EFFECTIVENESS OF THE NATIONAL GENDER POLICY IN ENSURING WOMEN’S PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING AMONG TERTIARY LEARNING INSTITUTIONS IN ZAMBIA: THE CASES OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND EVELYN HONE COLLEGE

By

Patricia Mwila

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment for the award of the degree of Master of Public Administration

University of Zambia

2013
DECLARATION

I, Patricia Mwila, declare that this dissertation represents my own work. It has not previously been submitted for a degree or any award at the University of Zambia or any other institution. All published works or materials from other sources incorporated in this dissertation have been specifically acknowledged and references thereby given.

Signature: …………………………………. Date………………………………………………..
DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to my family, being my husband, Mr. Fidelis Sakala, my father, Mr. Mischeck Mwila and my sons, Ng’andu, Chilale and Mwila Sakala for their intellectual and moral support.
APPROVAL OF ADMISSION OF DISSERTATION

This dissertation prepared by Patricia Mwila is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Public Administration by the University of Zambia.

Examiners’ signatures:

Signed………………………………….…..   Date………………………………...

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincerest gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr. M. C. Bwalya, for the guidance and support during the entire period of my study. He introduced me to the topic, guided me and offered professional advice. My heartfelt thanks also go to the academic members of staff of the Department of Political and Administrative Studies for the immense encouragement and support they rendered, especially during the moments when uncertainty surrounded me. My humble thanks go to the Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies at the University of Zambia for the administrative and technical support.

I would be failing in my acknowledgements if I did not mention the support I got from the Staff Development Officer, Mrs. Grace Tembo, who happens to be my immediate professional supervisor, and to my Departmental Head, the Deputy Registrar (Administration) who were there for me at all seasons. I also cherish the heartfelt support accorded to me by members of staff of the Staff Development Office. Many thanks also go to the University of Zambia administration through the Staff Development Fellowship Programme for sponsoring my studies.

Last but not least, my profound gratitude goes to my family, my husband, children and my parents for empowering me and making me the person I have become.
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<td>BSAC</td>
<td>British South African Company</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBU</td>
<td>Copperbelt University</td>
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<td>EIRO</td>
<td>European Industrial Relations Observatory</td>
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<td>GAD</td>
<td>Gender and Development</td>
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<td>GCF</td>
<td>Gender Consultative Forum</td>
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<td>GIDD</td>
<td>Gender in Development Division</td>
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<td>GFPP</td>
<td>Gender Focal Point Persons</td>
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<td>GRZ</td>
<td>Government of the Republic of Zambia</td>
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<td>HRD</td>
<td>Human Resources Development</td>
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<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<td>National Gender Policy</td>
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<td>NIPA</td>
<td>National Institute of Public Administration</td>
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<td>NRDC</td>
<td>Natural Resources Development College</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern Africa Development Community</td>
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<td>SPA</td>
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<td>SPAW</td>
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<td>TEVET</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
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<td>USA</td>
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<td>ZFWB</td>
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<td>ZNWLG</td>
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ABSTRACT

The vision of the National Gender Policy (NGP) was to achieve gender equity at all levels of decision making in the Zambian political economy. Institutions of higher learning occupy a very important role in the socio-economic development of Zambia and are critically affected by gender policy issues. The problem of low recruitment and promotion of women to decision making levels is a product of society which regarded education and professional advancement for women as less important than that of men.

Although the Government of the Republic of Zambia adopted and began implementing the 2003-2007 Strategic Plan of Action for the National Gender Policy, the extent to which the organizations, particularly institutions of higher learning have addressed the 30% representation at management /decision making levels has been largely uncertain. The aim of the study was to examine the effectiveness of the National Gender Policy in achieving 30% representation of women in decision making, and management positions at the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone College. This research employed both qualitative and qualitative survey research approaches. The target population comprised general employees and decision makers at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College. The sample consisted of 50 ordinary employees and 5 decision makers from each institution, adding the total sample to 60. Purposive sampling was used. A questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used to collect data from the field. Constant comparative and descriptive statistics were used to analyze primary data.

Based on the findings, it was concluded that the NGP had not been effective in ensuring women’s representation in decision making. It was also established that there were a number of factors that inhibited the attainment of the 30% women representation in decision making positions. These factors were complex, interdependent and systemic in nature. The constraints mainly bordered on poor implementation structures and strategies. Recommendations have been premised in relation to further research, policy implementation, advocacy and formulation.
CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

Introduction

The vision of the National Gender Policy was to achieve gender equity at all levels of decision making in the Zambian economy. Institutions of higher learning occupy a very important role in the socio-economic development of Zambia and are critically affected by gender policy issues. GIDD (2000).

The extent to which women globally have been marginalized in development processes has long been considered an important issue by not only feminists but by scholars interested in the interplay between women’s work and social development. (Eagly, A.H. and Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. (2001) Concern has focused especially on the representation of women, who have been the objects of considerable public and private labour market discrimination. If “public jobs are public resources, to which everyone has a potential claim,” as Hays (1998, 300) suggests, then a representative government workforce is a critical objective for the public sector. Government has an obligation, it is argued, to serve as a model employer and provide an appropriate example for the private sector. Additionally, a more representative public bureaucracy may help to ensure that the interests of all people are considered in bureaucratic decision-making processes (Meier [1993] and Saltzstein [1979]).

The problem of an imbalance between men and women in various areas including decision making positions, is being faced worldwide. ILO (2007) At the global level, the distribution between the two genders in decision making positions tends to favour men. Women have been under-represented at all levels of decision making, especially in Government and parliament sector. For example, a memorandum submitted to Parliament by the Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) in
2011 on the status of women in decision making established that gender inequalities were noticed by the low representation of women in political and administrative governance, in that out of thirty five Permanent Secretaries, only seven were female. The study further revealed that there were no female Deputy Permanent Secretaries. ZARD (2011)

In addition, the Gender Statistics report of 2010, which was produced in Zambia by the Central Statistics Office (CSO), revealed that the proportion of representation of female Members of Parliament (MP) in 2010 was at 15%, while that of female Cabinet Ministers was at 17.4%. The report also revealed that female representation in the office of Deputy Minister was only at 12.5%. CSO (2010)

Women are mostly recruited and concentrated in the low echelons of institutions and are in occupations with low remunerations such as nursing, secretarial and clearing services GIDD (2000). In Zambia, like many other Sub Sahara African countries, gender imbalances which do not favor women exist in the socio-economic, cultural, and political spheres. These imbalances have prevented women from effectively contributing to and benefiting from the development process. Ibid (2000).

The subordinate position of girls and women is reflected in some education policies and practices which placed girls in a disadvantaged position, such as expelling girls who fell pregnant from basic and high schools, while leaving the concerned boys unpunished. However, these practices and beliefs have been changing with time. Women’s rights and social development advocates, as well as individuals, have been exerting pressures on policy makers to ensure that there is gender equity in recruitment and promotion to high ranking positions UNICEF (1998).

The Zambian government recognized the need to promote equitable gender representation at all levels of decision making through affirmative action such as developing criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory and decision making positions. In order to address the problem of gender
imbalance in decision making positions, the government adopted the National Gender Policy on 6th March, 2000.

**Focus of the research in relation to National Gender Policy**

The National Gender Policy (NGP) addressed a number of goals. One of them was to achieve equity in access to decision making positions between females and males at all levels with at least a 30% target share of women representation by the year 2005. This was in line with the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development. GIDD (2000). Other goals and commitments set through this declaration were to promote women’s full access to and control over productive resources, increased provision of quality health and education services, protecting and promoting the reproductive and sexual rights of women and the girl children. The 30% target of women representation in decision making positions, however, formed the main focus of this research.

In order to achieve the above mentioned target share, the government through the National Gender Policy of 2000, proposed that the following policy measures be put in place:-

i. Develop criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory and decision making positions.

ii. Development communications strategies to promote public debate on the new roles of women and men in the family and society.

iii. Restructure recruitment and career-development programmes to ensure that all women, especially young women and persons with disabilities, have equal access to managerial entrepreneurial, technical and leadership training, including on the job training.

iv. Encourage development of career advancement programmes for women of all ages that include career planning, tracking, mentoring, coaching, training and retraining.

v. Ensure gender balancing in the composition of delegations to conferences.
vi. Encourage efforts by Non Governmental Organizations, trade unions and the private sector to achieve equality between women and men in their ranks, including equal participation in their decision making bodies and in negotiations at all levels.

vii. Facilitate and carry out gender training and awareness programmes at places of work, in public, private and the communities.

viii. Create a mechanism to facilitate the active participation of women at all levels of the political process, including the implementation of affirmative action.

ix. Take positive action to build a critical mass of women leaders, executives and managers in strategic decision making positions to act as role models in public, including defense and security, and private sectors.

x. Ensuring equitable representation of women and men in decision making at all levels.

xi. Identifying and recommending changes to gender discriminatory rules, policies, procedures and practices that are in favour of men.

xii. Positive discriminatory practices and rules in favor of women which are aimed at giving opportunities to women to rise to senior management positions.

To make the policy operational, a Strategic Plan of Action (SPA), covering the period 2003 to 2007, was developed and implemented to prioritize action on the 12 measures outlined in the NGP. Among the actions of focus was the implementation of the 1997 SADC gender declaration of 30% women in decision making (SADC, 2003).

The specific focus of this research was therefore premised on the effectiveness of the National Gender Policy, in ensuring women’s participation in decision making, with at least a 30% target share of women representation, through recruitment and promotion.
Statement of the Problem

Although the Government of the Republic of Zambia (GRZ) adopted and began implementing the 2003-2007 Strategic Plan of Action for the National Gender Policy, the extent to which the organizations, particularly institutions of higher learning or tertiary learning Institutions had addressed the 30% representation at management /decision making levels, had been largely uncertain. This uncertainty constituted a problem which this research aimed to address. For example, if the extent to which the measures in the NGP had been addressing the gender inequality remained uncertain, several underlying gender-related problems would be punctuated. If this study is not done, we may not be in a position to make any substantial claims of achievements made from the stated policy actions and we may not augment the policy.

Despite the importance of the prominent role of women in state-level bureaucracies in administering public programmes, it is surprising that few scholars have directed their attention to the representation of women as minorities in public offices. The relative lack of research, however, is largely the result of researchers not focusing on gender in workplaces. This situation has resulted in an absence of studies focusing on multiple states across time, which would permit thorough analysis of the issues involved. At the moment, there are non empirical claims that bias in favour of men in the job areas exists; and that few women as compared to men get recruited and promoted to decisions making positions.

In order to address such uncertainties in the context of this research, the following were the research questions addressed:

General Research Question

How effective had the National Gender Policy been in achieving 30% representation of women in decision making and management positions at the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone College?
Specific Research Questions

i. What is the representation of women, as compared to men in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College?

ii. What strategies have NIPA and Evelyn Hone College put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women into decision making positions through recruitment and promotions?

iii. What factors affected the attainment of 30% women’s representation in decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College?

iv. What measures may be put in place in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions?

General objective

To examine the effectiveness of the National Gender Policy in achieving 30% representation of women in decision making, and management positions at the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone College.

Specific Objectives

i. To determine the representation of women as compared to men in decision making positions at the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone College.

ii. To examine the process that the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone College had put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women in decision making positions through recruitment and promotion.
iii. To establish factors that affected the attainment of 30% women’s representation into decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

iv. To seek suggestions on measures that could be put in place in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions.

Conceptual framework

The recruitment and promotion of women to management/decision making positions is affected by different factors. These include culture, government institutional structures and Human Resource Development. GIDD (2000)

Culture

Cultural values have significant impact on women’s participation in decision making among Tertiary Learning Institutions. GIDD/UNDP(2012) The term culture can be defined as an organised group of ideas, habits and conditions shared by members of society (Linton, 1956). Gender identifies social differences between men/boys and women/girls, which are culturally and socially constructed or determined but not biologically determined such as social roles, responsibilities and tasks. For example, cooking is usually assigned to women, while constructing of houses is assigned to men.

The report on the Impact of Customary Practices on Gender Equality in Zambia, established that there were still in existence some cultural practices that undermined gender equality, such as the boy’s and girl’s initiation ceremonies of the Chewa tribe in the Eastern Province of Zambia. GIDD/UNDP(2012)

It was revealed that when boys came out from the Chewa initiation rites of Nyau, they expected all females to respect them and that at school, authorities especially female teachers found initiated boys difficult to control. While on the other hand, girls came
from their Chinamwali Initiation Ceremony more disciplined and respectful. In addition after the ceremony, girls were reported to become withdrawn at school, even when they were assertive before the initiation. Ibid (2012)

The fact that such disrespectful behavior was directed towards female teachers raises concerns about the content of what was being taught to the boys. This shows that the content of boys initiation ceremonies promoted and sustained male domination and female subordination.

For some girls, the ceremonies influenced them into early pregnancies, early marriage and dropping out of school. It is clear that the contrasted behavior outcomes have an impact on their participation in community activities such as education and decision making structures. CSO (2010)

In line with the mentioned customary practices, men are culturally socialized to take up leadership roles, while women are socialized to assume supportive roles. GIDD/UNDP(2012)

Such values seem to occupy an important place in young people’s lives and makes it very difficult to change their thinking when they are grown up simply by use of a policy directive. Decision making has, therefore, been culturally assumed as a role of men. Women that make decisions in the presence of men without being given the mandate to do so are considered as deviants and not properly initiated. Girls who undergo initiation were reported to make better wives than those who had not. Ibid (2012)

When it comes to married women, decisions about their own career advancements are mostly made by their husbands, in that some women have been forced to change their careers after marriage to more feminine professions such as Nursing. GIDD (2001)
Due to above mentioned cultural values, gender dimension of headship of households tends to be a critical factor, particularly to family maintenance and could be closely linked with the functioning of the public service institutions in terms of delivery of public services.

**Institutional Structures**

Institution structures play a significant role in the effective implementation of any policy. The Institutional framework for addressing gender and women specific issues in Zambia, has evolved from Women’s Desk in 1983 to Women in Development (WID) in 1992. WID Department was elevated to GIDD in 1996 and moved to Cabinet Office in the Office of the President. JUDAI (2008)

The mandate of GIDD is that of facilitating and coordinating the mainstreaming of gender issues in sectoral development, which entails a huge responsibility that requires adequate resources (sector-specific gender expertise, financial, human, material). It is supposed to prioritize and coordinate programs and activities of all gender issues and stakeholders and to evaluate their performance and implementation. It is involved in planning, advocacy, publications of materials, monitoring and evaluation programmes, resource mobilization and training. Ibid (2008)

GIDD operates through an institutional framework, for coordinating the implementation of the National Gender Policy (NGP) and other gender related activities in the nation. This consists of structures such as the Gender Consultative Forum (GCF); Gender Focal Persons in Planning Units in the line ministries and the Gender National Committees (GNC,s). In the area of enhancing women representation in decision making positions, seven (7) Government Ministries and Divisions were mandated by Cabinet office to be in the lead within the Public Service. GIDD (2001)

However, Diakonia Zambia Programme Consultancy of 2010 reported that the national gender structure is still very weak at all levels due to understaffing and under funding,
as well as the fact the gender is not incorporated into job descriptions of Gender Consultative Forum (GFPS). JUDAI (2008)

A close examination in the organization structures, that were appointed by Cabinet Office to be in the lead in enhancing women representation in public institutions revealed several weaknesses. The first one is lack of trained and skilled personnel in gender issues which constrains them from providing guidance on gender issues. Another weakness was that there were no separate budget lines for gender programmes in respective ministries and departments and public institutions, which was a major inhibiting factor to the implementation of gender programmes.

The study also established that lack of formal gender structures with full time paid staff at all levels, constrained the Lead Actors from concentrating their efforts and time to implementing gender programmes. Therefore, trained human resources stood as one of the most imperative factors in ensuring attainment of 30% representation of women in decision making position. GIDD (2001)

The guidelines and checklists for mainstreaming gender in the public sector reported that there were no relevant management systems as a short term strategy for enhancing accountability in ministries and other public institutions. There was no higher monitoring body to assist GIDD in spearheading the implementation of the policy. Ibid (2001)

**Human Resource Development**

Human Resources Development (HRD) is critical and a first step towards achievement of sustainable national development and public services provision. It starts with education, which is recognized as a key human development indicator and springboard to all professional and training with strong connections to other human development indicators such as improved earnings, poverty reduction, improved health and participation in decision making. JUDAI (2008)
Available literature shows that gender gap at primary level is almost eliminated, but that, it is still large as one climbs up to the higher levels of education, such as Senior Secondary, College and University Education. Munachonga, (2010)

Most women are, therefore, not able to compete on the labour market for high ranking jobs because of inadequate basic and tertiary education, thus depicting a wide gender gap in Human Resource Development.

Available literature revealed that there are three policy documents, which provide guidance on training, recruitment and placement and general procedures for employment in the public service. These are the Public Service training Policy; Procedures for Recruitment and Placement in the Civil Service and Policies and Procedures for Employment in the Public Service. GRZ (2003)

A review of the above mentioned policy documents, showed that even though the labour market was dominated by men, affirmative action was not incorporated in the relevant policies to address gender imbalances which existed at all levels in the Public Service. In addition, terms and conditions of service for the Public Service were not gender responsive, but were written in gender-neutral language, thereby, not acknowledging the gender inequalities and imbalances that actually existed within the Public Service. Ibid (2010).

Practical gender policy measures had therefore not been mainstreamed into the necessary Human Resources Management and Development Policies of the Public Service, thus rendering the policy ineffective.

There was also a lack of family-friendly policy that recognized reproductive (biological) needs and social roles and responsibilities of women and that provided guidance on reconciling family work for men and women workers. In addition, leave entitlements in terms of maternity and paternity leave, reflect the general perception
that childcare was a women’s role, resulting in an increase in the workload of women due to family demands on women’s time. Therefore, while men can put extra hours in their work in order to make the necessary impact, women need to rush home as early as possible in order to take care of their households. This fosters a likelihood of their male counterparts outperforming them, a situation which disadvantages their career progression. Ibid (2010)

Even though, one of the measures of Public Service Training and Development Policy refers to provision of training without discrimination on the basis of gender, it does not spell out clearly how existing gender inequalities will be dealt with practically. In this case, there is no clarity on how policy measures will be implemented in order to address the discriminatory practices. The Public Service Training and Development Policy is further weakened by the removal of the affirmative action. GIDD (2010).

Figure 1.1 below summarizes the conceptual framework of the research.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the research.

In this study, the key words that formed the building blocks of the subject matter were gender, gender mainstreaming, gender roles, Gender imbalance, decision-making positions, affirmative action promotion and recruitment.
These are defined below to make the reader appreciate concepts and their precise meaning in relation to the research.

**Gender**

According to this research, gender identifies social differences as reflected in roles, activities, duties, responsibilities, social behavior between males and females, and boys and girls. It refers to the cultural definition of behavior considered appropriate for males and females, or boys and girls in a given society. Gender is either feminine or masculine. Gender is culturally and socially constructed, which means that for males and females, society prescribes different roles, social qualities or characteristics, and forms of behavior. These prescribed standards and norms of behavior are transmitted from generation to generation through the process of socialization and change over time. Gender is also biologically determined. It thus refers to both biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women. The attributes of being female or male are biological for example, males not females grow beards. It is a range of physical, mental, and behavioral characteristics distinguishing between masculinity and femininity.

**Gender Mainstreaming**

Gender mainstreaming refers to the process of incorporating men’s/boys’ and women’s/girls’ concerns and needs across the board (in organizational structure, legal and policy frameworks, programme designs and planning, resource allocations and budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, human resource development and staffing etc) to deal with obstacles to equal male/female participation in development and to deal with obstacles to equal male/female benefits from development process GIDD (2010).
Gender Roles

According to this study, gender roles are those roles performed by males or females as prescribed by culture but which can change and differ from one society to another. They are not biological roles but are constructed by society.

Gender imbalance

Gender imbalance has been defined as the unequal access to resources and positions of power or decision making of both sexual groups.

Decision Making

Decision making is the ability to utilize all available information, weigh situations and be able to make choices whose consequences, one is aware of. It is the thought process of selecting a logical choice from several available options, choices, products or ideas, and then taking action in relation to this choice in order to bring about a desired result.

Decision Making Positions

A decision-making position is defined as a position from where it is possible to make or influence a decision within an organization hierarchical level. This implies that the scope would be limited to those levels or positions that had a major impact on decision-making in the organization, such as Members of Institutional Decision Making Boards, Directors, Deputy Directors, Heads of Departments and Managers. These are positions that are attained after some considerable education and professional experience.

Affirmative Action

This refers to temporal measures aimed at addressing the current direct or indirect results of past discrimination. It is also aimed at creating new practices within the framework of existing gender neutral legal instruments. Examples include introducing quotas in parliament, in school enrolment or allocation of bursaries in favor of the
disadvantaged gender category, or putting measures to increase the number of males joining the nursing profession. GIDD (2000)

Even though the use of affirmative action in recruitment and promotion of women to decision making positions has been proposed, it is assumed that most organizations have not developed criteria for recruitment and promotion of women. Their recruitment and promotion guidelines do not seem to incorporate affirmative action in addressing gender imbalances which exist at all levels.

The use of affirmative action has been presumed as discriminatory, interventionist and essentially undemocratic. Many countries tend to have rejected the use of affirmative action, such as quotas at the national level, arguing that they are at odds with the principle of gender equality and discriminate against other under-represented groups. It is argued that those that have been promoted by use of affirmative action feel inferior to those that have attained advancement without them.

**Promotion**

The study referred to promotion as an act of moving an employee to a high rank or responsibility. It is the advancement of rank or position in an organizational hierarchy system or the award given to an employee of a job at a higher grade, usually offering greater responsibility and more money.

**Recruitment**

In this study, recruitment was referred to a process of finding new people to join a company or an organization. It can also be defined as a creation of a pool of persons who are available and willing to do a particular job with a particular organization. It is a process of identifying and hiring the best-qualified candidate from within or outside of an organization for a job vacancy, in a most timely and cost effective manner. It has been noted that women are mostly recruited and concentrated in the low echelons of the institutions and are in occupations with low remunerations such as nursing, secretarial and clearing services.
Literature review

This section presents the review of literature from foreign and Zambian contexts, in relation to the current research topic.

Literature from studies done in foreign countries

A number of studies have been undertaken on women representation in decision making positions. For example, Villain (1999) on the problem of women and employment observed that public workplaces were not gender-neutral locations filled with bodies, but rather complex sites in which gender expectations were embedded in workplace structures and reproduced in interactions. He argued that employers often brought their gender schemes about men’s and women’s abilities to bear on hiring and promotion decisions, leading men and women to face very different relationships in employment and advancement. The study further observed that gendered recruitments and promotions for men and women varied greatly, depending on organizational cultures and occupational contexts. It concluded that in addition to family culture or socialization, in built workplace structures or organization cultures highly contributed to gender imbalance in relevant sectors of society. Villain (1999).

These conclusions are relevant to the current study in that they demonstrated the relationship between Institutional workplace to gender imbalance. The study explains how cultural gender expectations have generally influenced the way Institutions are structured, a situation which perpetuates gender imbalance in particular organizational hierarchies, especially in high ranking positions. However, the only gap is that it does not stipulate what type of institutional workplace was being under studied, whether it was a business, government or an educational institution as different institutions have different implications and challenges. The current study stipulated gendered recruitment and promotion with specific reference to Institutions of higher learning at management/decision making positions.
In their study, which was done in the United Kingdom, entitled “Measuring Occupational Gender Segregation”, Blackburn et al.(1993), identified conceptual issues associated with the measurement of discrimination at work. The study found out that there was inequality in the distribution of workers by sex and that women and men were not evenly distributed from top to the bottom across job titles or occupations. It attributed the variation to underlying power relations in the workplace and hence the notion of hierarchy. The study also observed that when men and women were employed in the same occupation, as they progressed, men were more likely to be production supervisors and women production workers, and that men were more likely to be senior managers and women junior managers Blackburn et. al. (1993).

From the above, the study concluded that women have lagged behind men in career advancement/development even when they entered the employment industry on the same scale. This could depict that they have been socialized effectively to carry out orders which is a determinant of women representation in decision making positions. It also highlighted how the career progression between the two sexes varied in favor of men. Despite this, the study was weak in that it did not give any guideline to ascertain what measures could be put in place in order to address the problem. The current study, therefore, endeavored not only to articulate how particular variables are dependent on others, but also suggested relevant measures to be effected in order to address or mitigate the imbalances.

A catalyst study of women corporate leadership, which was conducted in the United States of America (USA) in 2003, compared the experiences and perceptions of women at the Vice President level. (Catalyst: Women in U.S. Corporate Leadership: 2003).

In this study, it was established that many organisations had not yet adopted policies to promote women to leadership jobs. In that study women cited the following barriers:-

- Lack of management or line experience.
- Lack of mentoring and role models for women at the highest levels.
- Exclusion from informal networks and channels of communication where important information on organizational politics and decision making is shared.
- Stereotyping and preconceptions of women’s roles and abilities, commitment and leadership style.
- Lack of flexibility in work schedules.
- Lack of career and succession planning.
- Counter-productive behaviour of male co-workers including taking credit for women’s contributions.
- Sexual harassment.
- Attributing women’s successes to tokenism.

The study also found out that perceptions about women’s ability to take on international responsibilities and their willingness to accept them were considered key obstacles to their being selected for international executive jobs. Survey respondents believed that women were not as “internationally mobile” as men, yet 80 per cent of women expatriates had never turned down relocation compared to 71 per cent of men. Catalyst: *Women in U.S. Corporate Leadership* (2003)

It can be argued that the barriers cited above clearly show that implementation of policies to empower women academically and professionally in the United States of America, had not yielded the intended results. If policies and sensitization campaigns to enhance women education and leadership training were adequately implemented, then women would not lack the necessary management experience and there would be minimal stereotyping and preconceptions about women’s roles and abilities. Traditionally, they have to seek consent of their husbands before making the decision or otherwise face the consequence of staying away from their families or even marriage break up, which is socially diminishing. Generally, the study revealed that factors influencing women’s representation in decision making are diverse and complex in nature. It also portrays how lack of political will to implement the necessary policies could adversely affect national development.
The only noted gap was that the study was limited because it only represented the views of women’s managers without reflecting the views and opinions of women at the lower level. In addition, the study was conducted in the USA, which has totally a different social set up from Zambia. The current study therefore highlights opinions of both male and female employees not only those holding key decision making positions but also those at lower ranking levels. This ensured objective and balanced conclusions for decision making.

The journal on Recruitment and Promotion of women to Decision Making Positions, a perspective on Omani women in management in the Sultanate of Oman, established major driving forces behind women that successfully made it to top management positions. Some of these driving forces were family support, academic success and personal determination. Salma (1999)

Similar to the above highlighted research by Catalyst (2003), the impediments or resisting forces to women’s progress were reported to be cultural taboos/traditional attitudes, portrayed negative self image of women, lack of appropriate human resource policies and strategies and lack of professional women’s network. It was established that the conservative traditional attitudes which portrayed women’s primary role as that of a wife and mother, had a spill over effect at the work place. Employers regarded women as being less capable than men and unfit for responsible positions claiming that family obligations took priority, and hence subjected them to lower productivity and absenteeism.

The study further disclosed that the most outstanding obstacle that prevented women from realizing their utmost professional advancement was the self image of women portrayed as inferior to men and which became difficult to change overtime, considering that it was ingrained and conditioned in their upbringing and social development. It also disclosed that lack of human resource policies and strategies to promote recruit and develop female managers at work was another deterrent to gender diversity. It revealed that there were no programmes to facilitate advancement of
women as role models and neither were there management training programmes. It further revealed that there was also a tendency by employers to shun affirmative action.

The above stated observations are relevant to the current study in that they outline the barriers to the advancement of women, in terms of their recruitment and promotion to decision making positions in a scenario that is explanatory to the African set up. It provides significant back up in analysing the forces behind the low representation of women in decision making positions in Zambian tertiary learning institutions. It also highlights how women had been socialised to accept and enjoy their lower status in society, thereby being an impediment to their own progression.

Much as this study appreciates the study by Salma (1999), it did not give relevant data on the percentage of women representation in decision making positions for the sector that was sampled. This would have provided a benchmark for comparison with the current research.

Another study worth mentioning is that conducted by ILO (2004) on Trends in Female Force Participation. One of the findings of the study was that the growing proportion of women in the labour force had been one of the most striking labour markets trends of recent times, especially in the 1980s and that never before have so many women been economically active. The study further revealed that although the gap between the sexes in terms of labour force participation rates had decreased considerably, in no region of the world was the gender gap anywhere near to being closed and that more women as a proportion of their labour force were seeking work but unable to find it as compared to men in almost all regions of the world, resulting in a global female unemployment rate.

The above findings are relevant in that they depict the challenges faced by women globally, as they strive to be recruited into the labour market and also acknowledge the shortfalls in the global employment trend. However, the gap still exists even in the above ILO study in that the study has not clarified the type and level of employment being referred to, whether it is a decision making position or lower raking position. In
addition, even though it acknowledged that there had been a notable increase in women representation in the labour force, it lacked proper estimates in terms of clearly quantified percentages of the increase.

The study by the European Industrial Relations Observatory is also important to this dissertation. The study was conducted in Europe in 2001 and established that many governments throughout the European community had acted positively to promote gender equality in all sectors of society with varying degrees of success by introducing quota systems or “temporary corrective measures seeking to increase women’s representation in decision-making processes. It, on the other hand, observed that the use of the quota system was controversial in that it was viewed as discriminatory, interventionist and essentially undemocratic. Eerg (2001)

It also observed that many countries had rejected quotas at the national level, arguing that they were at odds with the principle of gender equality and discriminated against other under-represented groups and that they were tokenistic and that it created a hierarchy in some sectors of society whereby those that are developed without the assistance of quotas are somehow superior to those who are helped by them. The study established that quotas should not be seen as being the solution to female under-representation in public life, but should be used in conjunction with other measures, including encouraging more women to stand for election, placing more women in visible political positions, and introducing more family-friendly work practices in parliamentary systems Ibid (2001).

The conclusion arrived at is vital to the current study in that it demonstrates how the quota system could be used with other measures of affirmative action to significantly contribute to enhancing equity in gender representation at the work place. It also gives a contrary view, on how the quota system, if not handled properly, could be discriminatory and undemocratic.
The study also did not give an update on how efficient the recommended method of affirmative action has been. This, therefore, makes it difficult to use the literature to explain how similar measures would fare in the African environment and Zambia in particular. This problem is compounded by lack of gender disaggregated data on what measures the policy makers have embarked on to address gender imbalance and how successful these measures have been. The current study shall provide estimates on how the measures stipulated the National Gender Policy for enhancing gender equity in the country are faring in Institutions of higher learning.

According to Mathabe (2002) on Mainstreaming Gender into Universities, women’s participation at all levels of higher education needed attention and that their ratio in management and academic ranks was very small, as compared to that of men. The study observed that most women were not able to reach postgraduate level of education and wondered if they dropped out during undergraduate studies or whether they entered university just to get basic undergraduate degrees so that they could enter the job market at the lowest ranks.

The results of the survey done in two South African universities revealed that there was dependence of male students on female family members for domestic chores, so affording them time to study. This led to female inability to study because of household responsibilities which were perceived as female chores (Mathabe, 2002).

The study observed that it was not possible for women to be fairly represented on University academic ranks and management structures if women were not entering postgraduate programmes at the same rate that they entered undergraduate programmes.

The study is important, especially that it gave information on the status of women representation in academic ranking or management decision making positions in South Africa’s higher learning Institutions, which could be benchmarked with Zambian Institutions of higher learning. It also shows the importance of Institutional Human
Resource Development Policies, as it clearly depicts how lack of academic and professional development to postgraduate studies affected women’s progression to management/decision making positions.

The current study will, however, go further to identify measures which should be put in place in order to ensure that women are encouraged to not just to end at basic undergraduate degrees but to aspire to higher post graduate degrees.

The study on the persistence of gender inequality in Zimbabwe produced in 2009 by O. Chabaya and S. Rembe revealed that although the majority of women in the study sampled qualified for promotion to school headship position, they had not attempted to apply for the position. (O. Chabaya and S. Rembe, 2009).

The study found out that the gender stereotypes which manifested in form of women attachment to family roles, (women were not prepared to take responsibilities away from their children and husbands) and lack of self confidence, (where women felt compelled to be led by men) were shown to be the major causes of persistent under representation of women to primary school headship. The study further found out that Gender socialisation allowed the child to grow naturally into its predestined role and made him/her look forward with pleasure to his/her allotted tasks.

Although the study highlighted how the socialised gender stereotypes affected the promotion of Basic School Teachers to School Headship positions, it makes no mention of the recruitment procedures. The current study will give an analysis of both the recruitment and promotion to decision making positions.

**Literature based on studies done in Zambia**

The study by Lungu (1987), which was confined to the Central Province of the Republic of Zambia, attributed continued gender inequality in decision making
positions to the institutional policies and practices, which were still biased and discriminatory against women. Lungu G.F. (1987)

The study stated that policies on employee transfers, placement and housing all normally consider the views and residence of husbands, and very rarely of wives. This meant that women could be transferred against their will based on their husband’s transfers and hardly ever the other way round. Often, married women were not accommodated in their own rights as employees. In addition, the above author further pointed out that at times, within organisations, human resource matters such as performance appraisal and staff development procedures were gender blind. The study further stated that career paths were too often designed to fit the life patterns of men, such as, ten years of continuous service and jobs that require travel at short notice or require one to work in distant locations. The fact that women interrupt their careers due to child bearing and breast-feeding may affect their ability to reach the top. Lungu G.F. (1987)

The relevance of the issues raised by Lungu, to this study is that it points to possible factors that might contribute to perpetuating gender inequality in decision making positions in Zambian Institutions. The scholar, however, did not indicate to what extent the policies, structures and practices are gender biased against females, as well as the extent to which they inhibited the attainment of gender equity in decision making positions. The current study, therefore, intended to investigate the extent to which institutional structures had impeded appropriate representation of women in decision making position

In December 2010, the Public Service Management Division produced a Strategy and Implementation Plan for Engendering the Public Service whose aim was to accelerate gender mainstreaming within the public service. GIDD (2010)

The study established that gender mainstreaming to various sectors of government was slow and attributed this to weak implementation strategies. It also established that the
implementation of the NGP was ineffective in that the Strategic Plan of Action, which represented a tool for operationalizing Government’s Policy on gender, was produced as a standalone strategy four years after implementation of the NGP, when it was supposed to have been an accompanying document. The study outlined key conditions for successful implementation as being the existence of political will and commitment; existence of structures for gender mainstreaming, increased capacities for gender mainstreaming and availability of gender analysis tools and guidelines for gender mainstreaming GIDD (2010).

This is a relevant study to the current research in that it explains the implementation status of the prerogatives set by the NGP in the public service and also assesses their impact on the welfare and rights of women in the country. There is, however, too much emphasis on stating the situation analysis on gender mainstreaming in the Public Service, while neglecting the other important sectors such as higher/tertiary learning Institutions.

The Report of the Gender Audit of the Ministry of Lands produced by Cabinet Office in May 2010 found that the Ministry’s staffing pattern was marred with gender imbalance in decision making in that only 25% of women occupied senior management (division one) positions. It further revealed that there was a prevalent stereo-type that certain jobs were meant for men exclusively, for example, the Survey Department was dominated by men. The perception was that the manual work and labour intensive type of work was considered not suited for women GIDD (2010).

The study also found out that institutions and mechanisms of land allocation and management were dominated by men with women occupying insignificant positions in decision making positions, which denied women the voice to participate in policy formulation and decision making in land administration.

The relevance of the study was premised on the fact that the analysis of the stereo-type prevalent in the Ministry of lands, where certain professions, due to their masculine
nature, were considered most suited for men and could also be used as basis to explain the prevailing gender imbalances in some other public institutions. The gap exists in that the study did not provide any clue on what measures had been put in place to mainstream gender in the Ministry of Lands so as to attain the level of female representation recommendation by the National Gender Policy, which could have been of great significance to the current study.

A study on women’s possibility to participate in political process and civil society organisations in Zambia conducted in 1996, observed that the conditions to participate actively in the public and private spheres were unequal between the two sexes. The study explained that this was resulting from the fact that boys and girls where socialized into different gender roles, where girls were not encouraged to hold public positions. The study concluded that the most important way to change the unequal power relations in the Zambian society was for women to start believing in themselves and their capabilities. Miller, M. A. (1996)

The study conclusion is significant to the current study as it highlights how the cultural gender roles have perpetuated gender imbalances in the public sector and depicts women as being the solution to the problem. As such, it challenges women to take responsibility of enhancing the gender imbalances that exist in favour of men in all important sectors of society. Nevertheless, the focus of the study was too general, as it depicted the under representation of women in public spheres. Public spheres or positions could be in different clusters and not necessary decision making positions.

A memorandum submitted to Parliament by the Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) on the status of women in decision making revealed that gender inequalities were noticed by the low representation of women in political and administrative governance. It established that Zambia had not achieved the 30% representation in most decision making bodies, except in the Judiciary. At the time of the research, out of the 35 Permanent Secretaries, only 7 were women, while there were no female Deputy Permanent Secretaries. It recommended that a quota system be
put in place as an affirmative action in order to increase women’s participation ZARD (2011).

The conclusion of the report proved relevant to the current study in that it outlines the national status in terms of the extent to which the 30% target share of women representation in all decision making positions had been attained in political and administrative governance. The only gap that exists is that the study was done in political and administrative wings of the government and not in Institutions of higher learning or Tertiary learning Institutions. In addition the conclusion did not highlight the recruitment and promotion procedures.

The Strategic Plan of Action (SPA) for the NGP was adopted and implemented in 2004, which represented a tool for operationalizing government policy on gender and it was for the period starting 2004 to 2008. GIDD (2004)

Due to the cross-cutting nature of gender, the SPA had been synchronized with existing macro and sectoral policies and programmes. It was aimed at achieving full and equal participation and benefit of both females and males in the socio-economic and political development of Zambia and was presented in form of a matrix.

The SPA outlined critical gender issues and areas of concern, policy objectives, strategies, actions and measurable indicators, including policy interventions of cross cutting issues. GIDD (2004).

The significance of the literature is that it highlights the guidelines set for implementing, monitoring and evaluating the NGP. It also depicts the national gender priorities and aspirations that the country had to achieve within a stipulated period of time. The SPA however lacks a manual, to guide intended users at all levels/sectors on how the gender priorities would be attained. This makes it an outline of mere statements that do not seem realistic to intended users.
The study done by Macwan’gi M. Kalinda R. and, Raising T. (2007), which was based on the situation analysis on Gender Equity and Equality at the University of Zambia found out that there were wide gender gaps at all levels of the University of Zambia (UNZA) organisational structure, and that the composition of members of the University council and its standing committees were predominantly male. The study further found out that out of the ten members that constituted the Human Resources Standing Committee, none were female and that at senior management level, the position of Vice-Chancellor had never been occupied by a female, while the position of Deputy Vice-Chancellor was occupied by a female for only two (2) years. Macwan’gi M. Kalinda R and, Raising T. (2007)

It recommended that UNZA should develop a comprehensive affirmative action policy at all levels of the University and that at senior management level, the positions such as Vice-Chancellor, Deputy Vice-Chancellor and Registrar should be filled on a rotational basis between males and females. It also recommended that if females did not apply for the positions, there was need to have a mechanism targeting qualified females within and outside the institutions system to fill up the positions. Macwan’gi M, Kalinda R and Raising T. (2007)

The study further observed that there was need to promote qualified female staff to Senior Lecturer level and management positions and to develop a gender sensitive accelerated knowledge and skills promotions plan in line with the staff open appraisal system.

The relevance of this study is that it revealed the prevailing gender imbalances in management/decision making positions at Zambia’s highest learning Institution, which could be used to study the prevailing status in other Tertiary Learning Institutions or Institutions of higher learning. The recommendations on the most appropriate affirmative action needed, could be used address the gender imbalances in other Tertiary Learning Institutions and relevant sectors of the economy whether public or private.
The only identified gap is that the statistics outlined in the findings were not quantified into percentages which could have made it more convenient to monitor the progression level of the Institution towards achieving the 30% target share of women representation in decision making. The current study will therefore reflect how other Institutions of higher learning such as NIPA, and Evelyn Hone College, are adhering to the NGP prerogatives in terms of 30% target share of women representation in management/decision making positions through recruitment and promotion.

Another study worth mentioning was the one conducted by GIDD and UNDP on the impact of Customary Practices on Gender Equality in Zambia. GIDD/UNDP(2012) The study, which was conducted in May 2012 in the four provinces of Zambia, namely, Eastern, North Western, Southern and Western Provinces, found that there were still in existence some customary practices in Zambia that undermined gender equality. Of these, the most commonly practiced in all the sampled districts were the girls and boys initiation ceremonies and early marriage. These practices presented gender issues that affected men and women differently as they participated in social and economic activities. GIDD/UNDP (2012)

The study articulated that these practices perpetuated male domination and female subordination because while boys were taught to be dominant, aggressive and confident, in contrast girls were taught to be passive and abiding, thus further undermining their self confidence. The study concluded that gender power relations still favoured males more than females and that generally, women’s participation in social, political and economic spheres still lagged behind that of men. GIDD/UNDP (2012)

The study also established that some males still felt that women tended to lose respect for their husbands once they became financially independent. In some cases, women who were financially independent were negatively labelled and that when they
participated in economic activities, they were usually under the supervision of their male counterpart. GIDD/UNDP (2012)

The above findings are relevant in that they depict how the customary practices such as initiation ceremonies have negatively influenced women’s effective participation in vital economic activities and decision making. The findings indeed also point to the fact that the NGP should address the influence of customary practices in order to be effective. The only gap that can be noted is that the study is too quick to condemn the influence of customary practices but does not explain why girls that have never gone through traditional customary practices such as initiation ceremonies also lag behind their male counterparts in important social and economic spheres of life. The current study will address this gap with specific reference to recruitment and promotion of women to decision making positions in tertiary learning institutions.

The Gender Statistics report produced by the Central Statistics of Zambia in 2010 established that politics and decision making had generally been dominated by males in Zambia. CSO (2010)

The report however, revealed that the proportion of female Members of Parliament (MP) had increased from 13.9% in 2009 to 15% in 2010, while the proportion of female Cabinet Ministers had also increased from 9.1% in 2009 to 17.4% in 2010. On the other hand, the report revealed that female representation in the office of Deputy Minister recorded a decrease from 17.2% in 2009 to 12.5% in 2010. CSO (2010)

The report is significant to the to the current study in that it shows that although the participation of females in decision making positions had generally been low, an increase was noted in some selected political and civil service organizations in 2010. This achievement could be attributed to the implementation of the NGP although its impact was far below the stipulated 30% target share of women representation. The current study will however focus on women representation in decision making
positions in tertiary learning institutions and will highlight reasons why the representation was below the 30% target share during the stipulated period.

Overall, the section on literature review has shown that various factors influence the attainment of gender balance in high decision making positions. Moreover, lessons have been learnt that spatial, institutional and structural variations and similarities are inevitable in attempts to ensure sustainable representation of women in decision making positions.

**Rationale of the study**

Although a number of studies have identified several gender gaps in the Zambian employment system, they did not entirely assess the recruitment and promotion of women to decision making positions in tertiary learning institutions as in relation to the National Gender Policy. It is envisaged that the findings of this study will be informative to the management institutions and the government, particularly in stating how far we are adhering to policy prescriptions of 30% female representation in decision making positions in tertiary learning institutions. Further than this, the study will give recruitment and promotion analysis in the Zambian context and with specific focus on institutions of higher learning.

**Methodology**

**Research design**

This research employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. According to Sidhu (2009:109) “survey may be qualitative or quantitative” depending on the nature of data to be collected and how they are intended to be collected. This research combined both aspects. The quantitative approaches were employed mainly during analysis of data thus, transforming data from the questionnaire into descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages). The qualitative aspects were employed during face to face interviews and
interpretation of data that were qualitative in nature. Through the use of survey research, the researcher came into direct contact with selected key informants from Evelyn Hone College and the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA). Moreover, a survey enabled capturing just a representative fraction of a whole, much as a camera takes a single frame photograph to represent larger landscapes. A survey approach also facilitated the use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques simultaneously.

**Description of study sites**

The study was conducted in Lusaka, particularly NIPA and Evelyn Hone College. Lusaka was chosen because it had the largest concentration of government learning institutions and was also believed to have had a rich setting that could provide the variety of detailed data.

**Population and Sampling**

The data for this study was drawn from human resource focal point persons, human resource staff and staff at lower ranks, who were not in decision making positions from NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

**Sample Size and sampling technique**

The sample consisted of 60 respondents, purposively sampled from Evelyn Hone College and the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA). This sampling technique was used to select 5 decision makers from each of the two learning institutions and this brought the number of selected decision makers to 10. Moreover, 25 non decision making members of staff were purposively selected from each institution, bringing the total of non decision makers to 50. This brought the total sample size to 60, thus a combination of both decision and non-decision making respondents. Since the members of the sample were required to possess special knowledge in recruitments and promotion-related issues, purposive sampling was very appropriate. As the name suggests purposive sampling is used to select a sample for a particular purpose. Moreover, the precise quantitative figures
of the target population in the two institutions were not known so non-probability purposive sampling proved more appropriate as it does not require rigorous rules and rigidity in terms of the figurative target population as strictly required in probability sampling techniques. Purposive sampling technique aims to achieve a homogeneous sample; that is, a sample whose units (for example, people, cases, and others) share the same (or very similar) characteristics or traits (for example, a group of people that are similar in terms of background, occupation, among others.), it was therefore, very appropriate in this research (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

Demographic characteristics of participants in the Study

All participants were Zambians aged 26 to 57. 62% of the total respondents, representing both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College were male while female respondents accounted for 38%. NIPA had a distribution of 16 male respondents and 9 female respondents, while Evelyn Hone College had fifteen (15) male respondents and ten (10) female respondents. The respondents were therefore predominantly male. Five (5) members of staff in decision making were from NIPA whereas; the other five (5) were from Evelyn Hone College. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the respondents.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the respondents in non decision making position at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>NIPA</th>
<th>EVELYN HONE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed data (2011).
Among those in decision making positions, only one female and four males were willing to participate in the study.

**Tools and process of primary data collection**

To achieve the aim and objectives of this study, the researcher used questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedules shown in appendix one and two respectively. During the data collection process through semi-structured interview schedule, the respondents were allowed to express themselves as widely as possible on one theme of research before proceeding to the other.

The use of semi-structured interviews facilitated follow-up questions to obtain deeper insight into certain issues that were raised by the respondents during the direct interviews. Moreover, semi-structured rather than fully structured interviews offered sufficient flexibility to approach different, respondents differently while still covering the same areas of data collection. Being a face to face interview, discussion was also automatically incorporated and note taking was used to record respondents’ words and phrases related to research.

A questionnaire is described by Sidhu (2009) as a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. He noted that a questionnaire enables quantitative data to be collected in a standardized way so that the data are internally consistent and coherent for analysis. Leedy and Ormrod (2001), state that an interview is an oral administration of a questionnaire. The combination of these methods of data collection helped in ensuring validity and trustworthiness of data through the process called triangulation (Sidhu, 2009).

**Ethical considerations during primary data collection**

The researcher got permission from the relevant authorities of each visited institution. The researcher’s letter of introduction, together with the consent letter of the research
participants, were revealed for approval and signed by each participant, prior to being interviewed. When undertaking any research, it is important to consider ethical issues. Leedy and Ormrod (2000) noted that awareness of ethical issues would protect the integrity of the people involved in the research, some of whom might not be able to represent themselves in the event of being misrepresented. It also protects the integrity of the researcher and also ensures trustworthiness of results because people tell the truth if their privacy is respected.

Analysis and processing of primary data

Thematic analysis and descriptive statistical analysis were used to analyse the data. Thematic analysis involved classification of words and phrases that emerged from the interviews and related to the same content into major themes (Bryman, 2008). The idea was to allow the actual prevailing pattern, themes and phrases of the research findings to emerge from the data, rather than be controlled by factors predetermined prior to their collection and analysis. Afterwards data obtained from the questionnaire was also summarized into themes and ideas which were manually coded, synthesized and quantified into percentages, using SPSS and presented in form of tables of frequencies and percentages as descriptive statistics. After obtaining the final overall portraits of the crude data from the respondents, the data were qualitatively interpreted, discussed and conclusions drawn. The next segment explains the process of secondary data collection.

Process of secondary data collection

In this research, some secondary data were obtained from documentary sources, reports, print and electronic media and some dissertations, books, among others from the University of Zambia library and other sources. The process involved reading, reviewing, critiquing where necessary and comparing of different findings already done by different scholars in the context of women representation in decision making process in different institutions.

Limitations of the study
A large scale survey would have been better, but due to limited financial resources and time, the researcher undertook a small scale survey of only 60 respondents. However, substantial information was still gathered because respondents provided a lot of answers for each of the main questions.

Purposive samples, irrespective of the type of purposive sampling used, can be highly prone to researcher bias. The idea that a purposive sample has been created based on the judgment of the researcher is not a good defense when it comes to alleviating possible researcher biases, especially when compared with probability sampling techniques that are designed to reduce such biases. However, the researcher ensured that judgments about the sample composition were properly-conceived or carefully considered by eliciting knowledgeable and experienced respondents.

The researcher could not access the figurative target population which made it somehow challenging to determine the sample size. Therefore, the researcher had to adopt a purposive non-probability sampling which was appropriate in such instances.

**Structure of the Dissertation**

This dissertation is composed of four chapters. Chapter one provides background information, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, conceptual framework, literature review, rationale of the study and methodology used in the study. Chapter two provides the general context of the study in terms of gender and development, geo-demographic characteristic and institutional contexts. Chapter three presents and discusses results on the representation of women in decision making positions, recruitment and promotion processes, factors affecting attainment of the required representation and examination of respondent’s suggestions on the way forward. Chapter four presents the conclusion and recommendations. The references and appendices follow.
CHAPTER TWO

GENERAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the changes in terms of policies and programmes implemented by the Zambian Government aimed at addressing female discrimination and enhancing female participation in decision making positions in society. It first gives a brief discussion of the origins of gender imbalances that existed from historical perspectives, during the colonial administration, during the immediate post independence period from 1964 to about 1980, and after the re-adoption of plural politics in the Third Republic from 1991 to date. It then discusses the structure of the national machinery fostering the implementation of programmes aimed at enhancing gender equity.

Historical Background of Gender Issues

The discrimination against women seems to have originated as a natural consequence of the struggle for survival to hostile natural forces in the evolution of human beings from their earliest ancestors. Generally, males hunted big game and were involved in trading beyond tribal boundaries, while females kept indoors doing household activities, such as taking care of children, weaving and knitting, making beads and so forth. However, with further development of society, role specialization and labour division were also developed to an extent where society started creating reasons to justify such gender divisions that, with the passage of time became norms, not only describing, but also prescribing what was expected of each sexual group. Kelly (1978).

During colonial period, from 1920 to 1964, women were subjected to various forms of discrimination, such as travel restrictions to seek employment in mining
areas. Moreover, adoption of husband’s second names, biased rules in areas such as banking and acquisition of passports, all of which were in favor of males, were very prevalent. Although attempts were made to promote women in decision making positions, the post colonial government continued with much discriminatory policies and practices against females in education, employment, leadership positions and land, as well as property ownership in general (Ibid).

After Independence in 1964, the Zambian government adopted the colonial system of administration and governance. The Government did, however, realize that females were equally capable of performing male-dominated tasks effectively and undertook programmes to enhance their participation in decision making positions (Mshanga, 2007). Despite the apparent lack of an explicit gender policy, the importance of female participation in decision making positions was recognized and implemented through programmes such as:-

- The formation and existence of the Women’s League in the United National Independence Party (UNIP), the country’s ruling party in the First Republic. This was intended to promote female participation in decision making positions in the political arena.

- The appointment of women to senior positions in the party and its government as Members of the Central Committee or Ministers and as Heads of parastatal bodies was also intended to enhance female participation in the development process through occupancy of decision making positions.

Additional efforts were made to increase female participation in decision making positions in the Fourth National Development Plan of 1989 to 1993, which included a chapter on women in development. In spite of these numerous efforts, not much was achieved in terms of equitable female participation in decision making positions in society (Mshanga, 2007).

Zambia’s gender related policies have evolved from the Women in Development (WID) policy approach implemented during the period 1975 to 1985 to Gender
and Development (GD) policy approach from 2000 to date. Under WID policy approach, women’s development issues were addressed through the National Development Plans for example, the fourth National Development Plan aimed at addressing women’s specific issues. However, with change of government in 1991, the implementation of the Fourth National Development Plan was discontinued.

The reintroduction of plural politics in 1991, culminated in further efforts at enhancing female participation in decision making positions in Zambia. In fact following the platform for Action Conference in Beijing in 1995, the Zambian Government and other stakeholders developed a national plan of action known as the Strategic Plan for Development of Women in Zambia (SPAW). Additionally, in recognition of the importance of gender in achieving sustainable development, the government in 1996 elevated what was known as the National Women’s Department under the former National Commission for Development Planning to a Division at Cabinet Office, known as Gender in Development Division. GIDD,(1996).

**Location of the study area**

The two (2) institutions of higher learning under study, (NIPA and Evelyn Hone College) are located in the central part of Lusaka city, which is the capital city of Zambia.
Lusaka

**Figure 2**

Lusaka was the site of a village named after its headman Lusaka, which according to history, is located at Manda Hill near Zambia’s National Assembly Building Sampson (1971). It started as a railway siding in 1905, which was primarily constructed to transport copper from Katanga Province in the present day Democratic Republic of Congo to the sea ports of South Africa. Within a few years, Lusaka attracted a number of white farmers. The British South African Company (BSAC), which was administering the territory at the time on the basis of a royal charter obtained from the British Monarchy, was compelled to grant the growing population around Lusaka the right to manage their local affairs. Mulenga (2003).

Due to its central location and its extremely pleasant climate, it was chosen to replace Livingstone as the Capital City of Northern Rhodesia by the British government in 1935. It has remained the capital city since Zambian gained Independence in 1964.
Lusaka is a fast growing city and its political, social and cultural significance has increased through the years. The principal planners of Lusaka never intended it to be a large city. Its initial area was only 2.6 Km\(^2\). It was however, increased to 18 Km\(^2\) in 1931, then 360 Km\(^2\) in 1970 respectively. Integrated development plan for the city, which was completed in year 2000 proposed extension of the city boundary to bring Kenneth Kaunda International Airport, which is currently in Chongwe District and additional land around the city within its boundaries.

The population is diverse and consists of people from all ethnic groups found in Zambia as well as a small proportion of people of European and Asian origin. It has about three million inhabitants of different nationalities, making it Zambia’s largest city and commercial centre Ibid (2003)

The main ethnic spoken language is Nyanja. It seems, however, to have lost some ground to Bemba since 1980’s due to increased immigrants from the Copperbelt Province where Bemba is widely spoken. Nevertheless, the official language is English.

**Lusaka’s Economy**

Lusaka has a modern business area, lots of scrambling shanties on its out skirts, lively markets and some upscale hotels and restaurants. Its economy has become more diversified with its physical expansion and population growth. It has grown from initially provision of few services to commercial farmers who had earlier established themselves around it to get provision of higher order services, such as financial and technical services, construction and manufacturing activities. As a Capital city, Lusaka also provides services such as administrative functions to the whole Zambia. It has grown to be the seat of government of the Republic of Zambia and as such all diplomatic missions; international and industrial entities have set their base there. Mulenga (2003). Lusaka also has some of the finest Institutions of learning such as the University of Zambia (UNZA), Natural
Among the diverse economic sectors of the city, the construction sector in Lusaka has performed relatively well since the late 1990’s. This has led to the rehabilitation of major roads and construction of new housing estates. On the other hand the primary economic activities such as agriculture and mining have been on the decline because more of the city’s land had become built up. The city provides formal employment only to a small portion of its labour force, the majority of its labour force earns its livelihood from informal small scale economic activities which are mostly unregistered and unregulated, ranging from petty trading to metal fabrication and wood processing Mulenga (2003)

**Governance of Lusaka**

The Lusaka City Council serves as the managing and planning authority of the City. Although the City Council is a corporate body and is expected to manage the affairs of the city independently, it operates as an agent of the central government. Councilors are elected every five years to run the affairs of the city on behalf of the residents. Like all councilors in Zambia, Lusaka City Councilors are part time officials. (Mulenga, 2003)

**Description of the Cases**

**The National Institute of Public Administration**

The National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) is located along Dushamba Road in the central part of Lusaka city. It is a leading training institute providing quality learning. It was established in 1962, initially as a Staff Training College for the civil service in the Northern Rhodesia. At the time, most if not all key and strategic positions, were occupied by expatriate personnel. The decision to establish the college arose out of the perceived death of experienced African administrators and skilled personnel, to take over the administration and

At Independence, Zambia had approximately one hundred University graduates. There was, therefore, need for an institution to undertake intensive crash-training programmes for Zambian administrators, to enable them administer and manage the required affairs of the emerging young nation. Since nationhood required that indigenous people run their own national affairs, the immediate task of the college was to provide training for Zambianisation of the civil service. To this effect, the college undertook various short and intensive training programmes in public and local government administration and law, to prepare Zambians for the challenges of running their own affairs.

Until 1966, the focus of the college’s programmes was on the civil service. However, conscious of the fact that political independence alone was not adequate to address the aspirations of the people of Zambia, the government embarked on radical economic policy reforms. Following adoption of these policy reforms, key industries such as the copper mining companies, were nationalized under the Mulungushi Reforms of April, 1968 and the Matero Reforms of August 1969. The government also created statutory boards which gave rise to the emergency and expansion of the parastatal sector. These developments led to changes in the training requirements of the country, which influenced NIPA to broaden areas of concentration of its training programme, to take into account the emerging training needs of commerce and industry. In light of this new broadened agenda’ the name of the college was changed from Staff Training College to National Institute of Public Administration GRZ (2003).

Subsequently, the Institute undertook training programmes with national focus, mainly aimed at consolidating and imparting public service management skills among Zambian personnel, and had taken over the running of the civil service and the parastatal sector. The expansion and evolution of NIPA and its training programmes continued in later years as, it branched in other fields such as;
accountancy, purchasing and supply, management, law secretarial training and communication and information technology. The institute at this time began to expand some of its programmes to the private sector. Further, NIPA provided training services to other African countries and the liberation movements in the southern Africa region, some of whose cadres were trained to take up administrative positions upon their countries’ attainment of independence. GRZ (1998)

**Emergence of New NIPA**

When the institute evolved as the main government training provider, its various operational constraints became apparent. It also became clear that in order to reduce its dependence on government grants and improve its service delivery, the Institute had to be hived-off from the government and be commercialized. This was because the Institute was identified as having the potential to operate autonomously as a commercial entity, in the new liberalized political and economic environment brought about by the advent of multi-party politics in Zambia in 1991. In line with the Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) introduced in 1993, NIPA was restructured along with other government ministries and organizations. It underwent various processes from 1993 to 1997, culminating in the enactment of the NIPA Act, No. 15 of, 1998 which paved way for transformation of NIPA from a conventional government training department, into an autonomous and self-financing one. It began its operations as new NIPA in January, 2000. GRZ – NIPA Act (1998).

The Vision of the Institute is to be one of the leading institutions in providing high quality professional management and business training, research and consultancy service in the SADC region. Its Mission Statement is to provide innovative and market driven management and business training, research and consultancy services to the public, private and other sectors for improved performance and productivity. The goal of the National Institute of Public Administration is to deliver focused, high quality and affordable training, research
and consultancy services to clients in order to enhance individual and organizational performance in the public and private sector. Opcit (2003).

The functions of the Institute under the Act are to:-

- Provide high quality training, research and consultancy.
- Develop the capacity or high quality training, research and consultancy in public administration.
- Provide high quality training, research and consultancy in the private sector management.
- Do all such things connected with and incidental to the foregoing.

The importance which government attached to the transformation of NIPA was underlined by the appointment of a high powered governing council, comprising of distinguished professionals. GRZ – NIPA Act (1998).

Organizational Structure of NIPA

The Organizational structure of the Institute comprised of the following organs:-

The Governing Council

This is the supreme body responsible for policy formulation and implementation, as well as overseeing the growth and development of the Institute. This has a membership of nine people and some of its main functions are to formulate policies for the Institution, to determine the duties, terms and conditions of service of staff of the institutions and to perform the functions conferred upon it under the Act. GRZ – NIPA Act (1998).

The Board of Studies

This is responsible for controlling and directing the academic work of the Institute and setting and enforcing standards in training and research. The Board is the supreme academic authority of the Institute and organizes controls and directs
academic work of the Institute in teaching, research and consultancy. It also controls the standard of training provided by the Institute.

Some of its specific functions are to advise the council on the provision of facilities, to carry out the policies and objectives of the Institute, direct and regulate the instruction and courses within the Institute. Moreover, it regulates and determines the academic requirements for the admission of persons to the Institute, make rules with regard to examinations and standards to be attained in such examinations and appoint examiners, award diploma’s and certificates, as well as approving and review academic programmes of any division of the institute GRZ – NIPA Act (1998)

Professional, Technical and Administrative Structure

This is headed by the Executive Director (whereas before commercialization, it was headed by a Principal). The Executive Director, as the Chief Executive Officer of the Institute, is subject to the control of the Council and is the academic and administrative head of the Institute. The Professional, Technical and Administrative Structure is responsible for providing efficient and effective day to day management of the Institute in providing training, research and consultancy services. It has three professional divisions and four administrative and technical support departments and units (NIPA, 2005). The three core professional divisions are:

Management Studies Division (MSD), Business Studies Division (BSD), and Research, Consultancy and Development Division (RCDD). The Divisions are headed by Directors.

The four (4) functional support departments, sections and units are; Administration (headed by Registrar), Accounts and Finance (headed by Chief Accountant), Internal Audit (headed by the Chief Internal Auditor, and Library Services (headed by the Librarian).
In 2005, the Institute had a staff establishment of 97, out of which 40 were academic, 37 administrative and technical, and 20 general support staff positions.

**Current Training Programmes**

In fulfilling its mission, the Institute offers a range of certificate and diploma courses, lasting from 6 to 18 months. The institute offers a number of full-time programmes, as well as part-time programmes. It offers a wide range of Certificate, Diploma and Postgraduate programmes in various disciplines such as accountancy, management and administration, information systems and technology, marketing, purchasing and supply and project management. This is supplemented by workshops which are undertaken from time to time, to meeting the specific requirements of clients for short-term training and capacity building, mainly in management related areas. Classes are conducted from 08.00 hours to 17.00 hours during week days and from 17.00 hours to 19.00 hours respectively. These programmes suit a large clientele, especially those that cannot make it during working hours.

In order to attain its vision, mission, and goal, NIPA has divided its programmes and activities into inextricably linked divisions that complement each other. Management Studies Division (MSD) offers programmes in areas like Management Studies, Project Management, Human resource Management and Private Secretaries’ course. On the other hand the Business Studies Division (BSD) offers courses such as Postgraduate Diploma in Financial Management, Accounting Technician’s Diploma, National Accounting Technicians Diploma and Institute of Management and Information Systems.
NIPA’s Market

The institute markets its services widely in order to maintain financial sustainability. In this respect, the Institute targets the public and private sectors, civil society and the school leavers as its market. The school leaver’s market has perhaps, been the most important in generating the revenues that have enabled the institute to survive and achieve financial stability because of its huge demand on NIPA’s training programmes. This may have to some extent, diverted the Institute from fully performing its traditional function of providing in-service training to the public service GRZ (2003)

NIPA’s contribution to capacity building in the Zambian public Service

Before its commercialization and hiving off to operate autonomously, NIPA as a government training institute, played a pivotal role in imparting management and related programmes, professional skills and competencies to various categories of the public service. However, since the coming into effect of the new NIPA Act, the institute has had to broaden its clientele base, to include a large proportion of school leavers, in order to achieve financial sustainability. The Institute has had to depend on this market to a large extent, because the liberalization of the training environment means that, the government no longer solely relies on NIPA for the training requirements of the civil service. NIPA therefore, had had to campaign aggressively in order to remain relevant as a management training institution. This resulted in a situation whereby, the preponderance of students is based on school leavers and not public sector employees, though some of them are still being sponsored by government institutions.

However, specific training requirements of the public service are largely being met on demand, through tailor-made programmes.
Evelyn Hone College

Evelyn Hone College is another convenient training centre for most Zambians, due to its reputation and location. It is located at plot number 4837, corner of Church Road and Dushambe Road in Lusaka, next to the central police. It is the largest of the Technical and Vocational Training (TEVET) Institutions under the Ministry of Science Technology and Vocational Training (MSTVT) with a student population of 4,500. It ranks third only to the University of Zambia (UNZA) and the Copperbelt University (CBU). EHCAAC (2010).

Evelyn Hone College was opened in 1963. It was named after Sir Evelyn Dennison Hone, who was the last Governor of Northern Rhodesia, from 1959 until Zambia’s independence in 1964. Evelyn Hone College used to run the part I and II of City and Guilds of London Institute of Science Laboratory Technician Program. In 1972 the Institution was reconstituted under the Commission of Technical Education and Vocational Training. Under the defunct Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training. The programs were localized and since then there has been a number of revisions.

Governance of the Institution

Since its inception, the college was run by the Ministry of Science Technology and Vocational Training until 1998 when government introduced Management Boards through TEVET Act No. 13 of 1998.

This Act established Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority and defined some of its key functions as to:- provide for the establishment of government Institutions of Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training; to constitute Management Boards for institutions established under the Act and provide for their composition; to regulate all Institutions providing Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship

**Evelyn Hone College Management Board**

This is constituted by the Minister in consultation with the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority. Currently, the board has nine members appointed from various organizations. These are professionals who hold the necessary skills and credentials to contribute effectively to the management of the Institution. The functions of the Management Board are to:-

- Provide training in technical education, vocational and entrepreneurship training
- Develop curricula for the institutions
- Ensure that standards prescribed by the Authority are maintained at the Institution
- Provide training for the staff in the institution
- Administer affairs of the institution
- Subject to the approval of the Minister, to charge and collect fees for tuition, boarding and other services provided by the institution

GRZ (1998)

The management board appoints a Principal or Director, who is the Chief Executive Officer of the Institution and who subject to the control of the management board, is responsible for the administration of the Institution. The Principal/Director is also the Secretary to the management board.

The Board appoints, on terms and conditions as it may determine, other staff as it considers necessary for the performance of functions. The college is managed by a team of managers which reports to the board. It has eight departments namely:- Academic and Applied Sciences, Business Studies, Communication Skills, Education, Health Sciences, Media studies, Secretarial and Office Management and Library. Ibid (1998)
In addition, it has five support units, which include: Finance, Human Resource, Business Development, Internal Audit and Student Services. The college has a total number of one hundred and forty nine (149) core staff and one hundred and one (101) support staff. GRZ (1998)

All institutions in this category have to meet the conditions of the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Standards set by the Authority. If the Management Board fails to comply with the prescribed requirements, the Authority shall cancel registration of the Institution and notify the Principal/Management Board in writing accordingly. The Management Board may, however appeal to the Minister in any decision made by the Authority under its Act (Ibid, 1998).

**Institutional Activities**

The college has a tripartite mandate of *Training, Research* and *Consultancy* as amended by the Statutory Instrument No. 140 of 2000 (Ibid, 2010).

The college offers a number of full-time programmes as well as part-time programmes. It offers well recognized certificate and diploma programmes for future job prospects. It offers academic/professional courses in various disciplines such as Business Management, Information technology and communication, Health Sciences, Laboratory Sciences, Art and Music, Communication skills and Library Studies, Journalism and Printing, Office Management. The courses are available to School leavers, workers and companies or institutions that may want to train their employees. It runs about forty two programmes under different examining bodies (Opcit, 2010).
EHCAAC Market

The main target market comprises school leavers for full time programmes and those in employment for part time programmes. The institution is highly competitive and as such, attracts over 6000 applicants for 1900 places.

Vision Statement

The Vision statement formulated for EHCAAC is “to be an Institute of preferred choice for training in applied arts, commerce, science and technology. Through this vision, the institution will strive to provide superior training relative to its competitors in applied arts, commerce, science and technology in order to increase its market share. In addition, the college management aspires to create and manage an institution which is self sustaining, to offer quality demand and supply driven programmes, to contribute towards national development through research and consultancy and offer acceptable conditions of service to its employees.

EHCAAC (2010).

Mission Statement

In line with the vision, the Mission statement is to provide training in applied arts, commerce, science and technology to local and international students in order to fulfill requirements of the labour market. Through this mission, the institution will position itself to grow in quantity and quality of products and services it delivers. Ibid (2010).

Goal Statement

To ensure increased access to quality training by 30%, develop labour market responsive programmes, and strengthen research and development by 2014. Through this, EHCAAC will expand and rehabilitate infrastructure and introduce innovative option to learning, thereby increasing enrolment levels. The college
will ensure Tevet Qualification Framework (TQF) and National Qualification Framework (NQF) standards are adhered to (Ibid, 2010).

**Value Statement**

Evelyn Hone College will provide its services by embracing the values of accountability, efficiency and effectiveness, fairness, integrity, professionalism, and transparency. These values will ensure that the organizational character, culture, and behavior of management and staff are shaped accordingly.

**Political Development**

The Technical, Education, Vocation and Enterprise Training Authority was established by the Government to regulate all forms of technical education. This was done through the TEVETA Act of No.13 of 1998, and the amended Act No.11 of 2005. As a result, all training providers regardless of ownership, are required by law to register with TEVETA. One of the notable political/legal developments with significant bearing of the college was the introduction of qualification framework in 2010. This is composed of the following:-

Standard setting that include standards of qualifications and skills awards, curriculum framework and learning programmes, registering and accreditation of institutions, trainers and assessors and registering qualifications.

Quality Management System (QMS) which assures the compliance of training providers to established standards.

This saw a reduction in the college income due to reduced enrolment levels arising from phasing out of programmes not recognized TQF. Opcit, (1998).
Economic Development

Through government intervention in mining, health, education and agriculture sectors, the economy has demand for Evelyn Hone College programmes in the mentioned fields. The institution hopes to mitigate this increased demand through expansion of infrastructure, introduction of appropriate curricula and other approaches to delivering education such as Distance Learning or E Learning and fostering public private partnership and improving the conditions of service for staff in order to be competitive with the labour market. EHCAAC (2010)
CHAPTER THREE

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results in the context of the research objectives. The first part shows and discusses results on representation of women as compared to men in decision making positions. The second part presents and discusses results on the process that NIPA and Evelyn Hone College had put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women in decision making positions through recruitment and promotions. The third part highlights and discusses the results on factors that had affected the attainment of 30% women’s representation into decision making. The final section will present and discuss results in the context of measures that could be put in place in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions. A brief summary of the main findings is presented prior to chapter four which presents the conclusions and recommendations.

The study will analyse the views or descriptions of both non management employees and those in key decision making positions.

Representation of women as compared to men in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

In an attempt to effectively determine the representation of women in decision making positions at the two institutions, both non management employees and those in key decision making positions (decision makers) were asked on how they would classify the representation of women in decision making positions.
When employees in non management positions were asked to describe the representation of women in decision making positions, their responses were as shown in table 3.2 below:

**Table 3.2: General (non management) employees’ views on women’s representation in decision making positions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>NIPA</th>
<th>Evelyn Hone College</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2011).

In view of the findings shown in table one above, it was evident that most of the respondents in non-decision making positions classified women participation in decision making as poor. For example, the majority (52%) of them from Evelyn Hone College described women’s representation in decision making as poor. Similarly, at NIPA, 48% of the employees also felt that women representation in decision making position was poor. Only a handful of them at both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College thought that women were well represented in decision making as compared to men. On the other hand, some respondents (16%) from NIPA and 24% from Evelyn Hone College described women’s representation in decision making positions as good, unlike being poor. Meanwhile, 28% of respondents from NIPA rated women’ representation in decision making at average, as did 12% of those from Evelyn Hone College.

The main emerging finding from the ordinary employees in both institutions was that, the representation of women in decision making positions was poor and below the target of the National Gender Policy. As such, the two institutions of higher learning were not on the right track in achieving the NGP objective on 30%
women representation in decision making. In relation to results in table 3.2, table 3.3 below further shows the statistical distributions obtained from the decision makers at both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College concerning the representation of women in decision making positions.

Table 3.3: Results from NIPA and Evelyn Hone College’ decision makers distribution of human resources by gender in decision making position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision making position</th>
<th>Distribution of human resources by gender and institution</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NIPA</td>
<td>Evelyn Hone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Board</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board of studies</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division Directors</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2011)

This section gives a description of women representations in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College by decision makers. The description was in accordance with the relevant institutional documents and interviews with key informants. A close examination of the NIPA Act of 1998 and interview with key informants established that NIPA had two major organs which were responsible for policy formulation and directing academic activities respectively. These were the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) Governing Council and the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) Board of Studies.
It was further established that the Institution had three categories of employees. The first one being, that of academic staff which consisted of the Executive Director and the Directors of Divisions, the second category being that of management staff consisting of the Registrar and other staff holding senior positions, such as Head of Departments, while the support staff category consisted of staff that were neither in academic nor senior management positions but mainly held lower ranking positions.

From table 3.3 above it can be seen that all the ten (100%), members of the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) Governing Council, that is, the body responsible for Institutional management were males. This is contrary to NGP objective of 30% female representation in decision making. Thus it can strongly be said that women probably had no say at all in the way NIPA was run. This is because there was no representation of women. All the decisions on how NIPA should be run were made by males. In the same vein, NIPA’S Board of Studies, which is the supreme academic body, had only two female members (17%), the rest of the members (83%) and all the four (4) Directors of the Institute (100%) were males. The study further revealed the NIPA had six (6) Departments, out of which only the Management Studies Unit was headed by a female. The Key informant from NIPA stated the following:-

“NIPA has three categories of staff, being that of Directors, management and support staff (lower ranking positions). We have two governing bodies, namely, the Governing Council and the Board of Studies”.

“There are very few women in management or high ranking positions at NIPA. All the Directors are male. Among the Heads of Departments, it is only the Head of Management Studies who is female. The distribution is too imbalanced, and thus drastic measures have be taken to address this.”
“All the members of the Governing Council are male, while the Board of Studies has at least two members that are female, out of a membership of ten.”

On the other hand the TEVET Act No. 13 of 1998 and the interview conducted with the key informants, revealed that the major governing body of the college was the Evelyn Hone College Management Board and that the decisions of the Board were operationalized by the Directors and Heads of Departments. Similarly, the Evelyn Hone College Management Board, which had a membership of nine people had only one (11%) female board member. The findings further revealed that the college had eight (8) Departments, out of which only two (25%) were headed by women and these were Secretarial and Library Departments. The Evelyn Hone College had five (5) Directors/Principal officers, who headed divisions in the Institute and out of these only the Director of Finance was female (20%). The Key informant from Evelyn Hone College stated the following:-

“We have not recruited any female candidate to a high ranking management position in the past two years. And as you can see from the statistics given, there are only two out of eight Departments in the College that are headed by women and these are Secretarial and Library, according to me, these are the areas where women have competitive advantage.”

“We have one supreme decision making body, which officiates on all administrative and academic issues. This is the Evelyn Hone College Management Board. It comprises of eight members, and out of which, one is female. Membership to the Management Board is however, done by appointment through the relevant Ministry.”

“I wish to note that the Director of Finance is female. This is one field that is sensitive and is considered as a male domain, but a female is directing it, which is quite encouraging. “The other four directorates, namely, Human Resource, Business Development, Internal Audit and Student Service. are headed by men”.

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The findings above highlighted a strong similarity in the responses obtained from non management employees and those in decision making positions at both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College regarding the representation of women in decision making positions. The descriptions of key informants and non management employees at both institutions revealed that the male to female gender gap representation in decision making positions was “too wide” and was exceedingly far from meeting the 30% representation stipulated in the NGP. The representation of women in decision making positions at the two institutions under study was far below the 30% target share stipulated in the National Gender Policy. The findings further revealed that women were generally underrepresented in higher occupational grades and leadership positions. These show that there was little achievement scored in terms of attaining the 30% threshold of women representation in decision making positions since the gender policy was passed.

In spite of the adoption of the National Gender Policy in 2000, the 30% target share of women representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn College had not been attained.

More than Nine (9) years down the line, the implementation of the gender policy concerning women representation in decision making positions did not seem to have produced significant impact at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College. The results show that even when controls for a female employee and desire for promotion and credentials are in place, males are more likely than females to be recruited and selected for promotion. There is, therefore, insignificant participation of women in our government institutions as their presence in the workforce is in quantitative terms, negligible.

With such outcomes, it is very evident that the gender policy framers and heads of government units and departments do not see a compelling case for the notion that modern societies need to see women less as passive recipients of help, and more as dynamic promoters of social transformation. The finding from both non-decision makers and decision makers clearly show an inextricable link. Economic
participation concerns not only the actual numbers of women participating in the labour force, but also their remuneration on an equal basis Sen, (1999).

It was evident from the findings, that female heads of departments at the two institutions were concentrated in secretarial, management studies and library studies departments, whose activities are considered feminine. In line with this finding, the Strategic Plan of Action (SPA) stated that although women constitute the majority workforce in Zambia, they are concentrated in the low echelons of the institutions and are in stereotyped occupations with low remunerations GIDD (2004).

This could also be attributed to cultural aspect, where women are oriented to take up supportive roles.

It can be argued that in the two institutions that are under study, gendered leadership and management seem to be associated and socially constructed with masculine behaviour (Mavin et al., 2004). Given this scenario, it is not surprising, therefore, that women are still largely excluded from power and influence in organisations. Just like this study, a few studies have explored the gendered nature and construction of leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1999, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Fletcher, 2004; Mavin et al., 2004; Rosener, 1990; Sparrow and Rigg, 1993) and these studies tend to show male dominance in decision making, just like in the case of the current research.

Generally, evidence from the tables show that nearly all decision makers at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College were male and thus were likely to make sure that their gender schemas about men and women’s abilities would have a bearing on recruitment and promotion decisions. This could lead men and women to face very different relationships to employment and advancement (Villain, 1999). Moreover, adherence to the 30% representation of women in decision making positions still remained a pipe dream despite the SPA in place. It would, therefore, be imperative
to re-strategize how the NGP goals could be met. Otherwise, the goals may just remain on paper without any pragmatic impact practice.

The next section of this chapter shows and discusses results on the process that NIPA and Evelyn Hone Colleges had put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women in decision making positions through recruitment and promotions.

**Comparative Analysis**

In comparison, although the percentage of women representation at both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College as described by key informants and policy documents, was below the expected target share, it can be noted that Evelyn Hone College had a slightly higher percentage of female representation in management/decision making positions. When analysed from a broader context, NIPA had only managed to go up to 9.4% of women representation whereas, Evelyn Hone College had gone up to 17.4%.

On the other hand, the percentage of male representation in decision making positions at Evelyn Hone College was rated at **82.6%**, thus pegging a male to female presentation ratio at one female to five males (1:5). While the percentage of male representation in decision making positions at NIPA was at **90.6%**, thereby depicting the ratio of representation at one female to nine males (1:9).

**Process that NIPA and Evelyn Hone Colleges had put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women into decision making positions through recruitment and promotions.**

**Introduction**

This section presents and discusses results that were obtained through a semi-structured interview schedule to examine the processes of recruitment and
promotion used at Evelyn Hone and NIPA in view of attaining 30% women representation in decision making positions through promotions and recruitments. This objective was meant to determine the affirmative action the two institutions of higher learning have put in place in order to ensure that more women are recruited and promoted to decision making positions. It should also be noted that responses on this objective were collected using one to one in-depth interviews with human resource experts at the two respective institutions. Thus the findings of the study were not quantified.

**Recruitment Process at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College**

When a vacancy arose an advertisement was circulated via the media, mostly in the local public and private daily newspapers such as the Zambia Daily Mail, Times of Zambia and The Post Newspaper. Advertising was termed as a crucial part of the recruitment process for the Institution, as it reached out into the labour market with an attractive offer of employment aimed at attracting the most suitable candidates. Applicants were then shortlisted on the first come first serve basis, as well as level of qualifications. The process was transparent and accorded everyone an equal opportunity to apply.

This was done by the recruitment panel that compared each application form with the requirements of the employee specification. Feedback could be provided (upon request) to those not short listed. All those shortlisted were then invited for interviews. The panel of interviewers would use the same set of questions with each candidate. The interviews would sometimes include use of selection tests. The members discussed all the candidates between them and arrived at a majority decision. If a sufficiently strong candidate had not been forthcoming, the decision would be “not to appoint” but to re-advertise. In comparison, the recruitment processes at Evelyn Hone College and NIPA were basically the same, However, the only difference was that at Evelyn Hone College, certain jobs were advertised
with strong emphasis encouraging women to apply. One of the key informants in decision making position at Evelyn Hone had the following to say.

“Depending on the type of person we need for a particular position we want as an institution, we strongly encourage women to apply”.

All in all, both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College followed the traditional model of recruitment which can specifically be described as shown in figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: Traditional Model of Recruitment used at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

From the findings, it is evident that the recruitment practices of the two institutions were centralized in that the recruitment decisions were spearheaded by Human Resources Departments, which, according to evidence, were predominated by
males. Generally, both followed the traditional model of recruitment, which, was the standard recruitment procedure used by almost every organization.

Critics such as Olvitt (2007) have however, pointed out that this model is outdated and is gender blind. This critic is true in the context of NIPA and Evelyn Hone College because evidence revealed that usually both institutions recruited without putting due emphasis on gender issues or without any clear affirmative action. In as much as it is appreciated that such a recruitment process is meant to be neutral and fair, it could still be argued that this can strongly disadvantage women.

The procedures were gender neutral, thereby stressing that both female and male employees had equal opportunities to being recruited at management and key decision making positions. The recruitment process was, therefore, gender blind with no affirmative action to enhance women representation in the important sectors of society. The situation portrayed that the two Institutions had not implemented measures that would ensure positive discrimination in favour of women in recruitment of women to decision making positions.

The NGP measure of developing criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory and decision making positions had not yet been operational at these two institutions. The findings also suggest that the institutions themselves have greatly contributed to non attainment of the 30% women representation in decision making in that they do not make any efforts to implement the stipulated gender policy measures. This is a big flaw on the part of the two big public institutions which are supposed to be good examples to other institutions in implementing gender policy of 30% target share of women representation. Affirmative action and legally binding frameworks could help rectify the problem. For example, UNZA has an affirmative action in terms of students’ recruitment that, of all applicants aspiring to be students at the highest learning institution, 30% must automatically be for females and the remainder (70%) is to be equally competed for between males and females. Even though this
strategy has not yet brought the balance in terms of enrollment ratios, it has a potential to address some gender imbalances that once marred UNZA.

Earlier in the literature review, it was noted that lack of guidelines on recruitment process could deter attainment of the most desirable gender balance, it is therefore, very significant to put up affirmative measures to rectify such alarming imbalances in recruitment identified at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

Such scenarios precisely qualify the observations that gender mainstreaming into various government sectors was slow due to weak implementation strategies (GIDD, 2000). Although Evelyn Hone College, rather than NIPA, seemed to encourage women to apply, the general impression showed that both institutions encouraged women to compete equitably with men for available jobs. This clearly shows that there is need for GIDD and other relevant stakeholders charged with responsibility of spearheading the fight against gender imbalance in decision making to vigorously undertake sensitization campaigns. This would enlighten policy makers in public institutions on the importance of gender mainstreaming so as to clear any doubts or fears they might have on the subject. Reflecting on earlier research shown in the literature by the European Industrial Relations Observatory (2002), most organisations had rejected the use of affirmative action such as the quota system arguing that it was at odds with the principle of gender equality and was, therefore, discriminatory and undemocratic. Both institutions in this study seem to inherently embrace this old school of thought.

Overall, it was noted that both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College were not upholding any affirmative action to ensure 30% women’s representation in decision making positions through recruitment. This had resulted towards a conclusion that the process of recruitment was exceedingly ineffective to ensure gender balance, rendering the NGP goal of 30% women representation impractical on the ground.
Promotion process at NIPA

The interview with 5 decision making officials at NIPA revealed that NIPA had no policy of promoting employees internally. All vacant positions were advertised externally, in the media; especially the print media and interested candidates, whether from within or outside the organization, were encouraged to respond to the advertisement. One of the interviewee said the following:

“At NIPA the vacant positions for promotions are usually openly advertised in the News papers and everyone is accorded a chance to compete equitably for the position. The candidate with the most appropriate experience and qualification is appointed, irrespective of gender or whether the candidate is from within or outside the organization’s hierarchies”.

Process of promotion at Evelyn Hone College

One of the interviewed informants from Human Resources Department established that unlike NIPA, Evelyn Hone College had a policy on internal recruitment, or promoting members of staff from within the organization to higher ranking positions. This was used as a way of rewarding good performance and motivating employees to work hard.

It was revealed that when a vacancy, especially at high ranking levels, arose in a particular Department, the Head of that Department would be asked to identify a suitable professional employee that could be considered for the vacant position. Mostly the officer who was immediate subordinate to the vacant position, if eligible, would be given consideration. The candidate would be appointed to act on the position for a specific period, with a view to confirmation. At the elapse of the period, the candidate’s performance and qualifications would be assessed by a relevant committee which would forward its recommendations to the Human Resource Department on the suitability of the candidate for the position.
If the applicant meets the qualifications, she or he would be promoted to the higher position. If the candidate did not meet the Institutional expectations, the position would be advertised/posted in the News media for off-campus recruitment.

*The Institution did not believe in favoring any one, but what mattered was the suitability of the person for the position,* The Human Resource Manager stressed.

The findings above articulate that both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College did not put in place measures to promote more women to management/decision making positions, but rather left it open ended. This clearly showed lack of affirmative action to promote women into decision making positions.

This was compounded by the fact that NIPA had no institutional human resource strategies for promotion of either sex to decision making positions which portrayed inadequacy in the human resource development policies. There was simply no succession planning and thus, all positions had to be advertised in the public media and competed for equally, a situation which adversely affected the attainment of the target share of women representation in decision making positions. In line with this finding, the journal on Recruitment and Promotion of women to Decision Making Positions disclosed that lack of human resource policies and strategies to promote, recruit and develop of female managers was a serious deterrent to gender diversity Salma, (1999).

On the other hand Evelyn Hone College portrayed a stronger institutional support for promotion of employees within the organization to higher ranks, which is also referred to as internal recruitment. This implies that as much as most job vacancies were advertised externally, the Institution had also upheld the development of internal capacity so as to ensure that they meet future human resource requirements. This revealed that Evelyn Hone College had a clear promotional ladder in that each category of staff was aware of their career paths. It can be argued that even though filling vacancies from within the organizations had disadvantages in that the institution has no infusion of “fresh blood” and the
process also creates the problem of whether to promote on seniority or merit, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. This is because in addition to reducing the expenses and time costs of recruiting new employees, it was also likely to build up a committed and motivated workforce. The only thing that would be required in the case of Evelyn Hone is strengthening the promotion to embrace women because evidence in the tables referred to earlier showed much to be desired in as far as gender balance was concerned.

Although NIPA on the other hand displayed high levels of transparency in recruitment procedures; it had not effectively utilized the important human resource development tool of promoting employees within the organization. It was evident that the two institutions upheld the value of being equal opportunity employers and did not see the need of introducing affirmative action in recruiting and promoting women to decision making positions. The interview also brought out the fact that there was need for women to develop more self confidence which would enable them to develop the potential necessary for them to compete favourably in the job market.

These observations made are also reflected by the journal on Recruitment and Promotion of women to Decision Making Positions, which noted that there was a tendency by employers to shun affirmative action and that most Institutions did not implement programmes to facilitate advancement of women as role models and neither did they design any management training programmes. It further disclosed that the major obstacle that prevented women from realizing their utmost professional advancement was the self image of women portrayed as inferior to men, which became difficult to change overtime because it was ingrained and conditioned in their upbringing and social development (Salma, 1999).

In the context of the processes of recruitment and promotion to ensure 30% representation of women, it was generally evident that NIPA and Evelyn Hone College had not put in place measures to enhance promotion of women to decision making positions. It can be argued that the problem did not emanate from the two
higher learning Institutions, but it was as a result of poor implementation and monitoring strategies of the gender policy. Like research elsewhere, this study has shown that although the gender policy advocated for the improvements of male to female ratio in terms of promotion, the percentage of women representation still remained exceedingly low as shown in tables 3.1 and 3.2.

Another major weakness that strongly emanated from the structures of two institutions of higher learning was lack of effective Human Resource Development Policies. Human Resource Development which mainly comprises training and development of employees ensures that recruits acquire occupational skills and knowledge necessary to contribute effectively towards the achievements of the objectives of the organization. It also equipped employees for higher positions and greater responsibilities where specialized knowledge and increased competence were required. The absence of strong Human Resource Development Policies greatly impeded the career development/advancement of women. This point is captured in the conceptual framework and is in line with the study by Diakonia (2010).

Moreover, this study has shown that although there are gender policy advocates for the improvements of male to female rates in terms of recruitment and promotion, lack of affirmative action had seriously led to continuous gender imbalances even when the policy was approved in 2000. As a result, the numbers of females in decision making positions still remained disproportionately low, as compared to numbers in the non decision making positions thereby rendering the NGP ineffective. The findings in the two institutions are similar to what the literature says about the US where women are generally underrepresented at higher occupational grades and leadership posts (Greene et al., 2001). It was evident that in upholding the value of being an equal opportunity employer, NIPA and Evelyn Hone College had endeavored to eliminate discrimination on the basis of the sex of the employee with regards to recruitment and promotion. The non adherence to the policy measures that would ensure positive discrimination in favour of women
in recruitment and promotion to decision making positions is a direct contradiction to the National Gender Policy (GIDD, 2000).

**Conclusion**

It was, therefore, evident that there was no efficient and effective administrative and management framework, including strong political will to translate the National Gender Policy with its objectives, into a tangible reality. The structures and programmes put in place displayed lack of institutional linkages between the national coordinating body and the implementing Institutions.

Having discussed the general representation of women in decision making and the process of recruitment, and promotion, the following section presents and discusses results on factors that had effected the attainment of 30% women’s representation in decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

**Factors that affected the attainment of 30% women’s representation in decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.**

**Introduction**

In order to achieve the 30% women representation in decision making positions, it is important to address factors which inhibit women’s participation in decision making positions. The enhanced representation of women in decision making positions as the goal of the National Gender Policy cannot be achieved with continued existence of certain barriers to gender balance. This section aims at establishing key inhibiting factors in the attainment of 30% women representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College. Respondents were asked to identify factors that they thought were inhibiting women’s 30% representations in decision making positions. Table 3.4 below shows their responses.
Table 3.4: Factors that affected the attainment of 30% women representation to decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Distribution of responses by institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NIPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Institutional recruitment and Promotion structures</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is normal tendency to favour men</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low levels of education among women</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural issues cause women to turn down positions</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gender awareness and sensitization</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Institutional policies to encourage women</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information on operationalizing gender</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor qualifications among women</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor responses from women to job adverts</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apathy and the strongly held belief by men that women did not have the capacities to work like men</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self confidence among women</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2011). *the total frequency for each category of response was 25.

From the findings, it is evident that the factors inhibiting women’s participation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College were as follows:-

**Lack of deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further Studies**

According to table 3.4, above, the majority of the respondents from NIPA (64%) and Evelyn Hone (72%) Colleges reflected lack of deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies as one of the impediments to the policy implementation of 30% women representation in decision making positions. This reason justifies the importance of Human Resource Development in an organization as recommended by the Government of the Republic of Zambia.
It could also be noted that the two institutions lacked clear objectives and targets in terms of Human Resource Development. They had not set criteria for training and developing female employees in professional and technical skills that would endeavour them to adequately compete for promotion to higher decision making levels.

They displayed a wide gender gap in Human Resource Development in that women had not been given the necessary educational/professional skills to enable them effectively compete and be promoted to high ranking jobs. Gender has not been mainstreamed in training, which has led to women lagging behind in education and professional advancement. It was evident from this study that the two institutions had not implemented the necessary Human Resource Development mechanisms to promote the gender balance and particularly to ensure 30% women’s representation in decision making. This finding is as captured in the Conceptual framework which states that while there is no gender gap in primary education, women still lag behind men when it comes to higher education, such as College and University education.

*Strongly held belief that women did not have the capacities to work like men*

The majority of the respondents from both Evelyn Hone College (56%) and NIPA (84%) identified strongly held belief that women did not have the capacities to work like men as one of the hindrances to gender balance in decision making positions. The result was that most women were not able to ascend to decision making positions, which implies that society’s attitude towards women also plays a part in inhibiting that attainment of the NGP of 30% representation in decision making positions.

This finding also is in line with the 2003 Catalyst study of women corporate leadership in the United States, which established that perceptions about women’s
ability to take on international responsibilities and their willingness to accept them were considered key obstacles to their being selected for international executive jobs. Survey respondents believed that women were not as “internationally mobile” as men (Catalyst: 2003).

Critically thinking about this finding, it is easy to see that this is just a socially constructed belief that certain positions are not suited for women due to their fragile nature and their gender roles. Because of this, it is possible to lead to lack of self confidence among women employees to take up positions of authority. This in turn prevents them from striving for promotions in managerial positions and eventually failure to attain the desired 30% representation as outlined in the NGP. The study established that one of the obstacles that prevented women from realizing their utmost professional advancement was the self image of women portrayed as inferior to men and which became difficult to change overtime, considering that it was ingrained and conditioned in their upbringing and social development.

On the other hand women may feel that those positions are too demanding and that they would not manage to perform, considering other family responsibilities. This is in most cases common when such promotions involve working at awkward hours or relocating to another town. This agrees with what the South African Journal of Education on the persistence of gender inequality in Zimbabwe revealed. The journal established that although the majority of women in the study qualified for promotion to senior positions, they had not attempted to apply for them due to gender stereotypes which manifested in form of women attachment to family roles. O. Chabaya & S. Rembe (2009).

_Cultural issues cause women to turn down positions_

The findings of the study depict that cultural issues played a role in inhibiting the attainment of 30% women representation in decision making positions. In line
with this, the SPA articulated that cultural beliefs, customs and socialization processes have perpetuated gender imbalances. It further stated that gender roles assigned to women and girls are of low value while those assigned to boys and men are highly valued and boys (men) are prepared for being decision makers (GIDD, 2004). It was evident that traditionally, women were socialized to take up supportive roles such as housekeeping and child rearing, while leadership positions were reserved for men. Even when after they get married, they are culturally initiated to value their family and marital roles more than their professional responsibilities. This implies that there is need to have a cultural orientation that can achieve the target share of women representation in positions of authority.

The finding agrees with the journal on recruitment and promotion of women to Decision Making Positions, which established that cultural taboos/conservative traditional attitudes which portrayed women’s primary role as that of a wife and mother, had a spill over effect at the work place where some employers regarded women as being less capable than men and unfit for responsible positions claiming that family obligations took priority, and hence subjected them to lower productivity and absenteeism (Salma, 1999). The finding also agrees with the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) Progress Report of 2008, which articulated that attitudes and beliefs obtaining in patriarchal systems of society rate men as superior to women. This negatively affects how men regard women especially when it comes to equal participation in decision making positions.

Lack of self confidence among women

With reference to table 3.4 above, lack of self confidence among women was one of the major impediments to the attainment of 30% women representation in decision making positions. According to the respondents, female employees
lacked self confidence which in turn prevented them from striving for managerial positions. They argued that female employees tended to shy away from responsibilities, and when they were confronted with a challenge, they would always hide behind the feminism complex.

A situation was that women feel victimised and disregarded just due to their sex. This also implies that women’s attitudes are also affecting the attainment of the 30% target share of the gender policy. Lack of self confidence by women might also indicate failure by GIDD to conduct sensitization and training programmes to build self-confidence in potential female managers. The argument appears to point to the inability of GIDD to adequately perform its capacity building role in training females for managerial positions. On the other hand lack of self confidence might be caused by inadequate skills and qualifications by female employees which make them unwilling to take up managerial positions.

**Poor responses from women to job adverts**

Another factor advanced for failure to implement the NGP of 30% women representation at management/decision making positions was that there was poor response from women to job adverts. According to the study findings, 60% and 56% of respondents Evelyn Hone College and NIPA respectively argued that when job adverts were made, very few or no applications were received from women. This finding is in line with the South African Journal of Education which revealed that although the majority of women in the study sampled qualified for promotion to school headship position, they did not attempt to apply for the position when it was advertised. This was attributed to women’s passionate attachment to family roles.

It could be explained that women, especially married ones, do not take career advancement as a priority as compared to men. They are ready to shun management/decision making positions, when these are considered a threat to their family existence and peace. The approach is opposite when it comes to men as
their marriage increases their aspiration for career advancement. It shows that women do not actually respond to job adverts even when they meet qualifications because they attach more importance to their family gender roles. They shun high profile jobs which are at decision making positions, due to the fact that they pose a challenge to their family roles and values.

Such revelations share a common nexus with those found in the United States which established that family responsibilities played a major role in whether or not the women would accept the jobs. Some of them had delayed accepting them until their children were older; while others even resigned in order to prioritize the family roles. It revealed that some women admitted that they had neither actively planned their career development nor sought promotion, and when they had been offered promotion they had hesitated before accepting or had turned it down when they thought it would conflict with their quality of life.

*Lack of information on operationalizing gender*

According to the findings as shown in table 3.4, the majority of respondents from NIPA (76%) and Evelyn Hone (64%) Colleges indicated that the NGP did not provide Information or guidelines on how the 30% of women representation in decision making positions could be operationalized. From the findings, it could be argued that as much as managers would want to adhere to the policy pronouncement, they simply do not precisely know how to do it. The implementation plan, which is referred to as the strategic plan of action for the NGP, does not provide a clear road map on how the policy would be effected, monitored and later on streamlined into the human resources structures of an institution.

This view showed lack of significant positive impact of the gender programmes implemented by GIDD and thus, nullifying the effectiveness of NGP in meeting 30% representation of women in decision making. The NGOs concerned with gender activism celebrated the adoption of the policy but did not provide expertise
on how the policy could be implemented. This could have resulted in the slow action in translating policy pronouncements into implementable activities to ensure gender balance in all important sectors of society. It implies that the NGP did not provide policy priority areas of focus, nor strategic entry points in sectors where greatest desired change could be easily achieved. The key informants in decision making at both institutions also attested to this factor.

Even though a Strategic Plan of Action (SPA) was developed and adopted for implementation of the NGP, it was prepared four (4) years after NGP when it was supposed to have been an accompanying document. It was produced as a standalone strategy (to be used parallel to sectoral strategies) rather than mainstreaming it into sectoral strategies to promote ownership, thereby frustrating the efforts by the various sectors in their efforts to implement the NGP.

It was also established that the SPA did not focus on issues of institutional Human Resource Development (HRD), gender capacity building for the gender machinery, which is critical for implementing the NGP. It also contained weak statements which did not provide baseline on how progress could be measured. In addition, it does not also give clear guideline on how the monitoring and evaluation will be undertaken and what key performance indicators will be used for tracking achievement (GiDD, 2004). Lack of clear guidelines on how to operationise gender in institutions is generally a major setback in ensuring that 30% women’s representation in decision making is attained. This was evident at the two learning institutions studied.

The key informants at both Institutions also attested to this factor. Please refer to excerpts of interviews below.

“There is lack of information on how we could implement the gender policy”
(Key informant - NIPA)
“The policy has no guidelines so how do we apply the principle? Again, there are poor responses from women to job adverts. So you do not see a lot of them coming forward”.

(Key informant - Evelyn Hone College)

Poor qualifications among women

Another important factor advanced as inhibiting implementation of the 30% NGP target share of women representation is that of poor qualifications among women. Sixty per cent of the respondents from NIPA and 56% of them at Evelyn Hone College observed that women lacked adequate skills and educational qualifications necessary to occupy high ranking jobs, hence the persistent imbalance in decision making positions. For example, one of the Heads of Department at Evelyn Hone College said that: “Certain positions have very few or no women with qualifications to apply”.

One of the reasons could be the way institutions are arranged. That is the higher you go the fewer the positions, so it implies that one needs special skills and professional experience in order to compete for decision making positions. It can, therefore, be deduced that most women are not adequately educated to compete with men for available high ranking jobs. The problem can be attributed to failure by responsible institutions to adequately perform their roles of building capacity of female employees.

If policy makers had adequately put in place deliberate programmes and structures to support females in acquiring the necessary education and professional skills, then the factor of inadequate qualifications and skills among women could not have persisted. In line with this argument, lies the challenge of encouraging women’s education, especially tertiary one, because it is one of the key determinants to ascending to decision making positions. This finding tallies with Mathabe’s (2002) study on Mainstreaming Gender into Universities which
observed that most women were not able to ascend to positions of decision making because most of them were not able to reach postgraduate level of education. As a result most of them ended up in the low ranking jobs and positions.

*Lack of Institutional Recruitment and Promotion criteria for enforcing women representation*

Premised on table 3.4, the majority of respondents from both Evelyn Hone (60%) College and NIPA (48%) identified lack of Institutional recruitment and promotion criteria for enforcing 30% women representation as one of the hurdles that deterred women’s representation in decision making positions. The findings reflect that the policy has not been institutionalized in the operating structures of the necessary ministries and organizations. In order to address gender issues related to women’s poor participation in decision making and low representation at senior executive levels in various institutions, the government proposed the need to develop criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory and decision making positions. This had not been done by the two institutions under study.

The problem could be attributed to lack of legal backing to enforce implementation. The lack of legal backing to enforce its implementation could, on the other hand, also reflect low levels of political will and commitment on the part of policy makers and political leaders in ensuring that the policy pronouncement was practically attained. It can be deduced that they were only interested in adopting the policy in order to fulfill the SADC Declaration and other international conventions on gender equity.

*Tendency to favour men*

Further, results in table 3.4 showed that there was a tendency to favour men over women in work organisations. This finding contradicts the Strategic Plan of Action (2004), where the Ministry of Justice and Public Service Management Division
were mandated to lobby for the abolition of discriminatory gender insensitive policies and practices. Moreover, GIDD (2002:13), showed that by December 2001, new legislation had been passed to prohibit discriminatory gender policies and practices in institutions. As a follow up, by December 2002, about 73% - 75% of the gender discriminatory institutional policies were reviewed in Zambia for possible prohibition through new legislation. Therefore, one would wonder why such inhibiting factors of favouritism based on gender should prevail. The possibility is that such legislative amendments could just be on paper and are not having impact in practice.

**Gender Blindness among policy makers**

Some informants in decision making positions at both institutions highlighted existence of particular stereotypes which would make it difficult to apply the policy. The articulation during one of the interviews was that there should not be a deliberate policy to favor or discriminate against any gender. One of the respondents said the following.

> “Yeah! it is a good thing to have this policy. The policy is not easy to implement. I believe there should be no deliberate policy for discrimination and favoritism of any gender when recruiting or promoting people to decision making positions”.

It is evident from the above statement that since most policy makers are male, it might have negatively affected the attainment of 30% women representation in decision making positions in that they have particular stereotypes which would make it difficult to apply the policy. It can, therefore, be argued that men equate themselves with aggression and dominance over women, a situation which has potential to compromise national development and peace.
**Weak Institutional framework**

Informants in decision making positions also revealed several inadequacies and weaknesses in the institutional framework for coordinating the implementation of the National Gender Policy (NGP) and other gender related activities in the nation.

This is in agreement with the Strategy and Implementation Plan for engendering the Public Service Management Division which concluded that gender mainstreaming to various sectors of government was slow and attributed this to weak implementation strategies (GIDD, 2010). It was established that the Gender Focal Point Persons, who were appointed from among the civil servants to spearhead the implementation of gender programmes, were all part time gender activists, since they were still full-time employees of their respective institutions. As a result, they tended to be overburdened and deprived of time, energy and motivation to perform gender programmes effectively. This heavily contributed to poor implementation of gender programmes.

There is, therefore, need to officially establish gender positions to enable them become full-time and permanent functionaries for effective implementation to be possible. GIDD should consider having a centrally controlled establishment for focal point persons who could be distributed to various ministries and institutions. In addition, Gender Focal Point Persons (GFPP) faced several challenges, both internally and externally. These included weak institutional linkages between GFPP and other institutions responsible for gender implementation. It was established that the GFPP did not regularly provide feedback information on their operations to GIDD for performance assessment.

Without knowledge of success and problems encountered, no effective corrective measures could be taken. It was also established that GIDD did not provide regular guidelines and supervision to the GFPP and as a result, their performance
was not coordinated and focused, thereby resulting in insignificant impact. Another outstanding weakness was that Focal Point Persons of different Ministries did not hold regular meetings to share their experiences.

This isolation perpetuated lack of awareness and lack of coordination, thereby resulting in poor performance and lack of success in the implementation of gender programmes. In spite of the fact that, provincial and district development coordinating committees had encompassed gender programmes in their plans through focal point persons, there were no formally established gender structures in place, thereby resulting in insignificant impact.

**Conclusion**

According to the general impression of findings, it is evident that several factors are behind the failure to effectively implement the NGP goal of 30% women representation in decision making positions. Some of the detrimental weaknesses were lack of structures and information in operationalizing gender, which led to poor implementation structures and strategies. It was also evident that the other factors were complex, interdependent and systemic because one could lead to the other. In order to address all such factors outlined, adequate implementing structures in the gender machinery have to be put in place. It appears that there is inadequate administrative and management framework to translate the gender policy with its objectives into a tangible reality, as evident from NIPA and Evelyn Hone College.

Having discussed the factors affecting 30% women’s representation in decision making, the following final section presents and discusses results in the context of measures that could be put in place in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions.
Measures to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone Colleges.

Introduction

In this section, the respondents were asked to make suggestions on the possible solutions through which the percentage of women representation in decision making positions could reach 30%. The findings from this section enabled the researcher to come up with formidable solutions on how the gender policy could be effectively implemented. Due to the interrelated views, the outlining and analysis of findings in this section will be combined. Table 3.5 gives an outline of the measures suggested by the respondents.

According to the responses outlined in table 3.5 below, the following measures were suggested as possible solutions through which the percentage of women representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College could be enhanced to reach the 30% target share:-
Table 3.5: Measures to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone Colleges.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggested measures</th>
<th>Distribution of responses by institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NIPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be increased funding for workshops and seminars for gender awareness and sensitization programmes</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Institution should come up with a deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women who are qualified should be encouraged to aspire for senior positions</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Institution should also embark on capacity building programmes and mechanisms that will enhance gender equality</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct gender sensitization for commissioners and officers responsible for interviewing and recruitment</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitization of male folk to support females to take up challenging jobs as well as encourage them (males) to do home chores</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: field data (2011). *Nb* the total frequency for each category of response was 25.

According to the responses outlined in table 4 above, four (4) measures were suggested as possible solutions through which the percentage of women representation in decision making positions at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College could be enhanced to reach the 30% target share. The measures were as follows:-

**Women who are qualified should be encouraged to aspire for senior positions**

According to the table, some respondents from both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College suggested that it would be necessary to put deliberate measures in place in
order to ensure that women that had the appropriate qualifications are encouraged to aspire others for decision making positions. It has been noted that sometimes women who are qualified for senior positions do not apply for them when the positions are advertised. In line with this finding, the South African Journal of Education established that the gender stereotypes which manifested in form of women attachment to family roles, (women were not prepared to take responsibilities away from their children and husbands) and lack of self confidence, (women felt compelled to be led by men) were shown to be the major causes of persistent under representation of women to headship position.

It can, therefore, be argued that in most institutions, women themselves have greatly contributed to perpetuating gender imbalance in favour of men, a situation which calls for deliberate policy measures to be put in place. To address such problems, ZARD recommended the introduction of quota system as the appropriate affirmative action to increase women’s participation at higher professional levels in the public sector (ZARD, 2011).

Key informants in decision making positions also noted that there was need to encourage women to take up challenging positions, especially those deemed exclusively for men. They suggested that in order to attain this, there was need to enhance sensitization programmes to enhance women’s self confidence and to encourage them to pursue higher level studies. On the other hand, it was suggested that institutions should come up with specific recruitment policies for higher positions for example, for every position occupied by a male, the next third position should be filled by a female unless otherwise and that an emphasis be put on every advert encouraging women to apply. Some of the respondents in decision making positions said the following:

“We must encourage women to take up certain positions which are deemed exclusively male. There is need for a lot of sensitisation on the matter.... Ensure
that the policy trickles down to lower institutions (Respondent in decision making - Evelyn Hone College)

“For every position occupied by a male, the next third position should be filled by a female unless otherwise. (Respondent in decision making - NIPA)

“There is also need to Indicate in the job advertisements that women are encouraged to apply”. (Respondent in decision making - NIPA)

Institutions should come up with a deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies.

A large number of respondents at NIPA (64%) and Evelyn Hone College (76%) stressed the need for institutions to put in place policies that would encourage women to advance for further studies. This was noted as one of the most reliable ways of addressing the inadequate skills and education qualifications among female employees as it would encourage more women not to end up at basic education level but to advance to professional higher degrees. In order to achieve this, institutions need to strengthen their human resource training and development policies with special emphasis introducing measures such as training quota’s which would enable more women to advance professionally. This finding agrees with Mathabe’s (2002) study on Mainstreaming Gender into Universities, which established that women’s participation in all levels of higher education needed attention and observed that most women were not able to reach postgraduate level of education and as a result, could not progress to senior academic and management positions.
The Institutions should also embark on capacity building programmes and mechanisms that would enhance gender equity

Moreover, 64% of respondents from NIPA and 60% from Evelyn Hone College suggested that organisations should also embark on capacity building programmes and mechanisms that would enhance gender equity. It was noted that there was very little being done in terms of conducting gender sensitization workshops and training necessary to change people’s negative attitudes and perceptions on gender roles. In the first instance, it can be argued that there is need to carry out sensitization programmes for women to enable them develop the necessary confidence to believe in themselves and to know that they can equally perform well in high ranking levels before any capacity building programme can be conducted. Women are said to have low self confidence as they are generally trained to be like that through practices such as initiation ceremonies. They consistently underestimate their own ability and tend to change their minds about perceptual judgments if someone disagrees with them. Girl children have less encouragement for independence and are subjected to more parental protectiveness.

Thus consequently, a girl often doesn’t develop enough skills in coping with her environment, and this affects her confidence. She continues to be dependent on adults for solving her problems, which means she may want to preserve her emotional ties with adults at all costs, including the cost of her independence and self-confidence.

One of the informants in a decision making position from Evelyn Hone College said the following.

“Women should be encouraged to face challenges and to move away from feminine consciousness so that they could compete equally with men. We just have to formulate a deliberate
Institutional policy drawing from the gender policy that would favour and attract women.”

In addition, it also called for institutions to discard policies or mechanisms which are still biased and discriminatory against women, such as those involving employee transfers, placement and housing. These are said to normally consider the views and residence of husbands, and very rarely of wives.

The study by Lungu (1987), Reskin and Ross (1995) augers with this finding. Their research stated that married women were not accommodated in their own rights as employees and they could be transferred against their will based on their husband’s transfers and hardly ever the other way round. In addition, the above authors further pointed out that at times, within organisations, human resource matters such as performance appraisal and staff development procedures were gender blind.

*Sensitization of male folk to support females to take up challenging jobs as well as encourage (males) to do home chores.*

There was a suggestion to sensitize male folk to support women to take up challenging jobs. It was further noted that the attitude of male folks had to be transformed so that they could be available to assist in reducing the burden of family care responsibilities bestowed on women by society. The process of giving a full dignity to the opinions of women is slowed down by the fact that societal structures that places the opinions of men higher still remains. As soon as the men begin to help women in the empowerment process and in their daily chores it will have a tremendous impact on the lives of the women. The articulation during one of the interviews by a key informant from Evelyn Hone College, that that there should not be a deliberate policy to favor or discriminate against any gender, highlights the existence of particular stereotypes were male, who are the majority
decision makers in this institution, equate themselves with aggression and dominance over women and also show resistance towards the NGP implementation. This is an attitude which seemed to have been clearly observed by most affected employees.

Since people’s ideas and attitudes change with situations, male prejudices would have declined and finally disappeared had effective implementation of sensitization programmes targeted at reducing male prejudices occurred. This boarders on the need by GIDD and concerned Non Governmental Organisations (NGO’s) to implement gender programmes which will ideally impart positive gender values and attitudes to both males and females.

The national gender structure, however, seemed to be weak at all levels. There was need to strengthen the staffing levels of the national coordinating body (GIDD) because lack of gender specialists in key positions contribute to weaknesses in the coordination, monitoring and evaluation systems and capacities at various levels. This can only be achieved if the Government and foreign donors provide sufficient funding to address issues pertaining to staffing levels, skills training of focal persons, sensitization programmes of employees, funding and coordination among responsible institutions and individuals.

In addition, there are no lower level (sub-district and community) gender structures to allow gender programmes and information to permeate every local community in Zambia, to enable people to change their values and attitudes. If policy makers had adequately put deliberate programmes and structures in place that enabled positive discrimination of women, then gender imbalances in decision making positions would not have persisted to such a detrimental level.
Conclusion

The remedies or solutions outlined in the study clearly indicated that negative perceptions arising from cultural practices, about women’s inability to perform certain tasks and to occupy decision making positions can only be corrected if Gender in Development Division (GIDD) intensified sensitization programmes to keep people informed on the need to redress gender inequalities against women. As a way forward, concerted efforts were required to implement programmes which would ideally impart positive gender values and attitudes to both males and females.

Lack of information flow entails lack of linkages, which contribute to the inappropriate implementation of the policy directives. It is evident that in order to carry out the noted sensitization and capacity building programmes adequate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms have to be effected. This is because without knowledge of successes and problems encountered, no effective corrective measures can be taken, hence little progress expected.
CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The main objective of this research was to examine the effectiveness of the National Gender Policy in achieving 30% representation of women in decision making, and management positions at the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) and Evelyn Hone Colleges. The specific objectives included the following:

To examine the process that NIPA and Evelyn Hone College had put in place to achieve the 30% representation of women in decision making positions through recruitment and promotions. The other objective was to establish factors that had effected the attainment of 30% women’s representation into decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone Colleges, and to seek suggestions on measures that could be put in place in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions. The research also aimed at determining the representation of women in decision making positions.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it was concluded that the NGP had not been effective in ensuring 30% women’s representation in decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone College due to poor implementation measures and structures. It was established that both NIPA and Evelyn Hone College had not achieved
the 30% target share of women representation in decision making positions. It was further noted that the male to female gender gap representation in decision making positions was “too wide in that by 2010 both institutions barely managed to even go up to 10% of women representation. It was observed that the gender policy lacks direction and lacks implementation measures.

The two institutions followed the traditional model of recruitment whose process was gender neutral or gender blind. Both institutions acknowledged and upheld the value of being equal opportunity employers where all employees were recruited and promoted on the same terms and conditions of service. It was also concluded that there was no gender proportions for promotion or recruitment to decision making positions and that women were generally underrepresented in higher occupational grades and leadership positions.

Evelyn Hone had an internal recruitment/promotion policy which was not existent at NIPA. Thus, all vacant positions were advertised externally. However, both institutions did not still attain the desired representation of women in decision making. The findings also indicate that there are no measures to enact gender equality. It was further noted that a wide gender gap exists and that no quarters for females exist.

It was also established that there were a number of factors that inhibited the attainment of the 30% women representation in decision making positions. These factors were complex, interdependent and systemic in nature. Some of these were lack of institutional recruitment and promotion criteria for enforcing women representation; lack of information on operationalizing gender and poor qualifications among women, among others. In short, had
implementation of programmes taken place, the above constraints would have been resolved or become insignificant. The two institutions are gendered in structure, practices and have old ‘policies’ that perpetuate unequal power, rewards and opportunities, and interpersonal relations, which reinforce and recreate gendered patterns of behaviour and processes.

The national gender structure, however, seemed to be weak at all levels. There was need to strengthen the staffing levels of the national coordinating body (GIDD) because the lack of gender specialists in key positions contributes to weaknesses in the coordination, monitoring and evaluation systems and capacities at various levels. This can only be achieved if the Government and foreign donors provide sufficient funding to address issues pertaining to staffing levels, skills training of focal persons, sensitization programmes of employees, funding and coordination among responsible institutions and individuals.

**Recommendations**

Premised on conclusion and some of the major findings of this research, recommendations have been proposed in relation to further research, policy implementation, advocacy and formulation.

1. **Recommendations for further research**

   a. i. Researchers should conduct further research beyond the focus of this study in the context of:-

   ii. Other goals of the NGP, other than the 30% target share women representation in decision making.

   iii. Other Policy measures of the NGP, besides developing criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory and decision making positions.
2. **Recommendations for Policy Implementation**

a. GIDD should ensure that all those involved in the implementors of gender programmes are adequately trained in gender analytical skills and have the relevant gender skills required to execute their functions effectively.

b. The government through the Ministry of Finance and National Planning should ensure that appropriate and adequate resources, material, financial, human, time and legal authority are given to the implementing institutions to empower them which in turn will enable them to implement the NGP more adequately. This will demonstrate political will.

c. The government should consider lobbying donors (such as those from the Nordic countries) that have been particularly supportive of gender mainstreaming programmes to fund initiatives such as gender training and gender sensitive research and analysis.

d. The government through the Public Service Management Division should review the training policy and recruitment placement guidelines and procedures to incorporate affirmative action measures.

e. The government through the Public Service Management Division should introduce gender equity measures such as scholarships for further training for under-represented gender category, to quality them for promotion to decision making positions.

f. The Government should upgrade GIDD, not just to a full Cabinet Ministry, but to a Commission. This will give it much more legal authority to enforce and monitor implementation of the gender policy in all government ministries
and institutions. It is difficult for GIDD to effectively spearhead implementation when it is at the same level of authority with other government cabinet ministries.

g. GIDD should ensure that controlling officers such as Executive Directors, Principals, and Permanent Secretaries of institutions and lead ministries have separate budget lines for effective implementation of gender programmes.

h. GIDD should re-examine the concept of using part time staff to implement gender programmes with a view of making them permanent employees.

3. **Recommendations for Policy Advocacy**

   a. Women NGOs and Government through the Ministry of Gender and Child Development should revise their strategy of advocacy or voicing out on gender equality and equity by:

      i. Applying gender mainstreaming strategies which involve struggling against misunderstanding, tokenism and sometimes outright hostility, and grappling with the complex issue of power at both political and personal levels. This may mean increasing the growth of relationships between bureaucrats, civil society representatives, donors and academics in joint working or advisory groups.

      ii. Extending sensitization programmes to traditional cultural institutions and activities in order to reverse the negative impact cultural values have on the attainment of enhanced women representation in decision making positions.

      iii. Developing and implementing mentoring strategies for identifying potential female candidates for promotions.
b. The Ministry of Education should incorporate Gender studies in the educational curriculum, starting from basic educational level so that people could be socialised to appreciate the importance of gender equity and equality from a tender age.

c. GIDD needs to coordinate and supervise tertiary education and skills training programmes, in order to encourage women to attain higher degrees and to aspire for senior positions. Currently without positive discrimination, were different standards are set for female candidates; females may not compete and attain equity. However, such “less experienced females” once promoted should undergo capacity building as a priority for quality performance.

4. **Recommendations for Policy Formulation**

a. GIDD should revise the gender policy measures since they are just statements without direction and measurable outputs.

b. GIDD should through the NGP, systematically translate the process of gender mainstreaming into gender responsive organizational policies.

c. The Zambian Government (Cabinet), through the constitution making agencies, should ensure that the important gender policy measures of the NGP, such as 30% women representation in decision making position, are adequately incorporated in the Republican Constitution.
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APPENDICES

1. QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent,

I am a graduate student from the University of Zambia carrying out a research on the effectiveness of the national gender policy in ensuring women’s participation in decision making among tertiary learning institutions in Zambia: the case of the national institute of public administration and Evelyn Hone Colleges. You have been randomly selected as part of this research as a respondent. You are required to answer the questions honestly and to the best of your knowledge. The information you will give is strictly for academic purposes and will therefore, be treated with highest confidentiality.

Signature…………………………………………….

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please tick (√) where necessary and comment where required.

SECTION A: General Information

INSTRUCTIONS: Please tick ………against the most appropriate answer and fill the blanks.

Age……………

Section B: Representation of women as compared to men in decision making positions

1. How do you classify women’s representation in decision making in this institution? (for respondents in non decision making positions)
   a. Very good…....... b. Good………  c. Average……… d. Poor………..

(Question 2 to 3 for respondents in decision making position).
2. List the main departments that your institution has:

3. How many men, women, and men are in each of the mentioned departments?

Section C: Factors effecting the attainment of 30% women’s representation into decision making at NIPA and Evelyn Hone colleges.

(Question 4 to 6 for respondents in non decision making position).

4. Please tick the factors that negatively affect 30% women representation in decision making from the list below.

5. Please tick the factors that you think do not affect 30% women representation in decision making from the list below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Institutional recruitment and Promotion structures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is normally tendency to favour men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low levels of education among women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural issues cause women to turn down positions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gender awareness and sensitization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Institutional policies to encourage women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information on operationalizing gender</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor qualifications among women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor responses from women to job adverts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apathy and the strongly held belief by men that women did not have the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacities to work like men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self confidence among women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section D: Measures to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making positions.

6. What should be done in order to attain 30% representation of women in decision making position? (tick those which apply and those that do not apply to your institution)
There should be increased funding for workshops and seminars for gender awareness and sensitization programmes.

The Institution should come up with a deliberate policy to encourage women to go for further studies.

Women who are qualified should be encouraged to aspire for senior positions.

The Institution should also embark on capacity building programmes and mechanisms that will enhance gender equality.

Conduct gender sensitization for commissioners and officers responsible for interviewing and recruitment.

Sensitization of male folk to support females to take up challenging jobs as well as encourage them (males) to do home chores.

2. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR RESPONDENTS IN DECISION MAKING

Dear respondent,

I am a graduate student from the University of Zambia carrying out a research on the effectiveness of the national gender policy in ensuring women’s participation in decision making among tertiary learning institutions in Zambia: the case of the national institute of public administration and Evelyn Hone Colleges. You have been randomly selected as part of this research as a respondent. You are required to answer the questions honestly and to the best of your knowledge. The information you will give is strictly for academic purposes and will therefore, be treated with highest confidentiality.

Signature……………………..

Question 1:
What process is used to ensure 30% women’s representation in decision making through recruitment and promotions?…………………………………………………………………………………………

Question 2:
What factors do you think have been inhibiting attainment of 30% women’s representation in decision making?

Question 3:
What should be done in order to sustainably attain the 30% women’s representation in decision making?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSES