregion. The study revealed the untapped potential for tourism development in the subregion.

Within the SADC context, member States have agreed to introduce a single visa requirement system (UNIVISA) in the subregion. A committee has been established to develop a model framework and design for UNIVISA forms and implementation guidelines. Furthermore, member States have agreed to exempt tourists from the main source countries effective 1st January 2001. Countries include UK, USA, BENELUX countries, Australia, Germany, France, Portugal, Spain and Japan.

IV. SOCIAL SITUATION

Health

A proper analysis of health conditions in Southern Africa needs to take into consideration the historical, social and economic context. On average, Southern African citizens appear to have better access to health services than in other subregions of the continent. However, there is wide variation within the countries.

Generally, health conditions in Southern Africa did not improve much during the period under review. The health sector was characterized by a high outbreak of transmissible diseases. The prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS in the sub-region is estimated to be as high as one in five people, or 20 per cent, in some countries. This makes the pandemic the single largest threat to development in the subregion. Furthermore, the generally high levels of poverty, unemployment and poor health infrastructure impact negatively on the health status of the population

Lack of access to safe drinking water and sanitation, especially during the rainy season, increases outbreaks of waterborne diseases and aggravates the already poor health conditions. Angola has the lowest percentage of population with access to safe water and sanitation in the subregion. Those with access to safe water and sanitation were estimated at 31 and 38 per cent, respectively. On the other hand, nearly 100 per cent of the people in Mauritius had access to safe water and sanitation, followed by Zimbabwe with 77 and 66 per cent, respectively.

In order to address and improve the status of health in the subregion, the SADC Council of Ministers approved the Health Policy Framework and Priority Programmes in September 1998. These address five priority concerns, namely HIV/AIDS, communicable diseases, especially TB and malaria, standardization of health information systems, resource mobilization and reproductive health. Furthermore, in order to improve coordination, the SADC Health Protocol was signed by the Heads of State Summit in Maputo in 1999.

Other major developments recorded in the sector during the period under review include the formulation of a multisectoral programme to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic. In this respect, a SADC HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework and Programme of Action, which covers seven identified SADC sectors, was finalized for implementation by the end of 2000.

A major challenge facing member States remains the formulation, implementation and monitoring of appropriate programmes at the national level. Mobilizing resources for the programmes is another challenge. In this respect, partnerships with relevant organizations including WHO, FAO, UNICEF, developed countries and international organizations involved in health-related activities in the subregion should be encouraged.

The relatively higher prevalence of HIV/AIDS in Southern African countries is well documented. Globally and regionally, the Southern African countries are comparatively the most affected by the scourge. Member States in the subregion view it as a major development challenge of the 21st century, which presents serious constraints to economic, social, cultural and political development. For example, the infection rates are 1 in 3 for Botswana, 1 in 5 for South Africa, and 1 in 4 for Zimbabwe. Based on UNAIDS figures on HIV prevalence rate among the 15 to 49 years age group, Zambia for instance in 1998 was at 20 per cent, Botswana 36 per cent, Swaziland 25 per cent, Zimbabwe 25 per cent, Lesotho 24 per cent, South Africa 20 per cent, Namibia 20 per cent, and Malawi 16 per cent.[7]

A recent survey by UNAIDS estimates a total of about 12 million people living with HIV/AIDS in 12 countries of Southern Africa at the end of 1999, out of which 6,384,000 were women, and 892,500 were children. During the same period in these countries, the cumulative number of deaths from AIDS was estimated at 973,700. The total number of AIDS-related orphans reached 4,652,500 (table 5).

HIV/AIDS Estimates									
	1. People living with HIV/AIDS, end 1999					2. AIDS Orphans	3.AIDS deaths, 1999	4. Population 1999	
Country	Adults and children	Adults (15-49)	Adults (%)	Women (15-49)	Children (0-14)	Orphans, cumulative	Adults and children	Total (000)	Adult (000)
Angola	160000	150000	2.78	82000	7900	98000	15000	12497	5389
Botswana	290000	280000	35.8	150000	3000	22000	5600	5945	27330
Lesotho	240000	240000	23.57	130000	8200	3500	16000	2108	998
Malawi	800000	760000	15.96	420000	40000	390000	70000	10674	4733
Mauritius	---	500	0.08	---	---	---	---	1149	647
Mozambique	1200000	1100000	13.22	630000	520000	310000	98000	19222	8607
Namibia	160000	150000	19.54	85000	6600	67000	18000	1689	790
South Africa	4200000	4100000	19.94	2300000	95000	420000	250000	39796	20630
Swaziland	130000	1200000	25.25	67000	3800	12000	7100	981	480
Zambia	870000	830000	19.95	450000	40000	650000	99000	8974	4137
Zimbabwe	1500000	1400000	25.06	800000	56000	900000	160000	11509	5771
Total	11950000	11430500		6384000	892500	4652500	973700	197750	116144

Table 5

Report on Southern Africa HIV/AIDS Epidemic, June 2000

Source: UNAIDS, Report on the Global HIV/AIDS Epidemic, June 2000

The disproportionately high level and impact of the pandemic on women and children has also been recognized and documented. Estimated HIV- prevalence among females in the 15-24 age group is around 18 per cent, compared to 8 per cent for males.[8] Some of the factors, which place women and the girl-child at greater risk to HIV/AIDS than men include:

- Women having relatively less control over the process of the possibilities of contracting the disease;
- Macro-economic, social, cultural and political factors that exacerbate gender inequalities;
- Older men exploiting young girls;

[7]TIME, July 24, 2000. Durban Conference on HIV/AIDS
[8]UNAIDS 2000a p. 125

- Women's biological and socio-cultural factors;
- Lack of information on HIV/AIDS; and
- Sexual and other violence against women.

It is no accident, therefore, that during the mid-decade review of Beijing + 5 organized by the Economic Commission for Africa in November 1999, the HIV/AIDS pandemic was highlighted as a major hindrance in the implementation of the recommendations of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action.

Since the scourge and impact of HIV/AIDS cut across national borders and is a cross-cutting issue in all the development sectors of society, SADC Ministers adopted the SADC HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework and Programme 2000-2004. This aims at decentralizing HIV/AIDS responses to all the development sectors in SADC countries.

The *African Consensus and Plan of Action: Leadership to Overcome HIV/AIDS,* adopted at the African Development Forum 2000 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, offers hope in the fight against HIV/AIDS in Africa if implemented fully and without delay. The Consensus and Plan of Action stress the importance of leadership at personal, community, national and regional levels as key in reducing the devastating effect and impact of HIV/AIDS. It equally recognizes the importance of international partnerships in reducing the disease.

It is clear that countries in the subregion have, at national level, been concerned with the loss of active people in all economic and social sectors. Many countries have developed programmes and policies to deal with HIV/AIDS and others have already put in place the necessary structures to coordinate activities. Such efforts need to be strengthened. The African Consensus and Plan of Action should give impetus to accelerating the effectiveness of community, national and regional programmes on HIV/AIDS.

The following action is recommended in the countries in order to improve the health status of their people:

- Focus on the implementation of primary health-care programmes and activities and involve partnership and community participation in various aspects of programme formulation and implementation;
- Assist vulnerable groups to have access to health-care services;
- Facilitate access to safe-drinking water and sanitation as a way of preventing waterborne diseases, which are responsible for many of the diseases;
- Ensure that the WHO Roll-Back Malaria Campaign is implemented;
- Support the implementation of national and SADC Regional Programme of Action on HIV/AIDS; and
- Implement the African Consensus and Plan of Action.

Education

Southern African countries recognize the importance of education as a vehicle for successfully competing in the global economy. Over the past few years, many countries adopted international conventions on educational development and undertook policy reform measures. These put emphasis on, inter-alia, universal basic education. As a result, many countries have achieved net enrolment rates (NER) of 80-100 per cent in primary education (see table 6). However, this contrasts starkly with enrolment at both secondary and tertiary levels, which still remain significantly low, ranging from 1.5 to 53.3 per cent. In most countries, less than 50 per cent of students in primary education progress to secondary school level, while, on average, less than 1 per cent of students in secondary education progress to higher education and training. Member States are making efforts in widening access to education at all levels.

Country	Total NER (%)	NER Boys (%)	NER Girls (%)	Public expenditure on education as % of GNP
Angola	39	49	31	...
Botswana	96	95	97	8.5
Lesotho	67	62	72	4.8
Malawi	83	83	83	...
Mauritius	99	98	99	...
Mozambique	36	40	32	...
Namibia	95	93	98	8.7
South Africa	94	95	93	7.1
Swaziland	80	79	80	6.8
Zambia	81	85	77	2.6
Zimbabwe	86	...	...	...

Table 6

Primary School Enrolment Rates and Public Expenditure on Education, 1998

Sources: UNICEF, Eastern and Southern Africa Office, "Progress in Social Sectors in Eastern and Southern Africa in the 1990s: A UNICEF Perspective", ECA/UNDP/WSSD/ESASR/1/3, March 1999.

... = Data not available.

In addition, member States have adopted programmes to increase the enrolment rates of girls compared to boys, particularly in Malawi and Zambia. Malawi is implementing the Girls' Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE) while Zambia is implementing a Programme for the Advancement of Girl Child Education (PAGE). These efforts demand more resources if they are to make a dent in improvement of the status of the girl child and of women, by empowering them to contribute more effectively to socio-economic development.

Despite efforts to provide Education for All by the year 2000, at the dawn of the twenty-first century only a few countries are close to achieving this goal. As in other African countries, deteriorating economic conditions, unsustainable debt and high population growth rates have hindered expansion and improvements in education. In addition, efforts to improve quality in the education system in Southern Africa are being undermined by a number of factors including high pupil/teacher ratios, high classroom/pupil ratios, and a high proportion of unqualified teachers, besides inadequate textbooks and instruction materials. Very few countries meet the international standard of the maximum 34 pupil-to- teacher ratio. This situation is even worse when only trained teachers are taken into consideration.

Further efforts to implement the SADC Protocol on Education and Training towards the attainment of universal education by 2005 are required. In Namibia, for example, Government indicated that it is committed to universal education, which features compulsory primary education. Considerable progress has been made to increase enrolment in primary schools, although high dropout rates remain a major cause of concern. On the other hand, Swaziland is reported to have almost achieved full access to primary education. Mozambique expects to achieve universal primary education by 2006.

Many countries have realized the need for education to reflect vocational needs, thus enhancing the employability and capacity for further training of school leavers. This is being done, for example, in Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zambia. Furthermore, during the period under review, Southern African member States continued to re-orient activities to improve education and training systems and an implementation plan was put in place for the operationalization of the SADC Protocol on Education and Training.

Member States, in their further efforts in improving education, should continue to pay attention to:

- The four areas of action identified in the Harare Programme of Action of the Decade of Education in Africa - 1992-2006, which are equity and access to education; quality, relevance and effectiveness of education; complementary learning modalities; and capacity building;
- The issues in the SADC Protocol on Education and Training;
- Issues on education as reflected in the United Nations Special Initiative on Africa (UNSIA);
- The linkages of education to employment demands with particular emphasis on vocational preparation for employment in the informal sector;
- The education needs for women and the girl child as a way to empower them to play greater roles in socio-economic development;
- Cost sharing and partnership in education reform programmes; those who cannot afford to pay for education in cost-sharing programmes should be assisted through specific programmes for vulnerable groups;
- The introduction of Information, Communication and Technology (ICT) training at an early stage as ICT enhances the education and learning process essential for accelerated socio-economic development.

Migration, Labour and Employment

Migration issues in Southern Africa have their historical background to colonial history in the development of the sub-region with a strong dependence on South Africa. Thus, labor migration has had significant implications for Southern Africa member States. Labor migration attracted a lot of attention during the late 70s and led to a Conference on Migratory Labor in Southern Africa in April 1978 in Lusaka, Zambia, under the auspices of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. Currently the International Organization for Migration (IOM) is working with SADC on migration related issues.

Some countries in the past relied heavily on remittances from migrant workers employed in South Africa. Over time South Africa has tended to reduce their number to ensure use of South African labor. Both legal and illegal (irregular or undocumented) migration has been of concern, particularly in South Africa. According to South African Government, Ministry of Home Affairs, 96,515 undocumented/illegal migrants were deported in 1996 to different countries in the sub-region. In 1999, some 160,000 illegal immigrants were deported.[9]

Since independence, South Africa has experienced emigration of persons with skilled labor while there has been a significant flow of skilled labor into the country from other SADC member States as well as from outside the subregion. There has also been skilled labor moving from other Southern African countries to Botswana and Namibia. Both of these countries currently consider that the levels of immigration are too high.

Gender issues related to labor migration in Southern Africa have not been given much attention. There is need to mainstream gender issues into migration, labour and employment programmes.

Labour migration in Southern Africa, with special reference to South Africa, is currently raising issues of the human rights of migrants who, in some cases, are reported to be inadequately protected according to international conventions. Some countries have not even ratified some of the conventions on migrant labour.

SADC formulated a Draft Protocol on Free Movement of Persons within SADC in 1995. The Draft was changed in 1997 into a Draft Protocol on Facilitation of Movement of Persons in SADC. The SADC Summit considered the revised Drafts in 1998 and 1999 and further refinements are still required.

In 2000, member States continued to address major employment and labour challenges facing the subregion by making efforts to put in place appropriate economic and social policies to tackle the problem of declining employment opportunities, low levels of productivity and increased social insecurity and poverty levels. Particular attention was paid to the problem of combating child labour through the observation and implementation of new standards on the most intolerable forms of child labour.

Most of the strategies and policies to address problems of increasing unemployment levels are integral components of programmes to reduce poverty in many countries in the subregion. Preparation of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) has become a condition for member States in order to access debt relief for poverty reduction programmes funding. These include establishment of targets on poverty reduction. In Mozambique, for example, the Government has set a target of reducing the absolute poverty level from 70 per cent in 2000 to less than 50 per cent in 2010. In Zambia the target is to reduce poverty from 73 per cent in the late 1990s to 50 per cent by 2004.

The demographic pressure of youthful population aggravates the unemployment and poverty levels where economic and social conditions are continually getting worse. Moreover, the education system does not adequately prepare the youth that come out of the school system to find gainful employment and contribute to socio-economic development. To address this problem, the policy reforms in some countries promote micro- and small-scale enterprises with special focus on self-employment of the youth, women and retrenched workers. In Zambia, for example, a programme called Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship (TEVET) is being implemented. It focuses on training and capacity building to meet the needs of the informal sector.

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[9]Jonathan C. Momba. University of Zambia "The Causes and Magnitude and Socio-Economic Impact of Labour Migration in the Southern African Development Community: An Overview". Paper presented at the Regional Seminar on Labour Migration within the Southern African Development Community, held in Lusaka, Zambia 6-9 March 2000

Lack of time series data makes it difficult to assess progress over time in the employment situation. Nevertheless, recent country reports prepared for a number of follow-up meetings to international and regional conferences provide some indications on the employment and unemployment situation in some member States. These indicate a decline in formal sector employment as a result of the economic restructuring process and constraints being experienced by most member States. In addition, member States have continued to face urban unemployment and declining wages, particularly in the public sector.

The member States in Southern Africa need to continue addressing the sensitive issues of migration, labour and employment collectively and individually towards the development of the subregion. In doing so, there is need for member States to work towards:

- Harmonizing labour migration policies and legislation in the SADC subregion;
- Fostering even distribution of investment and development in the subregion in order to reduce the pull and push factors of migration;
- Improving data collection, analysis and research and development of databases on migration;
- Mainstreaming gender issues in migration and overall development programmes and activities;
- Improving rural development programmes with a bias on increasing employment in agriculture as well as increasing productivity to ensure food security;
- Encouraging development and expansion of small-scale to medium enterprises as well as improving the working conditions and environment in the informal sector;
- Influencing demographic variables to reduce the high population growth rates, which aggravate problems of unemployment;
- Giving special attention to vocational training for informal sector employment;
- Exchanging information and learning experiences from tested employment-generating programmes and activities, which have worked elsewhere;
- Implementation of the Commitment 3 of the 1995 World Summit for Social Development with regard to the goal of full employment as a priority of economic and social policies;
- Job training and placement of retrenched workers;
- Addressing the growing youth unemployment through training programmes of self-employment.

V. ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

Global Perspective

The need to improve the well being of the women of the world is the force behind the United Nations launching of the global Conferences on Women (Mexico 1975, Copenhagen 1980; Nairobi 1985; and Beijing 1995). The first three conferences culminated in the adoption of the "Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women" and the Beijing Conference evaluated the implementation of the Nairobi Strategy.

The Beijing Platform for Action (PFA) identified twelve critical areas of concern to be addressed:

- Women and poverty
- Education and training of women and girls
- Women and health
- Violence against women.
- Women and armed conflict;
- Women and the economy;
- Women in power and decision-making;
- Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women.
- Human rights of women;
- Women and the media;
- Women and the environment;
- The girl-child.

Political will and commitment to implement the critical areas of concern has been demonstrated by member States through adoption of the Beijing recommendations and most countries have created an environment conducive to addressing gender issues and enhancing the status of women. In order to put in place mechanisms that would link the commitments taken at the international level with national policies and programmes for the advancement of women, at the continental level, each of the five regional commissions of the United Nations was given the mandate. In Africa, therefore, the Economic Commission for Africa is charged with this task.

In Africa, most of the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and Inter-Governmental Organizations (IGOs) formed to reinforce economic integration within their member States have established networks or specialized services to promote the advancement of women. Some subregional IGOs however, tend to leave the issues of advancement of women to the structures under national sovereignty.

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) is a laudable example for having developed a gender policy and the institutional framework for its implementation. The 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender Development and the Plan of Action adopted in 1998 gives member States ownership, empowerment and accountability for measures to address the issue of the advancement of women in the subregion.

All Southern African member States have adopted the recommendations of the Beijing Platform for Action. While all critical areas of the Platform are being addressed, each member State focuses on a few areas of national priority concern. Without exception, all SADC member States have selected to address *Women and poverty* and *Women in power and decision-making*. This came out of an analysis of national reports in preparation for the Mid-Decade Review for the Beijing + 5 Conference organized by ECA in Addis Ababa in November 1999. The following will, therefore, focus on progress in these two areas in the subregion in the reporting period.

Women, Poverty and Economic Empowerment

Women and poverty was considered the top priority issue in the Beijing Platform. It is no accident, therefore, that all the member States in Africa identified it as their first priority concern to be addressed. This is also in response to Commitment Number 5 of the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD), namely *"A commitment to promote full respect for human dignity and to achieve equality and equity between women and men, and to recognize and enhance participation and leadership roles of women in political, civil, economic, social and cultural life in development."* [10]

Not much change has occurred since 1995, however. For the mid-term review for Beijing + 5 during the Addis Ababa meeting, a synthesis of national reports revealed that approximately 44 per cent of Africa's population, the majority of whom are women, still live below the poverty line. The disproportionate burden of poverty shared by women on the continent has continued to increase since 1995 in both absolute and relevant terms. Macro- and micro-economic policies and programmes and development strategies had rarely been designed to take account of their impact on women and girl children, especially those living in poverty.[11]

A review of national economies in Southern Africa sends a clear message of gender inequalities, which contribute to aggravating poverty among the majority of women in the subregion. Inequalities in access to productive resources such as credit, collateral facility, land and support services (skills training and extension services) are reported in Namibia, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe.[12]

The majority of women in the subregion are in the traditional occupations such as domestic and household service, as well as agriculture, where their contribution is not accounted for. Wide disparities between men and women characterize formal sector employment. Several countries report that women are concentrated in nursing and paramedical occupations, teaching, clerical and sales jobs.[13] Further, there is an under-representation of women in technical fields. Based on 1998 figures, in South Africa, women artisans, apprentices and related occupations comprised 5.1 per cent; transport, delivery, communications occupations 5.9 per cent; registered engineers 3.1 per cent; judges or magistrates 9.6 per cent. During the same period in the service sector, 75 per cent of domestic workers were women.

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[10] ICSW –The Copenhagen Consensus 1995

[11] ECA-Sixth African Regional Conference Report November 1999

[12] Beyond Inequalities - Southern Africa Research and Documentation Centre (SARDC) 1998.

[13] Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Mauritius, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

It is encouraging to note that in the manufacturing sector in Mauritius, women account for above 60 per cent of the labour force. The major contributing factor is conducive labour laws to women's working conditions, which include maternity benefits and allowances, time off for nursing mothers, optional early retirement, lighter work for expecting mothers, and lighter load carrying by women in industry.[14]

While advocacy to have measures in place to bridge the gender gap in the formal and informal employment, the issues of women land rights is being pursued with intensity. Most women living in poverty are in the rural areas, yet they lack access to and ownership of land, an essential asset to their livelihood, survival, economic justice and a basis for economic growth and development.[15] Women are both producers and providers of food. They work on land more than any other category of society, providing 80-90 per cent of the labour in subsistence production, and over 70 per cent in cash crop production.

As mentioned above, with the exception of Mauritius and Seychelles, women's limited access to and ownership of land in Southern Africa curtails their ability as producers of food and cash crops. The added constraints include independence land tenure structural inequalities in ownership, which is compounded by the pre-system of commercial farms allocated to minorities. This is the case in Namibia where 4,000 commercial farmers control 44 per cent of arable agricultural land in contrast to 67 per cent of the African population with access to only 41 per cent of mostly poor agricultural land.[16] Women are highly disadvantaged since most commercial farmers are men.

In Zimbabwe, corporations comprise 0.01 per cent of the population but own more than 50 per cent of arable land. The majority of the black farmers (around 3 million) are under the communal land tenure system (resettlement scheme).[17] In both sectors men own and decide on land. There is also direct and indirect access to and ownership or control of land. While women might have access, it is mostly men who have control.

In Lesotho, only 9–10 percent of the land is now arable after gradual decline due to erosion, poor land use and population growth. The chances of women access to land are further limited since land allocation is confined to men.[18]

While Malawi law does not discriminate against women in matters of land ownership, access to land for most people in Malawi is customary and allocated to a family or inherited. As there is no legal title, land cannot be used as collateral.[19]

The situation in Swaziland is mixed, as the economy is dominated by a large, well-developed, foreign-owned private sector. However, agriculture continues to be the major sectoral activity in the country's economy, especially given the current trend of relocation of industries to South Africa. Power on land is vested in the King as Head of State and is divided into Chiefdoms. Land is allocated to individuals for cultivation, residence and communal grazing. It is, however, only accessible to men.

Mining, cattle and livestock farming dominate the Botswana economy. Mining, which does not generate much employment, is mainly a male domain. The long-standing tradition of keeping women from cattle ownership has mainly continued. Beef production is the

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[14]Beyond Inequalities
MAW, SRDC 1997
[15]Akinyi Nzioki -Modalities and Strategies for Women's Access to and Ownership of Land in Eastern Africa.
[16]UNAM, SARDC 1997
[17]ZWRCN, SARDC 1998
[18]WLSA, SARDC 1997
[19]Beyond Inequalities SEMIMA SARDC 1997

most important part of the agricultural production on commercial farms, and it is the sole monopoly of men, who also receive a wide range of subsidies from the Government. In the crop subsistence-farming sector, women comprise about one-third of the total and they are the most resource poor. Access to land is regulated through a male relative and chances are reduced for single women heading families.[20]

Initiatives to ratify these inequalities are mainly through:

- Conducting research on land reform to enhance land rights to women and other disadvantaged groups;
- Advocacy to reform the discriminatory legal policy framework;
- Engendering national constitutions;
- Providing and promoting legal literacy;
- Documenting and disseminating information; and
- Identifying indicators for monitoring progress made on women's land rights.

NGOs in Southern Africa and elsewhere are working tirelessly to enhance women's land rights, through creating strategic linkages among the stakeholders in the whole subregion. Table II.3 in the annex summarizes NGO and land advocacy activities in Eastern and Southern Africa.

A study entitled "*Modalities, Strategies and Mechanisms for Women's Access to and Ownership of Land in Eastern Africa*", which was conducted in 1999, brought to the surface constraining factors similar to those faced in the Southern Africa region. Women's access to and ownership of land is deterred by many factors including:

- Customary laws, for instance inheritance;
- Economic restructuring and land distribution policies have often excluded women;
- Land market remains inaccessible to women due to lack of financial resources; and
- Many African countries are still unwilling to recognize women's rights to property as a basic individual right deriving from their rights as human beings.

Thus, the constraints to women's access to and ownership of land in Africa may be categorized as follows: policy-related barriers; legal and constitutional systems; and African customary and cultural practices.

The plan of action under the study is intended to provide corrective measures at subregional and national levels, on the issue of women's access to and control of land. With a few peculiarities, causes for the inequalities in Eastern Africa are similar to those in Southern Africa. Tables II.4 and II.5 in the annex contain proposed actions at subregional and national level, respectively.

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[20]Ditswanelo, SARDC 1998
Beyond Inequalities, Women in Botswana

Women in Power and Decision Making

Guided by Article 36 of the Beijing Declaration, as signatories to the 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, Heads of State and Government committed themselves to: "Ensuring the equal representation of women and men in the decision making of member states and SADC structures at all levels, and the achievement of at least a thirty per cent target of women in political and decision-making structures by year 2005"[21]

The Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies (1985) set a similar target of thirty per cent, to have been achieved ten years after (1995). The current target is therefore a further extension. The women of the Southern African subregion are putting concerted effort to avoid similar delays and further extensions. To that end, extensive consultative dialogue, research, advocacy, pressure, caucusing and networking are some of the approaches being applied to achieve and even go beyond the thirty per cent target.

In order to assess progress made to achieve the goal set, periodic monitoring is necessary. In this connection therefore, monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the target of 30 per cent and beyond by the year 2005 was conducted during a SADC Conference held in Gaborone on 28 March-1 April 1999.

Simple averaging from member States indicates 15 per cent of those in parliament are women. Angola, Mozambique, South Africa, Seychelles and Tanzania are the only five member States in the SADC subregion with 15 per cent or higher, and three countries (South Africa at 29.8 per cent, Mozambique 28.4 per cent and Seychelles 24 per cent) account for this average.[22] A parliamentary seat is not necessarily a guarantee to a cabinet post. Compared to the average of 15 per cent for women in parliament, the average representation of women in cabinet in the SADC region is 12 per cent.

Action Plan

Following an in-depth assessment and a situational analysis of women in politics and decision making in the SADC subregion, the same Conference drew up a time bound, action-specific programme to address the issue in all the countries at national and subregional levels. The analysis in each country included:

- A highlight of the percentage of women in parliament;
- The percentage at cabinet level;
- Existence and type of special measures for women; and
- Date of the next election.

This analysis guided the subregion on the type and the timing of necessary follow-up action. Major categories of follow-up actions proposed and tailor-made for country specificity include:

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[21]Report of SADC Women in Politics and Decision Making Conference Gaborone, 28 March-1 April 1999
[22]Ibid.

- Lobbying for legislated quotas, review of the electoral system, political parties to increase and honour quotas;
- Establishing a fully-fledged Ministry of Women Affairs;
- Developing and enacting gender policy;
- Reminding Presidents of Southern Africa of their commitment;
- Directing action by Women Caucus;
- Carrying out information dissemination;
- Strategizing on required quotas; and
- Putting pressure on Presidents to get the required action.

In order for women in parliament to make a change for transformation of the system, strategic modalities proposed for support include:

- Capacity building (training, providing information and analysis);
- Networking among women MPs; and
- Internal and external changes in the operational setting, for a gender-sensitive arena and an enabling environment.

VI. CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

Challenges

Globalization and competitiveness are some of the greatest challenges facing African countries, including Southern Africa, in this new century. According to World Economic Forum (2000), out of the 11 Southern African member countries covered by the Centre, which were surveyed, the competitiveness index indicates that four countries were high ranking (Mauritius tops the ranking, followed by Botswana, Namibia and South Africa); five countries were middle ranking (Swaziland, Zambia, Lesotho, Mozambique and Malawi); and only one country, Zimbabwe, was low ranking. This suggests that "... *while some countries still seem caught in critical difficulties, most of them are changing swiftly for the better judging from the pace of democratic elections and economic reform programmes. The perception that Africa is one entire quagmire of poverty, inefficiency and instability is not correct.*"[23]

An uneven economic performance across the countries cannot be avoided. Annual economic improvement or deterioration should, therefore, not be regarded as an overall strength or weakness for a particular country in a particular year. This, however, calls for a serious review and assessment of past and present development policies as well as a thorough examination of new perspectives and possibilities with a view to promoting sustainable economic growth and development and structural transformation of the economy.

The overall policy stance should focus on laying the foundation for buttressing growth and poverty reduction. In this regard, Southern Africa's policy framework should aim at sustaining the economic and structural reforms that have already been undertaken. At the same time, policy should also address other impediments, including institutional weaknesses,

[23]World Economic Forum, The Africa Competitiveness Report, 2000/2001, New York.

governance as well as the establishment of an enabling environment for the private sector. Southern African economies will need to consolidate macroeconomic stability by continuing to undertake sound fiscal and monetary polices including realistic exchange rates and interest rates. In this connection, there will be a need for fiscal consolidation, which would, among other things, involve strengthening tax and customs administration as well as the rationalization of expenditures to social and development sectors such as education, health and infrastructure.

More importantly, there will be need to establish safety nets for addressing poverty and the adverse consequences of economic reforms especially on the poor segments of society. At the same time, and given the limited revenue resources, there will be need to develop incentives to attract the participation of the private sector in the provision of some of the basic social services such as infrastructure, education and health. In the provision of health and education, attention should be paid to the quantity, quality and the equity of these services. More specifically, the expenditure policies need to address the question of equity as regards women and young children who bear the greatest burden of poverty.

Some countries have already begun to diversify and make themselves more attractive for private sector investment. The challenge is to sustain the momentum of diversification in some cases and to jumpstart it, in other cases. This requires removal of the remaining policy distortions and inconsistencies that influence the flow of trade and investment. Specifically, there will be need to speed up the harmonization of economic and financial policies towards the creation of a uniform trade and investment policy environment in the whole sub-region. In addition to harmonization, there will be need for continued coordination of economic policies in order to avoid any distortions that may adversely affect some of the member States. The coordination and harmonization of such policies will be important not only to encourage trade flows among member States, but also, and perhaps more importantly, to provide a wider platform to attract investment.

Progress towards the realization of regional cooperation and integration continued to be dominated by some key impediments, prominent among which is the fear of domination by the member States who are economically stronger. These fears stem mainly from concerns that as the process of integration intensifies through the creation of a uniform investment and trade environment, investors will tend to be attracted to the larger economies and away from the weaker ones. This threatens the sustainability of the whole integration initiative. In order to address these concerns, there will be need to implement specific policies to ensure that the relatively weaker economies gain from the integration initiative. For example, member States could consider cross-border investment from stronger to weaker economies.

Another impediment is the concern of some member States regarding revenue losses that are likely to occur as a result of lowering duties within the sub-region as well as the eventual establishment of a Common External Tariff (CET). This is, in many ways, a short-term problem because as the integration process takes root, there will be dynamic gains that will lead to increased output and will thereby widen the revenue base of all the economies. While the revenue losses may not be a problem in the long run, the short-term losses are real for some members and therefore need to be addressed. In this regard, it will be important to explore some limited compensatory mechanisms that can be phased out as the benefits of integration spread to all the members.

In addition, some member States are delaying implementation of agreed protocols. This is due partly to constitutional and legislative technicalities. In this connection, where such constraints are an impediment to the process of integration, the respective member States need to amend relevant laws and constitutional provisions in order to facilitate integration. For example, the SADC Protocol on Transport, Communications and Meteorology, which came into force in July 1998, sets forth the objectives of the Community in regard to transport, communications and meteorology, and specifies the policies and strategies by which these objectives are to be attained. Prompt ratification and effective implementation of the Protocol is required in order to bring those services up to international standards. Given the increased labour and illegal migration in the subregion, there is need for member States to adopt common policies addressing these issues.

The success of the whole integration initiative depends on the establishment of peace and political stability in the entire subregion and, indeed, in the whole of Africa. As noted earlier, conflicts and instability affect not only the development of the States concerned but also that of their neighbours as well as of their economic partners. In this regard, it is important to intensify efforts towards the restoration of peace and stability in the context of the SADC initiative. At the same time, there is need to devise mechanisms for preventing conflicts by identifying the key triggering factors and dealing with them before they escalate into an all-out conflict. Some of these triggering factors include land distribution, perceived discrimination (regional, ethnic, etc.), as well as perceived inequality in the sharing of development benefits, especially from natural resources.

Prospects for 2001

Prospects for 2001 are driven by developments at the international and domestic level. At the international level, the main factors include prices of such commodities as oil, minerals and agricultural products, and external debt.

A continued increase in oil prices could have serious implications on the global economy. A rise in inflation could lead to significant tightening of monetary conditions and fiscal policy, which could threaten the momentum of global growth. In Southern Africa, stronger oil prices would, no doubt, benefit Angola, the only oil-producing country in the subregion, but would adversely affect terms of trade for the majority of oil-importing countries.

Prospects for firming up non-fuel commodity prices in year 2001 are mixed, mainly due to the high level of stocks of most agricultural commodities, which is likely to slow down price increases. In the case of metals, world economic growth will increase consumption demand and prices are expected to rise. While prospects for 2001 appear positive for developing countries that depend on primary commodities for a substantial share of their export revenues, commodity price volatility poses real challenges, particularly as these countries try to reduce poverty.

At the domestic level, a key factor will be the maintenance of political stability and peace, which are critical to establishing a conducive business and investment climate. Efforts are required to develop more democratic systems that are genuinely pluralistic and ensure that parliaments represent the needs of diverse ethnic groups. Such political changes would do much to empower people and communities and help energize the development process.

Other factors at domestic level include weather conditions and effective implementation of subregional policies and programmes. However, in the absence of unforeseen exogenous shocks, including the vagaries of weather and unstable world commodity prices, the overall prospects for 2001 are bright and encouraging. Preliminary estimates, as reflected in table I.2

of annex I, indicate some degree of recovery. GDP is expected to average 5.5 per cent in 2001, which positively compares with the growth rate of 4.5 per cent in 2000.

The expected relative growth improvement in 2001 is attributed to a number of factors. First, are the new mining projects coming on-stream in the subregion, and these couple with expected improvement in mineral prices. This means significant improvement in the performance of the mining sector. Secondly, the development in trade and investment conditions in the subregion, particularly after the launching of the COMESA Free Trade Area and the coming-into-force of the SADC Trade Protocol. Thirdly, some Southern African countries (Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia) may qualify for the second Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC-2), which would open up major opportunities for growth in the subregion as more resources will be channeled to social infrastructure development than is currently the case. Finally, a better rainy season in the fourth quarter of 2000 has led to improved food production in the subregion, and good harvests are already being recorded in some countries, mainly Malawi, Mauritius and Zambia.

VII. STATISTICAL ANNEX

Annex I

Table I.1: GDP at Current Prices (in $US mill)

COUNTRY	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001E
Angola	7,600	8,100	4,500	5,000	5,245	5.140
Botswana	5,260	5,578	5,504	5,813	5,980	6,309
Lesotho	943	1,024	890	922	884	901
Malawi	2,400	2,600	1,800	1,800	2,000	2,050
Mauritius	4,300	4,100	4,100	4,200	4,700	5,076
Mozambique	2,861	3,438	3,893	4,169	4,284	4,605
Namibia	3,515	3,651	3,440	3,457	3,125	3,387
South Africa	144,600	148,300	135,500	131,100	125,800	129,700
Swaziland	1,219	1,311	1,272	1,278	1,231	1,261
Zambia	3,300	3,900	3,500	3,700	3,700	3,830
Zimbabwe	8,500	8,200	5,900	5,700	5,352	6,949

Sources: SADC Annual Report, 1999/2000 and EIU Country Reports.

E = SRDC-SA Preliminary estimates.

Table I.2: GDP Growth Rates, 1996-2001

COUNTRY	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001E
Angola	10.0	6.2	3.2	2.7	4.9	3.4
Botswana	6.9	4.0	3.5	8.5	5.5	4.8
Lesotho	9.7	4.1	(4.6)	2.0	2.0	2.0
Malawi	9.0	4.9	3.1	4.7	2.5	3.0
Mauritius	5.7	5.5	5.6	3.4	8.0	7.0
Mozambique	7.1	11.1	9.9	10.0	7.5	8.5
Namibia	3.2	4.5	3.5	3.8	3.0	4.8
South Africa	4.2	2.5	0.6	1.9	3.1	3.5
Swaziland	3.6	4.0	2.7	3.1	2.4	3.3
Zambia	6.5	3.4	(2.0)	2.2	3.5	5.0
Zimbabwe	8.7	3.7	2.5	(1.4)	(6.1)	(3.3)

Sources: SADC Annual Report, 1999/2000 and EIU Country Reports and country sources.

E = Preliminary estimates from EIU

Table I.3: GDP Per capita at Current Prices, 1996-2001 (In US$)

COUNTRY	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001E
Angola	673	692	375	403	386	405
Botswana	3,507	3,646	3,506	3,611	3,624	3,824
Lesotho	453	481	404	410	383	390
Malawi	253	268	184	180	196	201
Mauritius	3,909	3,727	3,417	3,500	3,917	4,230
Mozambique	182	214	237	248	249	268
Namibia	1,872	1,762	1,492	1,368	1,096	1,067
South Africa	3,562	3,582	3,211	3,049	2,872	2,961
Swaziland	1,297	1,380	1,325	1,318	1,269	1,300
Zambia	347	398	347	356	346	358
Zimbabwe	759	713	504	479	617	579

Source: EIU Country Reports

E = SRDC-SA Preliminary estimates.

Table I.4: Consumption Price Index, Annual Growth Rate, 1996-2001

COUNTRY	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001E
Angola	1,651.0	147.7	134.8	329.0	241.0	75.0
Botswana	10.1	8.6	6.7	7.1	8.7	6.9
Lesotho	9.3	8.5	7.8	8.7	7.0	6.5
Malawi	37.6	9.2	29.8	44.8	28.4	23.2
Mauritius	6.5	6.8	6.8	6.9	4.6	4.5
Mozambique	16.6	5.8	(1.3)	4.8	12.0	6.0
Namibia	9.1	8.8	6.2	8.6	9.4	7.5
South Africa	7.4	8.5	7.0	5.1	5.8	6.5
Swaziland	6.5	7.2	8.0	5.9	6.4	6.7
Zambia	46.3	24.8	24.3	26.9	27.3	26.1
Zimbabwe	21.4	18.8	31.8	58.5	60.2	63.0

Sources: SADC Annual Report, 1999/2000 and EIU Country Reports

Table I.5: Current Account Balance, 1995-2000 (In US$ Million)

Country	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Angola	-994	-323	-866	-965	-930	-670
Botswana	300	495	721	170	280	425
Lesotho	-323	-303	-269	-280	...	...
Malawi	-410	-151	-65	-307	-248	-315
Mauritius	-22	34	-91	35	-103	-124
Mozambique	-680	-665	-711	-778	-1047	-836
Namibia	324	200	121	87	59	44
South Africa [24]	-2.2	-1.9	-2.3	-1.9	-07	-1.7
Swaziland	21	-46	-48	-7	-50	...
Zambia	-139	-150	-206	-279	-232	-200
Zimbabwe	-368	-179	-827	-344	-360	-380

Sources: World Bank, Global Development Finance, 1999.

EIU, Country Report various issues. National sources.

... = Data not available

Table I.6: External Debt Indicators, 1995-1999 (US$ Million or otherwise stated)

Country	Total External Debt					Debt Service Ratio (Payment %)				
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Angola	11.3	11.5	10.5	10.2	10.5	11.7	15.1	15.5	26.2	19.5
Botswana	703	614	562	549	531	3.2	5.3	2.8	3.9	2.8
Lesotho	659	654	660	675	683	6.9	6.1	6.4	6.5	6.5
Malawi	2,242	2,312	2,206	2,222	...	26.2	16.2	12.4	24.5	...
Mauritius	1,756	1,818	2,472	1,894		9.4	7.1	10.9	7.0	7.7
Mozambique	5,751	5,842	7,300	7,150	7.7	27.5	28.1	24.9	33.5	...
Namibia	380	308	146	128	146	...	...	...	1.2	3.4
South Africa	25.4	26.1	25.2	24.7	27.7	9.5	11.6	12.6	12.7	12.3
Swaziland	235	222	368	251	290	1.8	2.9	2.7	2.1	2.5
Zambia	6.6	6.9	7.2	6.8	6.7	31.4	195	20.5	20.7	31.8
Zimbabwe	4,537	5,053	5,005	4,961	5,501	25.4	23.2	21.6	21.6	18.6
Total	79.5	82.1	81.7	79.2						

Sources: EIU, Country Reports various issues; Economic Report on Africa, 1999 and National sources.

... = Data not available.

a = $US billion

[24]$US billion

Table I.7: External Trade, 1996-2000 (US$ Million unless otherwise stated)

Country	Exports Fob					Imports Fob				
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000E	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000E
Angola	5095	5008	3510	...	...	2041	2477	2014	...	...
Botswana	2218	2820	2061	2651	2911	1468	1925	1983	2015	2050
Lesotho	187	196	193	200	...	999	1024	866	910	...
Malawi	518	546	455	476	492	618	597	537	503	560
Mauritius	1813	1639	1738	1723	1810	2293	2313	2184	2146	2287
Mozambique	226	234	255	280	307	802	855	965	1553	1234
Namibia	1404	1343	1278	1400	1575	1531	1615	1451	1500	1600
South Africa	30.3	31.2	29.2	28.7	31.5	27.6	28.8	27.2	26.6	30.3
Swaziland	850	864	790	825		1050	1041	941	1050	...
Zambia	1093	1135	905	900	1000	965	1144	980	1020	1150
Zimbabwe	2496	2424	2047	2050	2200	2247	2654	1968	2010	2130

Sources: EIU, Country Reports various issues; ECA, ERA, 1999 and National sources.

E = Estimates.

a) = US$ Billion

b) = Imports cif.

... = Data not available

Annex II

Table II.1: Basic Indicators

Country	Land area (Km²)	Population (million)			Population growth rate (%) average
		1990	1995	2000	
Angola	1,247,000	10.02	11.55	12.87	2.7
Botswana	585,000	1.30	1.46	1.62	3.3
Lesotho	30,355	1.78	1.93	2.15	2.6
Malawi	118,484	9.14	9.37	10.92	3.2
Mauritius	1,865	1.06	1.12	1.16	1.0
Mozambique	790,380	14.80	15.40	19.68	3.0
Namibia	824,269	1.34	1.69	1.73	3.0
South Africa	1,223,201	33.27	39.48	40.38	1.9
Swaziland	17,000	0.77	0.91	1.00	2.7
Zambia	752,614	7.80	9.10	10.04	3.2
Zimbabwe	390,757	9.80	11.53	11.67	3.1
Total/Average	9,274,789	152.91	175.92	192.48	2.6

Sources: UN, World Population Prospects, 1999 Revision.

Table II.2: Social Indicators [25]

Country	Life expectancy, 1998 (%)			MMR per 100 000 live births (1990-1996)	Population with access to health services (1990 –1995) (%)
	F	M	T		
Angola	...	...	47	770*	...
Botswana	69.8*	65.4*	67.3	326	87.0
Lesotho	62*	52*	56*	282	80
Malawi	42	41	41	620	80
Mauritius	74*	67*	71	52*	100
Mozambique	48	45	46	1500	39
Namibia	63	59	61	225*	59
South Africa	67	61	64	54*	...
Swaziland	71	56	58	214	70
Zambia	47*	44*	42	649*	...
Zimbabwe	57.2*	52.6*	55*	283*	91.2*

Sources: SADC Annual Report, 1999/2000 and EIU Country Reports and country sources.
E = Preliminary estimates from EIU

[25] Sources of data for Table II.2 include:

i) WHO, World Health Report, 1998:Life in the 21st: Century A vision for All

ii) World Bank, World Development Indicators, 1998, Washington DC

iii) UNDP, Human Development Report, 1997, New York.

* = Data from member States.

Table II.3: NGOs and Land Advocacy in Southern Africa

COUNTRY & NAME OF NGO	MAIN ACTIVITY AREAS	NOTABLE ACHIEVEMENTS
Angola: Action for Rural Development and Environment	Monitoring land conflicts between agro-pastoral communities from Gambos and Manquate Projects and private farmers	Project to monitor land conflicts between agro-pastoral communities from Gambos and Manquate Projects implemented
Botswana: The Botswana Centre for Human Rights (Ditswanelo)	Collaborative effort of NGOs and university departments to create awareness and knowledge of human rights with particular attention to the rights of those who are underprivileged, marginalized and discriminated against.	Project to monitor land conflicts between agro-pastoral communities from Gambos and Manquate Projects implemented
Lesotho: Helvetas Lesotho	Advocacy on improved livelihoods of the rural populations through development of long-term partnerships with community-based organizations (CBOs) and NGOs	Has and continues to undertake research on the land rights of the Basarwa
Malawi: Co-ordination Unit for the Rehabilitation of the Environment (CURE)	Capacity building through participatory development; Gender analysis and awareness	Recent expansion of their programme coverage
Mozambique: Uniao Nacional de Camponesses (UNAC)	Raising awareness on the Land Bill of 1996; lobbying and advocacy for the inclusion of peasant farmers in land policy formulation	Played and important role in breaking the silence on addressing land tenure
Namibia: The Namibia ~~NGO Forum (NANGOF)~~	Land advocacy programme to influence government policy and legislation on the land-reform process, communal land reform, established the Working Committee on Land Reform (a network of concerned organizations)	Developed strong lobbying skills among land activists and other stakeholders particularly in relation to the land tenure security of peasants

Table II.3: NGOs and Land Advocacy in Southern Africa - CONTINUED

COUNTRY & NAME OF NGO	MAIN ACTIVITY AREAS	NOTABLE ACHIEVEMENTS
Namibia Economic Research Unit (NEPRU)	Impact of land reform on poverty alleviation	Working Committee was involved in drafting the Land policy and lobbied for the Communal Land Bill of 1999
Rural Peoples Institute for Social Empowerment (RISE)	Facilitates a process that develops sustainable organizational and human resource capacity at grassroots level	
South Africa: Association for Rural Advancement (AFRA)	Community base action to redress past injustices and to secure land tenure for all in KwaZulu Natal	Completed a programme on Support to the Namibia National Farmers Union
Centre for Applied Legal Studies (CALS)	Conducts land research programmes	Established advocacy links with relevant focal points; monitors and participate in macro level policy debates including land
National Land Committee (NLC)	Program to mainstream gender into all the ten regional South Africa land and development affiliated NGO forming NLC	
Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS)	Conducts research, policy studies on land and agrarian reform including gender-sustainable production systems and land reform in the Western Cape	Jointly with government, effective 1998, AFRA implemented several projects including tenure reform and tenure upgrade projects
Tanzania Land Rights Research and Resource Institute (HAKIARDHI or LARRRI)	Promotes research to facilitate equitable and socially just access to and control over land for production of food and other basic needs	Advocacy for tenure rights in particular for women
Zambia National Association for Peasant & Small-Scale Farmers of Zambia (NAPSSFZ)	Promotes the interests, conducts lobbying and advocacy of peasant and small-scale farmers most of whom are women	Awareness creation campaigns and intense engagement of Government on land-related issues

Table II.3: NGOs and Land Advocacy in Southern Africa - CONTINUED

COUNTRY & NAME OF NGO	MAIN ACTIVITY AREAS	NOTABLE ACHIEVEMENTS
Zimbabwe Rudecon Zimbabwe (PL)	Conducts advocacy activities focusing on gender-biased issues and develops training materials on the land redistribution programme.	Participation by programme staff in the process of writing a Green Paper on Land Policy and in the Tenure Reform Core Group
Women and Land Lobby Group (WLLG)	A coalition of civic activists to lobby the Zimbabwe Government to accord women same rights as men to the ownership of communal and resettlement land.	Successfully lobbied parliament on the 1999 Land Bill Continued lobbying Government for Land Acts for equitable reforms Carried out a two year study and produced a report on gender biased land use rights Assisting women in the actual process of land acquisition; engendering the land redistribution committee; carries out intensive advocacy on several issues pertaining to women land rights

Source: Extracted from NGOS and Land Advocacy in Eastern and Southern Africa- a Directory by MWENGO, 1999

Table II.4: Proposed Actions at Subregional Level

PROPOSED IMPLEMENTABLE ACTIONS	COMMENTS
1. Building Platform for Action on Women's Land Rights	• Strive to achieve a shared vision • To serve as a tool for advocacy (for lobbying) • To serve as a facilitating mechanism
2. Joint Planning, Implementation, Coordination and Monitoring of Women's Rights Activities in the Sub-Region	• Develop implementable programmes at the subregional level • Promote cost-effectiveness • Share experiences/lessons • Strengthening partnerships and strategic linkages
3. Formation of a Subregional Task Force on Women's Land Rights	• Identify who would be the members • Aim at national representation • Emphasize demonstrated commitment and expertise of members
4. Developing Subregional Programme in Specific Areas	• (covered in 2 above)
5. Identifying Indicators for Monitoring of Progress made on Women's Land Rights	• No additions suggested
6. Strategies for Information Sharing	• Target key policy makers through international/regional forums (e.g. interventions, side events etc.)
7. Best Practices Strategy	• Publicize any 'best practices, via booklets/pamphlets etc

Source: Akinyi-Nzioki- Report on Modalities and Strategies for Women's Access to and Ownership of Land

Table II.5: Proposed Actions at the National Level

PROPOSED IMPLEMENTABLE ACTIONS	COMMENTS
1. Engendering National Constitutions/Formation of National Gender Policies.	• Give examples of 'good' constitutions • Ensure that there are explicit references to women's land/property rights • Propose ways to promote and protect these rights • Articulate institutional mechanisms for monitoring and recourse in the event of violations • Propose the inclusion of an unequivocal equality clause giving the constitution precedence over customary law in cases of conflict • Recommend the incorporation of international instruments, such as the convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
2. Issues Relating to National Gender Policies	• Ensure thorough consultation of women in developing NGP's • Incorporate land issues in favour of women • Propose a framework for monitoring • Provide guidelines for addressing issues of women and land • Integrate issues concerning women and land in the National Development Plans
3. Reforming/Reviewing the Laws	• Ensure that the law clearly defines the entities in relation to property rights e.g. family, spouse, types of contractual agreements etc. • Ensure consistency with CEDAW provisions/international and regional instruments • Give examples of laws that have impact on women's property rights, and that should be reviewed.
4. Providing Legal Literacy Programmes/Services, Creating Media Strategies and Public Forums on Women's Land Rights	• Incorporate women land rights as part of legal and human rights education in the school curriculum.

Table II.5: Proposed Actions at the National Level - CONTINUED

PROPOSED IMPLEMENTABLE ACTIONS	COMMENTS
1. Documenting Women's Realities Regarding Land	• Demonstrate the implications of denial of land (to women) on the national economies/poverty reduction/political realities. (Refer to work done in Somalia, that links the lack of access to instability) • Use of the media as a stakeholder, mobilizer, watchdog. New number includes any success stories as a learning tool e.g. the one on Rwanda • Compile an annotated bibliography of what literature exists
2. Formation of National Task Forces on Women Land Rights	• Specify who would form the task forces (EASRDC and EASSI to take the lead in triggering action) • Develop broad terms of reference (TORs) for the task forces • Link up with other initiatives e.g. the National Committees for follow-up of Habitat II, and the Housing International Coalition • Forge diplomatic strategies for raising awareness on land issues
3. Establishing Women's 'de facto' Inheritance Rights	• Establish support mechanisms for the recognition of 'de facto' rights
4. Strengthening Land Claims through Channels other than Inheritance	• Review criteria used in land allocations (to ensure no discrimination against women) • Allow for affirmative action in land allocation
5. Exploring Joint Management and Promoting Infrastructural Support by Women	• No additions suggested

Table II.5: Proposed Actions at the National Level - CONTINUED

PROPOSED IMPLEMENTABLE ACTIONS	COMMENTS
1. Building Group Support Among and for Women	• Specify actions at both local and national levels
2. Politicizing Women's Land Rights	• Propose intervention at different levels – parliaments, international, etc • Insist on representation of women in decision-making processes (with respect to land) • Go beyond lobbying to implementation • Promote infrastructural support, credit, etc.

Source: Akinyi-Nzioki, ibid