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**PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN MANUFACTURING:
PATTERNS, DETERMINANTS AND FUTURE TRENDS
REGIONAL ANALYSIS, ECA REGION**

US/RAF/93/128

FINAL REPORT*

prepared by

Integration of Women in Industrial
Development Unit

* The expressed in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the UNIDO Secretariat. This document has not been edited.

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PREFACE

This study is part of UNIDO's efforts to establish a more systematic approach to data collection and analysis to provide a sound base for identifying and designing activities which will improve the integration of women in industrial development. In a wider context, the study represents UNIDO's contribution to regional preparations for the Fourth World Conference on Women to be held in Beijing in 1995.

The frame of reference for the study was provided by the global analysis of patterns of women's economic/industrial participation contained in 1992/93 UNIDO study on "Women in Manufacturing: Participation Patterns, Determinants and Trends" (UNIDO, October 1993). The present study on women in the African region benefited from the methodology developed for the global analysis but the conceptual model has been adapted to reflect women's concerns specific to this region. The methodology represents a valid contribution to the analysis of women's economic participation and together with the proposed programmes of action constitute the main output of this project. In addition, a separate report is being prepared to address in more detail problems associated with the collection of gender sensitive indicators in the region.

The study, which was generously supported by the Government of The Netherlands has been implemented by the Integration of Women in Industrial Development Unit with the assistance and cooperation of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA). The work involved in the study was shared between an international consultant (Pavla Jezkova), a regional consultant (Zenebeworke Tadesse) and a UNIDO data processing team (Claudia Barberis, Giorgia Dario-Paolucci and Stefan Bosnjakovic). A two day workshop was jointly organized by UNIDO and ECA in Addis Abeba, 16-17 August 1994. Selected experts/observers from the region (Saida Agrebi from Tunisia, Gladys Mutukwa from Zambia, Abigail Andah from Ghana, Jeanne Kouao from Cote d'Ivoire, Ida Wanendeya from Uganda and John Forje from Cameroon) were invited to the workshop to review the preliminary findings of the study and to provide substantive inputs for the formulation of strategies and plans of action for a more efficient and equitable use of human resources in economic and industrial development in the region.

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INTRODUCTION

The role of women in development has been the focus of international and national agencies' programmes since the Mexico City Conference in 1975. This trend has been reinforced by the need to examine issues of women's economic contribution in the wider context of human resources development. It has been recognized that policies which concentrated on the development of physical capital and neglected the human element have failed to bring about sustainable improvement in economic and social conditions for the majority of the developing countries' population. Adoption of a "gender-based" perspective has increased the understanding of the different social and economic factors which shape the roles of women and men and are primarily responsible for the differences between women's and men's achievements and participation in development.

"Women's role is not only the reproduction of the human race, but also their contribution to social and economic life and development. There can be no useful analysis nor efficient economic and social policy without a measurement of their contribution and the special circumstances in which it is made. It is sometimes not realized that the whole economic system would be paralysed the moment women withdrew their cooperation."
(Measuring Women's and Men's Economic Contribution, Lourdes Urdaneta-Ferran, 49 th Session of the International Statistical Institute).

On the African continent, the importance of women's contribution to development takes on a special significance. Women constitute the majority of the rural population and make a crucial contribution to the food production sub-sector. The neglect of women's role in agriculture is accepted as a major cause of the decline in African food production (ADB 1990). Furthermore, it is also recognized that without women's activities in the informal sector most urban centres in Africa cannot be fed (ILO 1988). In Africa, the number of households headed by women is the highest in the world and these households often represent the most disadvantaged section of the population (IFAD 1993). Thus,

"...the Bank Group believes, that the continent cannot begin to solve its development problems until policies and mechanisms are established that remove barriers inhibiting the maximization of women's development efforts and the realization by women of adequate returns from their labour." (Policy Paper on Women in Development, African Development Bank 1990)

The lack of information and understanding about the economic activities and conditions of women in Africa has been one of the major stumbling blocks in formulating policies and monitoring progress towards efficient use of human resources. Women count - but are not counted. Although revisions in internationally accepted definitions of economic activities have helped to capture the diversity of women's involvement in development and make women's contribution more visible, a little progress in their adoption has been made in Africa so far.

The main difficulties seem to lay in the interpretation of what constitute an economic activity. Majority of African women are involved in activities which fall outside the formal market-oriented production. These activities are mostly related to food production and services necessary for the survival of their own households. Since no monetary reward is attached to these activities they are not reflected in national accounts.

The purpose of social and economic development, as defined in the 1990 Human Development Report, is to offer people more options. One of the most important options is access to income through employment. This aspect is of a particular interest to women. Wage employment does not only enhance women's economic status, but also their social status. On the other hand, formalized employment may create a conflict between the different functions performed by women, especially in Africa. Thus women's economic role has to be analyzed in the following context:

Enhancing women's participation in the economy is beneficial to women, the family and society as a whole but benefits derived from increased participation of women in wage employment should not be at the expense of women's quality of life. Any additional burden on women resulting from the increased participation should be minimized and shared equally among men and women.

The evidence so far available shows that industrial development is a necessary condition for economic development and employment growth. From the economic point of view, industry related activities have proved to have a higher income-generating capacity than agriculture related activities. If employment is used as a measure of economic contribution, women's participation in industry related activities is an important aspect of women's role in development.

In most African countries, the industrial labour force is still small and participation of women in the formal manufacturing sector is still rare. This is why their role in industrial development attracted less attention than their role in agriculture or the social domain. This neglect has obscured two important relationships. The first is the relationship between industrial development and women's participation in the manufacturing sector. The second is the relationship between women's wage employment and social development. Countries where industrialization has been rapid and successful show high participation rates of women in manufacturing employment. At the same time, women's access to wage employment has been accompanied by an improvement in social, educational and demographic indicators. Countries with the highest proportion of women in the modern sector (of which manufacturing has been an important employer of female labour) have the lowest illiteracy rates, the longest life expectancies and the lowest fertility rates.

The 1985 Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000 as well as the 1987 Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development (The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s) have presented major challenges to the role and status of women in social and economic development of their nations. The persistence of female-male gaps in human resources development poses an important challenge and offers an opportunity to accelerate economic and social progress by investing in women. Making economic structures and policies more responsive to women's needs will lead to a more efficient use

of a large part of human capital.

The main objective of this study is to arrive at an integrated programme of action which will have a greater impact than fragmented individual activities. For this purpose, a systematic approach was adopted for data collection and analysis (see Box 1 and Annex A) to provide a base for decision making about areas which need to be addressed if the participation of women in economic/industrial development is to be enhanced and put on equal footing with that of men. The study is a follow up of UNIDO's previous work done in this field which analyzed emerging global patterns of women's economic/industrial participation. The approach adopted in the global and the present regional analysis is based on a conceptual systems model which reflects the interplay of social, economic, political and institutional factors affecting male and female participation in the economy and the manufacturing sector in particular (see BOX 2). An overview of the original set of indicators and variables representing these systems is given in Table 1.

This integrated approach allows a more comprehensive assessment of the characteristics of female participation. Use of a systematized and standardized country data sets facilitates comparative analysis of a wide range of countries at different stages of development and to some extent compensates for the lack of time series data in the model. By using multivariate analysis, country groups with similar patterns across the relevant systems are identified and projected against expected economic and industrial trends. In this context, constraints for the identified groups of countries are identified and programmes of action proposed to sustain and enhance the contribution of women to the economic development foreseen in the region up to year 2000 and beyond.

The main sources of data used in the study were: the data base for the Economic Commission for Africa Socio-economic Indicators; the UNIDO Global Econometric Database; the database for the ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics; the database for the ILO Year Book of Labour Statistics; the data base for the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook; the UN Micro computer Data base on Women's Indicators and Statistics (WISTAT). Sources for individual indicators are given in Annex B.

The lack of data availability, most notably gender disaggregated data on employment, have caused limitations in the full use of the conceptual model. To compensate for this limitation as well as for the often low quality of data, the statistical analysis is supplemented by qualitative information from other relevant literature. Nevertheless, a number of indicators had to be excluded from the analysis to ensure a total coverage of the continent. Issues related to the availability of gender sensitive indicators at regional and national level are addressed in a separate report.

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The methodological framework consists of three parts: a conceptual model, identification of variables and indicators, and statistical analysis. The framework is an adapted approach developed by UNIDO for the analysis of industrial systems and sectoral typologies.

A. Conceptual model of women's economic/industrial participation

The underlying premises for the analysis are as follows:

1. Women's economic participation is determined by inter-dependent relationships between a number of systems: economic, social, demographic, traditional culture/religion, political, and legal/institutional.
2. Each system may be represented by a number of variables. The interactions of these variables have a different impact on economic participation of men and women in different age groups, income groups, social groups and household units.
3. Variables within one system may strengthen/weaken/ neutralize The impact of variables in other systems.

B. Identification of variables and indicators

Empirical research, surveys and studies have identified issues relevant to the examination of women's role in economic/industrial development. These issues were expressed as variables and classified under the relevant systems. Statistical indicators were chosen to quantify and systematize information pertaining to the variables. Selection of these indicators relied heavily on conceptual work undertaken by the UN system with regard to gender sensitive statistics characterizing women's economic role. Table 1 shows the list of variables and indicators grouped under the relevant systems. An assessment of the indicators at a country and regional level helped to delineate different patterns of male and female labour force participation in a given time.

C. Statistical tools and analysis

Statistical tools facilitated cross-country comparative analysis of large sets of data which gave a more complete picture of factors affecting the economic role of women. Means, correlations and regressions were calculated to determine the strength/weakness of indicators as well as their relationships. Multivariate statistical techniques were used to approximate groupings of countries sharing similar characteristics of women's economic participation. Results of statistical analysis were verified by qualitative information.

Box 2

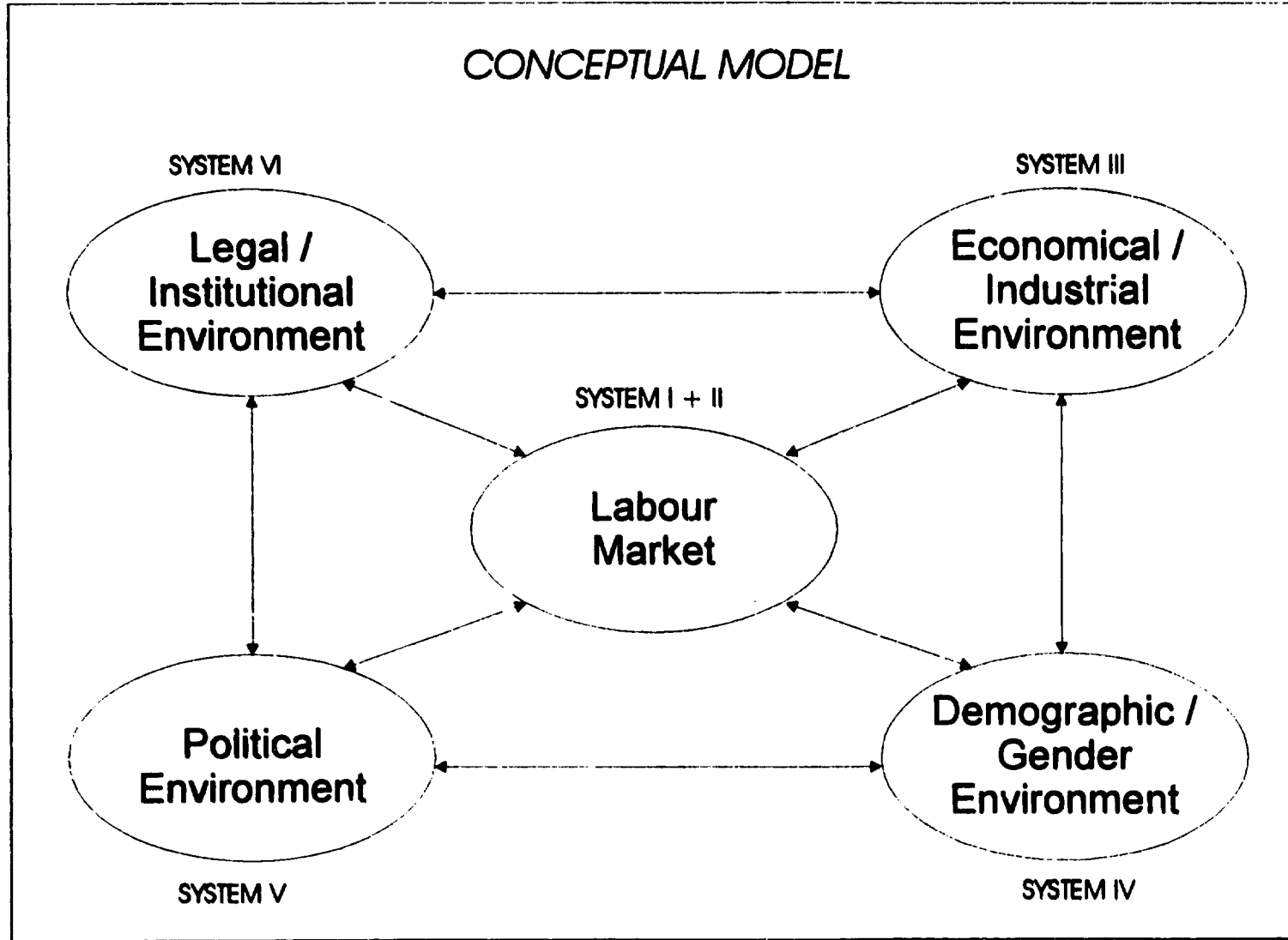


Table 1

LIST OF VARIABLES AND INDICATORS

I. LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS	
Variable 1.1. Size and distribution of Economically Active Population (EAP)	
1.1.1.	Women's economic activity rate (15 years +) ~ [Economically active female population 15+ / total female population 15+]
1.1.2.	Gender gap in economic activity rate ~ [(Male - female EAP) - total EAP]
1.1.5.	Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector ~ [Females EAP in agriculture / total female EAP]
1.1.6.	Gender gap in agricultural activities ~ [(Male - female EAP in agriculture) / total EAP in agriculture]
1.1.7.	Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector (commerce and services) ~ [Females EAP in tertiary sector / total female EAP]
1.1.8.	Gender gap in tertiary activities ~ [(Male - female EAP in tertiary sector) / total EAP in tertiary sector]
1.1.10	Women's share in total EAP [Female EAP / total EAP]
Variable 1.2 Size and distribution of employment	
1.2.1.	Women's employment rate [Female employment / female EAP]
1.2.2.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male employment - female employment) / male employment]
1.2.3.	Women's employment rate in non-agricultural activity [Female employment in non agricultural activities / female employment]
1.2.4.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male employment in non-agricultural activities - female employment in non-agricultural activities) / male employment in non-agricultural activities]
1.2.9.	Women's Total Employment Rate [Female employment/total employment]
II. INDUSTRIAL LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS	
Variable 2.1. Size and distribution	
2.1.1.	Participation rate of women in manufacturing ~ [Female EAP in manufacturing / total female EAP]
2.1.2.	Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities ~ [(Male - female EAP in manufacturing) / total EAP in manufacturing]
2.1.3.	Participation rate of women in manufacturing employment [Female employment in manuf. / total female employment]
2.1.4.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male employment in manuf. - female employment in manuf.) / male employment in manufacturing]
2.1.11.	Women in manufacturing employment [Female Employment in manufacturing / total manufacturing employment]

Table 1

LIST OF VARIABLES AND INDICATORS

III. ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL ENVIRONMENT	
Variable 3.1. Level of economic development	
3.1.1.	Logarithm of GDP/capita ~ [[minX - X (=GDP/capita;log)] / (minX - maxX)]
3.1.2.	Share of the agricultural sector in GDP ~
3.1.3.	Share of the tertiary sector in GDP ~
3.1.4.	Share of MVA in GDP ~
3.1.5.	Share of exports in GDP
3.1.6.	F/M wage ratio in agriculture
3.1.7.	Inflation rate [mean of price index for last three years]
3.1.8.	Share of government expenditure in GDP ~
3.1.9.	GDP per capita [absolute values in US \$]
3.1.12	Average index of food production per capita [production 1979/80 = 100]
3.1.13	Debt service ratio ~
3.1.14	Food imports as percentage of total imports
Variable 3.2. Level of industrial development	
3.2.1.	Logarithm of MVA/capita ~ [(minX - X) / (minX - maxX)]
3.2.2.	Share of manufactured goods in total exports ~
3.2.4.	Share of metal, machinery and equipment products 38 in total MVA
3.2.9	Share of the food and beverages sub-sector (31) in total MVA
3.2.10	Share of the textile and leather sub-sector (32) in total MVA
Variable 3.3. Infrastructure	
3.3.1	Length of railways per 1000 square kilometres
3.3.2.	Length of road per 1000 square kilometres
3.3.3.	Number of radio receivers per 1000 inhabitants
3.3.5.	Government expenditure on education [Government expenditure on education / total government expenditure]
3.3.6.	Basic needs index <i>[This index includes a combination of an education and a health index. The values are between 0 and 1. The closer the value is to 1, the higher the basic needs status of the population of the country: IFAD 1993].</i>
3.3.7	Government expenditure on health

Table 1

LIST OF VARIABLES AND INDICATORS

IV. SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS	
Variable 4.1. Size and distribution of population	
4.1.1.	Urbanization ~ [Urban population / total population]
4.1.3.	Gender gap in life expectancy ~ [(Male - female life expectancy at birth) / total life expectancy at birth]
4.1.4.	Total fertility (births per woman) ~
4.1.5.	Mean age at first marriage for women [(minX - X) / (minX - maxX)]
4.1.8.	Female headed households ~ [Female headed households / total number of households]
4.1.9.	Dependency ratio [(0-14 years and 65 years +) / EAP 15 - 64 years]
4.1.10.	Women's status index <i>[Composite measure of maternal mortality, use of contraceptives, literacy, primary and secondary school enrolment, F/M wage differential, and labour force participation: IFAD 1993]</i>
Variable 4.2. Access to education	
4.2.1.	Gender gap in literacy rate ~ [(Female - male literacy rate) / total literacy rate]
4.2.2.	Female primary enrolment rate ~ [Female enrolment in primary school / female population of relevant age group]
4.2.3.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male enrolment rate in primary school - female enrolment rate in primary school) / male enrolment in primary school]
4.2.4.	Female secondary enrolment ratio ~ [Female enrolment in secondary school / female population of relevant age group]
4.2.5.	Gender gap in secondary school enrolment ~ [(Female - male enrolment rate in secondary school) / total enrolment rate in secondary school]
4.2.6.	Female tertiary enrolment ratio [Female enrolment in tertiary school / female population of relevant age group]
4.2.7.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male enrolment rate in tertiary school - female enrolment rate in tertiary school) / male enrolment in tertiary school]
4.2.11.	Index of male/female disparity [(Male enrolment rate in technical subjects - female enrolment rate in technical subjects) / male enrolment rate in technical subjects]
V. POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT	
Variable 5.1 Distribution of power	
5.1.1.	Parliamentary representation [Women members of parliament / members of parliament]
5.1.2.	National Machinery for the Advancement of Women

Table 1

LIST OF VARIABLES AND INDICATORS

VI. LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK	
Variable 6.1. Legal protection	
6.1.1.	Ratification of the International Convention on elimination of all discrimination against women (CEI'AW) ~
6.1.2.	Ratification of ILO Convention 100 - Equal remuneration, 1951 ~
6.1.3.	Ratification of ILO Convention 111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), 1958 ~
~ Indicators used in Cluster Analysis	

CHAPTER I. PATTERNS AND DETERMINANTS OF WOMEN'S ROLE IN ECONOMIC/INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES

The following four sections interpret the main characteristics of the six systems through the selected gender sensitive indicators for the whole continent. In order to include all ECA countries in the system analysis, the original set of desirable indicators presented in Table 1 was reduced. Examples from countries with wider data coverage are included as well as findings from relevant research and surveys conducted in the region to enlarge the scope and time perspective of the analysis. Division of countries into commonly used geographical sub-regions illustrates the diversity both within and across the subregions (see [Table 2](#)). The last section in this chapter summarizes the main findings from this and other studies regarding determinants of women's participation in economic and industrial activities.

1.1. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET

The most distinguished features of the African labour market are the youthfulness of the labour force, the large concentration of economically active population in the agricultural sector, the wide spread and increasing formal sector unemployment, and the increasing size of employment in the informal sector. The demographic imbalance between the economically active section and dependent sections of the population partially explains the falling activity rates (defined here as a ratio of the population age 15-64 to the total population) for Africa as a whole between 1980 and 1990.

However, the decline in female activity rate for Africa as a whole (2.5 per cent) was larger than that of male (1.7 per cent) during this period (*ECA 1992, Table 9*). The difference could hardly be attributed to larger female school enrolments which have not changed significantly for the relevant age group during this time. A more plausible explanation seems to be the rising teenage pregnancies (*ILO/World Employment Programme 1993*) and higher involvement of women in activities related to household survival which still tend to be excluded from the definition of economic activities (*ECA 1992, ILO/JASPA 1990*). By adopting a more gender sensitive definition of economic activities including those in the informal sector, labour force surveys in a number of countries show that the activity rate of women has in fact increased in the last years. The increase is mainly attributed to a larger participation of urban women (*surveys from Zimbabwe and Kenya quoted in ILO/JASPA 1990*).

The regional average for female activity rate was 25 per cent and 50 per cent for men in 1992. There are marked differences between countries and the sub-regions, especially between North and Sub-Saharan Africa. On average, countries in East and Southern Africa had the highest female activity rate, 33 per cent. Countries in the North Africa have the lowest activity rate. Although the differences could partially be explained by the use of different definitions and consistent undercounting of female economically active population, especially in the muslim countries (*UNDP 1990, Sultan 1990, Moghadam 1990*), the differences are striking. Whereas the female activity rate declined in Sub-Saharan Africa, the overall economic activity rates have improved in North Africa in the last decade (*ECA 1992d, Table 9*). Furthermore, the female activity rates for North Africa as a whole increased faster than that of men between 1980 and 1990, 1.4 per cent and 0.4 percent respectively. This could be interpreted that women in North Africa were more successful in securing an increasing share of the new economic opportunities than women in Sub-

Table 2

System Characteristics of Selected Indicators for all Countries

Country	System I		System II	System III							
	1.1.1	1.1.5	2.1.1	3.1.2	3.1.3	3.1.4	3.1.8	3.1.9	3.1.13	3.2.2	3.2.4
Regional Means:	30%	69%	8%	30%	44%	11%	29%	848	16%	25%	10%
North Africa											
Algeria	4%	5%	25%	7%	41%	12%	23%	2368	72%	2%	11%
Egypt	5%	13%	21%	19%	50%	11%	52%	566	21%	31%	13%
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	5%	26%	22%	8%	44%	8%	37%	5065	5%	5%	6%
Morocco	13%	29%	38%	16%	52%	18%	21%	710	31%	54%	12%
Sudan	14%	78%	7%	40%	45%	8%	30%	527	7%	4%	7%
Tunisia	15%	21%	53%	19%	47%	17%	41%	1536	23%	69%	11%
Means:	9%	29%	28%	16%	47%	12%	34%	1802	27%	27%	10%
West Africa											
Benin	44%	64%	5%	39%	46%	4%	21%	401	5%	4%	6%
Burkina Faso	49%	83%	4%	41%	30%	16%	13%	303	9%	3%	10%
Cape Verde	21%	20%	24%	21%	50%	6%	20%	450	11%	19%	35%
Cote d'Ivoire	28%	68%	6%	27%	52%	13%	34%	588	32%	11%	15%
Gambia	37%	90%	3%	29%	58%	7%	28%	346	13%	61%	5%
Ghana	29%	46%	18%	45%	39%	11%	4%	458	27%	16%	5%
Guinea	36%	80%	9%	23%	44%	4%	26%	525	12%	39%	
Guinea-Bissau	37%	90%	3%	44%	42%	5%	22%	243	87%	2%	
Liberia	21%	79%	2%	43%	43%	9%	21%	357	3%	82%	4%
Mali	10%	75%	4%	50%	33%	8%	27%	248	10%	25%	15%
Mauritania	13%	81%	6%	30%	46%	7%	31%	571	21%	1%	6%
Niger	48%	92%	0%	42%	41%	4%	26%	319	15%	72%	1%
Nigeria	26%	68%	8%	38%	33%	10%	8%	281	29%	2%	21%
Senegal	35%	87%	3%	20%	49%	19%	33%	457	13%	19%	10%
Sierra Leone	24%	76%	5%	32%	51%	8%	17%	117	8%	53%	8%
Togo	30%	64%	8%	35%	41%	7%	20%	480	7%	5%	10%
Means:	31%	73%	7%	35%	44%	9%	22%	384	19%	26%	11%
Central Africa											
Burundi	49%	98%	1%	51%	31%	12%	20%	215	35%	4%	12%
Cameroon	26%	71%	5%	24%	43%	14%	15%	1045	16%	13%	7%
Central African Republic	44%	69%	5%	43%	44%	7%	29%	398	10%	70%	3%
Chad	15%	83%	2%	44%	44%	9%	14%	196	5%	2%	
Congo	31%	80%	3%	15%	52%	9%	34%	1160	12%	16%	13%
Equatorial Guinea	33%	77%	5%	50%	40%	1%	21%	405	10%	5%	
Gabon	32%	80%	4%	9%	41%	7%	32%	3486	17%	3%	
Rwanda	47%	97%	1%	42%	38%	12%	89%	220	23%	3%	12%
Sao Tome and Principe	32%	68%	5%	23%	55%	10%	46%	367	36%	28%	
Zaire	27%	93%	2%	31%	37%	1%	18%	82	15%	30%	17%
Means:	34%	82%	3%	33%	43%	8%	32%	757	18%	17%	11%
East and Southern Africa											
Angola	32%	86%	2%	44%	37%	3%	57%	392	7%	12%	26%
Botswana	23%	78%	4%	8%	30%	5%	45%	2587	3%	89%	11%
Comoros	37%	81%	2%	43%	44%	5%	17%	482	7%	33%	
Djibouti	37%	85%	2%	3%	80%	8%	34%	841	4%	12%	
Ethiopia (Former)	56%	87%	2%	43%	36%	9%	25%	93	9%	25%	2%
Kenya	32%	80%	4%	27%	51%	12%	26%	347	27%	16%	16%
Lesotho	40%	81%	4%	16%	48%	16%	41%	327	5%	53%	2%
Madagascar	35%	88%	3%	33%	52%	12%	10%	365	19%	20%	5%
Malawi	36%	90%	5%	34%	49%	11%	24%	241	24%	5%	10%
Mauritius	19%	23%	15%	11%	56%	23%	28%	2482	8%	62%	5%
Mozambique	51%	97%	1%	39%	16%	25%	37%	612	9%	47%	
Namibia	13%	47%	3%	11%	51%	4%	35%	1310	3%	90%	
Seychelles	21%	7%	21%	8%	74%	12%	60%	4897	7%	0%	3%
Somalia	33%	83%	2%	69%	17%	2%	7%	470	12%	8%	2%
Swaziland	32%	77%	5%	16%	52%	25%	29%	729	3%	14%	3%
South Africa	34%	7%	9%	5%	45%	23%	34%	2388	1%	32%	27%
United Republic of Tanzania	45%	87%	1%	58%	31%	5%	42%	100	32%	15%	18%
Uganda	37%	82%	4%	51%	37%	4%	20%	209	43%	1%	6%
Zambia	19%	80%	3%	17%	33%	40%	22%	378	29%	5%	12%
Zimbabwe	26%	78%	4%	12%	46%	28%	36%	590	32%	30%	14%
Means:	33%	71%	5%	27%	44%	13%	31%	979	14%	28%	10%

Table 2

System Characteristics of Selected Indicators for all Countries

3.3.5	3.3.6	System IV								System V	System VI
		4.1.1	4.1.4	4.1.5	4.1.8	4.1.10	4.2.2	4.2.4	4.2.3	5.1.1	6.1.3
15%	45%	35%	6.15	24.37	26%	47%	69%	22%	12%	7%	63%
25%	62%	53%	4.90	23.70	20%	44%	90%	53%	8%	2%	1
13%	61%	48%	4.00	22.00	30%	49%	89%	73%	8%	2%	1
10%		72%	6.70		11%		121%	86%	3%		1
17%	41%	49%	4.20	22.30	17%	45%	52%	29%	21%	1%	1
10%	27%	23%	6.30	24.10	24%	34%	41%	20%	17%	5%	1
17%	60%	55%	3.40	25.00	10%	35%	107%	42%	7%	4%	1
15%	50%	50%	4.92	23.42	19%	41%	83%	51%	11%	3%	100%
16%	34%	39%	7.10	18.30	12%	38%	44%	7%	33%	6%	1
19%	26%	10%	6.50	17.40	5%	45%	28%	5%	23%	6%	1
	51%	30%	5.30		40%	55%	104%	16%	2%	6%	1
16%	36%	42%	7.40	18.90	10%	50%	37%	16%	17%	5%	1
12%	34%	24%	6.20		20%	53%	58%	12%	15%	8%	0
18%	46%	34%	6.30	21.10	35%	41%	67%	29%	10%	8%	1
	21%	27%	7.00		10%	35%	21%	5%	37%		1
3%	33%	21%	5.80	18.30	10%	48%	42%	5%	29%	13%	1
17%	30%	48%	6.70	19.70	18%	47%	24%	7%	28%	6%	1
9%	13%	20%	7.10	164.00	15%	30%	17%	1%	28%	2%	1
	25%	50%	6.70	23.10	20%	37%	42%	10%	18%	0%	1
18%	21%	21%	7.10	16.30	10%	46%	21%	4%	28%	5%	1
9%	40%	37%	6.60	18.70	29%	33%	63%	17%	13%	2%	0
23%	33%	40%	6.20	23.70	36%	51%	49%	11%	16%	13%	1
13%	28%	34%	6.50	18.00	20%	45%	39%	12%	18%	1%	1
12%	51%	27%	6.60	20.30	12%	56%	80%	12%	22%	4%	1
14%	33%	31%	6.57	30.60	19%	44%	46%	11%	21%	6%	88%
	43%	6%	6.80	21.50	37%	48%	64%	4%	10%	10%	0
12%	50%	43%	6.90	19.70	25%	49%	93%	23%	7%	14%	1
	35%	48%	6.20	18.90	25%	51%	48%	7%	24%	4%	1
	29%	31%	5.80		20%	30%	35%	2%	39%		1
	55%	42%	6.30	21.90	50%	53%	153%	50%	3%	10%	0
	45%	29%	5.90		36%	42%	120%	11%	1%	3%	0
	61%	47%	5.30		30%	60%	113%	27%	2%	6%	1
19%	44%	8%	8.00	21.20	25%	52%	68%	7%	1%	17%	1
	57%	51%	6.30		30%	52%	10%	15%	5%	11%	1
19%	45%	41%	6.10	20.00	30%	39%	67%	17%	14%	5%	0
17%	46%	35%	6.36	20.60	31%	48%	77%	16%	11%	9%	60%
	40%	30%	6.30		50%	50%	35%	7%	49%	16%	1
21%	66%	30%	6.40	25.00	36%	53%	112%	57%	-2%	5%	0
	56%	29%	7.00	19.50	5%	49%	82%	27%	5%	1%	0
8%	32%	82%	6.50	19.30	20%	45%	38%	12%	18%	1%	0
11%	32%	12%	6.80	17.10	16%	23%	31%	15%	22%		0
20%	56%	25%	6.80	21.10	30%	53%	82%	25%	2%	1%	0
18%	60%	22%	5.80	20.50	25%	49%	115%	30%	-12%	2%	0
17%	54%	25%	6.50	20.30	36%	52%	90%	18%	2%	7%	1
9%	46%	13%	7.80	17.80	30%	48%	80%	3%	10%	10%	1
14%	85%	41%	1.90	22.80	19%	66%	131%	53%	1%	7%	0
	32%	30%	6.20	22.20	60%	55%	49%	5%	17%	16%	1
21%		29%	5.70		40%		99%	47%	-5%	7%	0
	81%	71%	2.80		10%	61%	94%	30%	-1%	16%	0
	14%	38%	6.80	20.10	38%	28%	10%	5%	33%	4%	1
27%	59%	36%	6.50	29.00	40%	57%	108%	47%	1%	2%	1
		49%	5.49	25.70	45%		105%	45%		3%	0
8%	60%	36%	7.10	20.60	25%	62%	83%	4%	1%	11%	0
13%	47%	11%	7.30	18.00	36%	54%	91%	8%	-8%	12%	0
8%	67%	52%	7.20	20.00	45%	43%	118%	13%	-8%	5%	1
24%	61%	29%	5.30	20.70	35%	64%	45%	45%	1%	12%	0
15%	53%	34%	6.09	21.22	32%	51%	78%	25%	6%	7%	35%

Saharan Africa. In spite of this increase the activity rate for women in North Africa is still well below the average for the other sub-regions. In 1992, Algeria had the lowest female activity rate (4.6 per cent) which was about one tenth of that recorded for Algerian men (42.6 per cent).

Sectoral distribution shows that the agricultural labour force in Sub-Saharan Africa was twice the size of the corresponding labour force in North Africa in 1990 (*ECA 1992d, Table 8*). The proportion of female economically active population in agriculture in North Africa was also only half or less of the corresponding proportion of female labour force in the other sub-regions. For Africa as a whole the figures for female and male economic active population in agriculture were 77 per cent and 60 per cent respectively in 1990. Although the overall participation rate in agriculture declined in Africa from 71 per cent in 1980 to 66 per cent in 1990, the change in female participation rate was much smaller (3.6 per cent) compared to that of male (5.5 per cent) over this period. In the non-agricultural activities women tend to concentrate in the service sector (almost 18 per cent in 1992) and only small proportion (7 per cent in 1992) was in industry related activities.

Statistics on employment in Africa are sketchy, outdated and often unreliable. The ones found are rarely gender disaggregated. The evidence from countries where such information is available points to an increasing share of women in paid employment between 1965 and 1985 (*ILO/JASPA 1991*). Despite that, women's participation rate in wage employment is only a fraction of men's (*Ingrid Palmer 1991*). Women's share in formal sector wage employment is still small ranging from 9 per cent in Niger to 22 per cent in Kenya in 1990 (*ILO/JASPA 1991, Table 1.5*). The highest shares of women in wage employment, over 30 per cent, were found in Mauritius, Botswana and Swaziland. In Mauritius, the high share of women in wage employment is associated with the spectacular rise of the export oriented textile and garment industry in the 1980s. Eighty per cent of jobs created in the export processing zone went to women (*Shirley Nuss, ILO 1989*).

According to the African Employment Report 1990, few changes have occurred in the sectoral and occupational distribution of female employees in the formal sector. Women's participation rate is highest in the service sector including a large proportion of women in social and community services provided by the government (*Ingrid Palmer 1991*). This is why the retrenchment and restructuring of the civil service under the adjustment policies adopted by the majority of African countries have proportionately affected female wage employment more than male employment. Due to the concentration of women in unskilled occupations, and economic sectors most vulnerable to cuts in public spending and cultural and social biases reflected in hiring/dismissal practices, women tend to run at least twice the risk of being unemployed than men (*ILO/JASPA 1993*). Compared to 1985, the proportion of female labour force in the modern sector has dropped from 6 per cent to 5 per cent in 1990 indicating a loss of 2.5 million jobs for women (*ILO/JASPA 1990*).

Participation of female labour force in industry related activities was on average 7 per cent, compared to the male participation rate of 17 per cent in 1992 (*ECA 1992d, Table 8*). The highest participation rates, over 20 per cent for both male and female, are found in North Africa where industrial development surpassed the levels in the other sub-regions. It thus not surprising that female formal manufacturing employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, in relative

and absolute terms, is much lower than in other regions of the world (*Ingrid Palmer 1991*). There are very few countries with gender disaggregated employment data by manufacturing branch. The limited information which exists on the distribution of the female manufacturing labour force points towards the concentration in traditionally female dominated industries such as food processing, textiles and garments. Women are also found in wood and paper products, and tobacco branch (*Ingrid Palmer 1991*).

In rural areas food processing is women domain either for household consumption or sale to supplement the family income. However, products manufactured and/or the stage of the production process undertaken by women is regulated by custom and tradition and goes often unrecorded in official statistics. Examples from West Africa show variation in women's involvement in the production of palm oil in terms of labour division between men and women applied to different parts of the process and also to the distribution of income derived from these activities (*ECA/ATRCW 1986*). The customs and tradition prevent women to engage in more income rewarding stages of the production process and marketing.

The growing demographic pressure on the labour market, the declining role of the public sector as a provider of wage employment and the little progress made in structural changes of the economy have resulted in a large scale unemployment and underemployment in Africa during the last decade. Shrinking employment opportunities in the formal sector has forced a large part of the population of working age into the informal sector. Although it is difficult to make an accurate assessment of the informal sector in the absence of statistical data, ILO estimated that the informal sector absorbed about 25 per cent of the total and almost 63 per cent of the urban labour force in Africa in 1991 (*ILO/JASPA 1993b*). The sector is increasingly attractive for more and more women forced to find means to supplement the falling food production in the subsistence sector. Manufacturing activities account for relatively small share of the informal sector and the female labour force activity compared to trade and services (*ILO/JASPA 1990, ILO 1994b*).

The resilience of women to the worsening in the family economic and social standard of living in the last decade has been demonstrated in a number of studies (*WB 1989, UNDP 1990, UNICEF 1987, ILO/JASPA 1990*). There is no doubt that this has been at a cost of women's own well being. Rural women work a 15-18 hour-day (*ADB 1990*). Not only women work harder and more hours than men, but their work is often unpaid or underpaid (*UNDP Human Development Report 1992*). Decline of women's participation in paid agricultural work has been accompanied by increasing involvement of women in petty trading, food processing, handicrafts, but also entering new areas of work previously male dominated such as construction and building material sector (e.g. Botswana, Lesotho, Zambia).

1.2. ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL ENVIRONMENT

Indicators of the economic and industrial system try to capture the demand factors for women's economic and manufacturing participation. Comparison of main characteristics of the economic and industrial system across countries provides, to some extent, a dynamic context for the analysis. Identified development patterns may be interpreted as representing different stages in the development process and related to the different economic role women

play. It is not unusual that female participation in the economy declines during the initial stages of development and increases at later stage, leading to a U-shaped relationship between female activity rates and economic development.

It has now been widely acknowledged, that 1980s was the "lost development decade" for Africa. The region's economic crisis which started already in the late 1970s has resulted in deteriorating social and human conditions and escalating absolute and relative poverty. It is estimated that almost half of the population in sub-Saharan Africa cannot meet their most basic needs (*ECA 1994*). In many African countries the growth in GDP per capita stagnated or started declining already in the second half of 1970s and by the middle of 1980s the real GDP per capita was lower than at independence (*WB 1994*). In 1991 the average level of GDP per capita in current prices varied from US\$ 994 for North Africa to US\$ 326 for Sub-Saharan Africa (*ECA 1993, Table II.2*). The main blame for this decline is put on the combination of poor macroeconomic management, political instability, declining terms of trade and mounting indebtedness.

The bias resource allocation in favour of export crops has resulted in declining productivity in the food crop sub-sector. The neglect of the fact that women constitute the majority of African rural population and are responsible for the bulk of food production is mainly responsible for the worsening conditions in the agricultural sector. Although women provide about 90 per cent of the labour for processing food crops and providing household water and fuelwood, they used rudimentary tools, only few own the land they farm on, they do not have access to critical inputs and the input delivery systems are generally designed for the improvement of male tasks and channelled through men (*ADB 1990*). The female - male wage ratio in agriculture shows that for 19 countries out of 36 for which data was available female wages are one half or less of what men earn. The recorded decline in female participation in agriculture has had a negative impact on average index of food production per capita. Food imports constitute about 20 per cent of total imports but increased to over 50 per cent in Gambia, and doubled in Nigeria in the last 25 years (*IFAD 1993*).

Import substitution industrialization strategies have failed to provide the basis for structural diversification and self sustained economic development. The structure of GDP has not changed significantly over the last decade. The manufacturing sector still accounts for less than 10 per cent of the region's GDP. The absence of domestic linkages and the persistence of dual economies is reflected in the large gap between the subsistence sector and the industrial enclave dependent on imported capital, equipment and skills. Large manufacturing enterprises were often established as public corporations under heavy protection against outside competition. Technology employed was in a form of "turnkey" factories with a limit scope for employment creation and training. Government transfers to keep establishments running added to the public sector already high spending in social and other sectors. Although government expenditure was considerably reduced by 1990 as a result of structural adjustment, total government expenditure as a percentage of GDP still was over 30 per cent for a large number of African countries (*ECA 1993 a*). However, military expenditure has not been reduced, on the contrary, it has increased. Measured as a percentage of GDP, military spending in Sub-Saharan Africa increased from 0.7 per cent in 1960 to 3 per cent in 1990-91 (*Human Development Report 1994, Table 21*). Military expenditure is as high as 20 per cent of GDP in Angola, about 13 per cent in Mozambique and Ethiopia, and over 9

per cent in Zimbabwe. Industrial countries spent on average 3.4 per cent of GDP in 1990-91 compared to 6.3 per cent in 1960.

Assessment of the relative importance of light labour-intensive industries in the structure of the manufacturing sector reveals the specific pattern of industrialization. This aspect is of particular relevance to the subject of this study. A high share of food and textile/garment industries in MVA is often associated with an early stage of industrialization and import-substitution strategy. However, in a number of Asian countries light industries such as the textile/garment industry have also assumed a leading role in the export led industrialization. These conditions were mainly responsible for the growth in demand for cheap female labour. In Africa, this trend is so far absent. The only exceptions found are countries with established export processing zones such as Mauritius, Tunisia and Morocco. A high share of machinery and electrical appliances in MVA, on the other hand, tends to be associated with a more advanced industrial structure. In most African countries light consumer industries still dominate in the composition of MVA, accounting for 11 per cent on average for the continent as a whole. Manufacture of fabricated metal products, machinery and equipment constitute a small proportion of MVA.

Manufactured goods constitute a small proportion of total exports which mainly consists of primary commodities. The exceptions are more industrially advanced countries in North Africa and Mauritius where textile and clothing exports boosted the share of manufactured exports. As in Asia, Export Processing Zones (EPZ) with emphasis on textile and clothing industry has opened new employment opportunities for women in countries such as Tunisia and Mauritius. In Mauritius for example, out of the total 86 000 employees in the EPZ, 67 per cent consist of female workers who produced about two-thirds of the garments output in 1989 (*Commonwealth Secretariat 1992*). In addition to Mauritius and Tunisia six other EPZ were in operation on the African continent in 1990. These include EPZ in Egypt, Senegal, Madagascar, Liberia, Zaire and Togo. Unfortunately, no data is available on female labour force involvement in these zones. Other countries influenced by the Mauritius EPZ success have shown interest in establishing EPZ. These include Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Cape Verde, Burundi, Zimbabwe, Ethiopia and Namibia (*UNIDO 1993*).

Government involvement in the economy has generally proved beneficial for economic and social enhancement of women in Africa. Employment opportunities created in the public sector especially in the muslim countries such as Algeria and Egypt, has contributed to raising women's economic and social status (*Moghadan 1990, UNDP 1990*). The public sector employed a substantial share of female labour force in particular areas such as health and education but less so in industry. For example, in Kenya almost 79 per cent of the female entrants into employment between 1972 and 1983 were in the social sector (*ILO 1989*). In addition, female government employees generally enjoy a greater equality of opportunity and welfare services than they could expect in the private sector. In countries with a labour code which grants female employees rights to maternity leave and child care services the private sector also refrains from hiring women because of the cost involved. For example, in Egypt the change in political system and the economic crises resulted in a vast majority of previously employed women in the formal sector being forced into the informal sector (*UNDP 1990*).

In the absence of gender disaggregated data series on employment in the formal sector, let alone in individual manufacturing branches, it is difficult to judge any changes which may have occurred in the sectoral and sub-sectoral gender division of labour as a result of the economic crisis experienced in most of the countries in Africa. There is no doubt, that in the course of restructuring and privatization of industry, low skilled and seasonal jobs were the first to be affected. Given that men's educational and training background is far superior to that of women and female industrial employment is much lower, it could be expected that the impact of the crises on female labour force was proportionately much larger than on male labour force also in industry.

The prolonged economic recession in Africa has adversely affected not only the production and physical infrastructure but also social infrastructure. Reductions in public spending have resulted in a decline in the provision of welfare services, education, health, sanitation and housing. Government expenditure on basic human needs and education reflects government involvement in human resource development. The Combined Basic Needs index (BNI)¹ which reflects the status of social development of rural areas shows that 30 out of 49 African countries fall in the category of "very needy" countries, i.e. the BNI was equal or below 0.5 (IFAD 1993). Since women comprise the majority of rural population both in absolute and relative terms, their basic needs are thus less covered than those of men.

The levels of expenditure on education and health have been relatively high in Africa compared to other regions of the world. In the middle of 1980s, education accounted on average for 15 to 20 per cent of total government expenditure in Africa compared to the average of 10 per cent for all developing countries (*WB Development Report 1988, Table 23*). In the late 1980s the necessity to reduce government spending has led to severe cuts in a number of countries. In Nigeria, for example, the cuts in real health and education spending between the early and late 1980s amounted to 50 and 70 per cent respectively (*WB 1994, Table 6.1*). From fourteen countries covered by the World Bank sample survey, only four - Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya and Zimbabwe - managed to increase substantially their outlays for education but the trend for all fourteen countries shows a decline in real expenditure on education between 1980-83 and 1987-89. Real spending on education per capita declined even more as governments could hardly cope with rapid population growth. However, the military expenditure as a percentage of combined education and health expenditure has increased in Sub-Saharan Africa from 27 per cent in 1960 to 43 per cent in 1990-91 (*Human Development Report 1994, Table 21*). In the industrialized countries the proportion has decreased from 97 per cent to 33 per cent during the same period.

1.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS

Characteristics of the social and demographic environment portray the size and quality of human resources which could be mobilized for economic and industrial development. The

¹ *The index compiled by the International Fund for Agricultural Development includes adult literacy, primary school enrolment, population per physician, infant mortality rate, and access to safe water and sanitation. The Basic Needs Index (BNI) takes values between zero and one. The closer the value is to one, the higher the basic needs status of the population of the country.*

selected indicators try to capture gender sensitive issues effecting labour supply. In the African region, the human resources potential available for development numbered about 606 million in 1990, almost a double what it was in 1970 (*ECA 1992 d, Table 2*). Female population constitutes just over half of this human potential. The dominant demographic features of African population are uneven rural-urban distribution with rapidly increasing urbanization, high population growth leading to high dependency ratio, and a large proportion of female headed households.

About one third of the population lives in urban areas and benefits from a generally better, although now over-taxed, provision of social, health and educational facilities. The African urbanization rate rose from 23 per cent in 1970 to 34 per cent in 1990 (*ECA 1993 a*). The population growth between 1980 and 1990 is estimated at 3 per cent for Africa as a whole. In contrast with other regions of the world there has been little change in the population growth rates in the last decade. Almost a half of African population is under 15 years of age and when combined with those above 64 years make the dependency ratio almost 100. Households headed by women are increasing both in numbers and as a proportion of total (*ECA 1993 a*). It is estimated that on average 31 per cent of African households are headed by women which is the highest in the world (*IFAD 1993, p.8*). This brings a large disparity between sexes in terms of social and economic responsibilities.

As elsewhere in the world, women have a longer life span than men and life expectancy has been improving steadily in most countries in the region. However, countries in Sub-Saharan Africa still have the lowest life expectancy for both men and women compared to other least developed countries in the world (*ILO/JASPA 1990 Table 1.2.*). Contrary to the general trend elsewhere in the world there has been very little change in the total fertility rate. Whereas world average fertility rates declined substantially, the African fertility rate of 6.2 children per women in 1985-1990 is not much different from 6.5 children per women which was the rate in 1950-1955 (*ECA 1993 a*).

What is even more disturbing is the persistently high and in some countries even increasing fertility rate among adolescent women. Each year, no less than 18 per cent of Africa's female aged 15-19 years give birth (*ILO/WEP 1993 p.3*). This compares with 3 per cent in Asia and 8 per cent in Latin America. Given the high representation of teenagers in the population age pyramid, the explosive potential of the African figure is alarming. Further more, the danger of spreading AIDS is much higher. The negative implications of adolescent motherhood for the teenagers are considerable in terms of health conditions, school achievements and possibilities of gaining access to the labour market, especially in the formal sector. A combine index of women's welfare, social and economic status² reveals that out of 49

² *The Women's Status Index (WST) was compiled by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) in a study on "The state of World Rural Poverty: A Profile of Africa. It includes the following quantitative indicators: maternal mortality rate, percentage of women using contraceptives, female adult literacy rate, gross primary female enrolment, gross female secondary school enrolment, female/male wage ratio in agriculture or non-agriculture, and female labour force participation rate. The WST can take values between zero and one. The closer the value is to one, the higher the status of women. (IFAD 1993)*

African countries only in 12 is the index equal or marginally greater than 0.5. Zimbabwe and Mauritius are the only two countries where the index is around 0.6. Mali and Guinea are at the other end of the spectrum with the lowest women status, index value of 0.2.

The age of marriage is closely associated with the fertility rate but premarital adolescent pregnancies are common in a number of African countries. Although in some countries high proportion of teenage mothers subsequently marry, in countries such as Botswana and Liberia most of them stay single (*ILO/WEP 1993*). The emphasis put by the patriarchal culture on the fertility of women even before marriage in many countries of Africa should be challenged if men are not prepared to take equal responsibilities for the children upbringing. The mean age at first marriage in Africa ranges from 16 in Sierra Leone to 19 in Ghana (*ILO/WEP 1993 p.11*). Although the statutory minimum age of most countries is 18 years this is often ignored since majority of marriages are conducted under the traditional customary law. Nearly 50 per cent of women in Sub-Saharan Africa are married by the age of 20 which is the highest percentage compared with other developing regions (*ILO/WEP 1993 p.12*). Since the age at marriage is also often linked to the length of the basic learning cycle which also responds to cultural pressures, early marriages jeopardize the educational advancement of women and affect their economic advancement.

Literacy is a basic requirement for participation in the modern sector of the economy. The latest information available for all countries indicates that in 1985 more than half of the African population above 15 years of age was illiterate (*ECA 1992 d, Table 13*). Available figures for 1991 show that this situation has changed slightly since then. However, there are great variations among African countries as well as among the sexes. The highest female illiteracy rates, above 80 per cent, are in Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Sudan, Ethiopia and Sierra Leone. These countries, together with the muslim North African countries, also have the largest male-female disparity. The lowest female illiteracy rates, below 30 per cent, are found only in Madagascar, Tanzania, Mauritius, Seychelles and Lesotho. Although there has been considerable improvement in most countries over the last twenty years, the progress has been much slower in the case of women compared to the improvements in male literacy. In countries with an ongoing civil war, however, the illiteracy rates for both men and women increased between 1980 and 1990.

The access to education for girls has improved in most countries over the last two decade but the disparities in male-female enrolment rates, especially above the primary school level, remained and even increased in a number of countries. The data indicate that in 1991 there was on average 10-15 per cent difference between male and female primary school enrolment rates (*ECA 1992 d, Table 15*). The lowest female enrolment rates are recorded in Somalia (10 per cent), Mali (17 per cent), Guinea and Niger (both 21 per cent). Eleven countries had a female enrolment rate equal or above 100 per cent. North African sub-region as a whole had the highest enrolment rates for both sexes and reached almost 100 per cent in 1991, except in Morocco and Sudan. The emphasis on female education in the muslim countries is to a large extent motivated by the need to cater for women as a separate group. In East and Southern Africa as well as West Africa the female enrolment rate is about 60 per cent.

The enrolment rates in secondary education in Africa as a whole are generally low for both sexes (*ECA data base*). In 1991 the highest female enrolment rates, above 50 per cent were in Egypt (73 per cent), Botswana (57 per cent), Mauritius (53 per cent) and Algeria (53 per

cent). Although improvements are registered in most countries, female enrolments declined in Benin, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Sierra Leone, Central African Republic, Madagascar and Somalia between 1985 and 1990 (*ECA 1992 data base*). The drop-out rate between the primary and secondary education are high especially for female students. Studies in several African countries established a strong association between earlier pregnancy and the significant levels of female drop out rates between primary and secondary school (*Yeboah 1993*). The other factor affecting the female drop out rate which can be as high as well over 50 per cent in some countries (*Yeboah 1993, Table 1*) is too early introduction of girls to economic activities, especially trading (*ADB 1990*). Structural factors such as provision of separate educational institutions for girls and relevancy of curricula plays also a significant role in the withdrawal of girls from the school system. There is also evidence that reduction in parental incomes and austerity in public spending has caused a major setback in the education sector proportionately affecting more girls than boys (*Yeboah 1993, Table 1*).

Tertiary enrolment rates are extremely low in Africa except in North Africa. The female tertiary level enrolment rate in most African countries is below or around 20 per cent and the participation rates are lower in Francophone universities than in Anglophone universities (*Saint 1992*). Percentage of female students in total higher education enrolment can be as low as 8 per cent in Chad but it can reach 70 per cent in Lesotho and over 40 per cent in Swaziland, Botswana, Madagascar and Sudan (*Saint 1992, Table 6*). Not only are enrolment rates in higher education much lower for women than men, but the absence of women in science and technology related subjects is even more conspicuous. For example in Zambia, three quarter of all female university students are in arts, social science and education.

This trend is mainly due to the existing sex discrimination in the secondary school curriculum that offers different courses for girls and boys, e.g. girls are offered domestic science and commerce at the expense of science and technical subjects. This limits girls access to higher education and subject specialization at universities, polytechnics and vocational training institutions. Enrolment of female students in technical and vocational training schools ranges between 20 and 40 per cent, but the majority of all female students are concentrated in domestic science, secretarial and business studies and teachers training (*ILO/Commonwealth Association of Polytechnics in Africa: Women in Technical Education, Training and Jobs, 1988*).

The low enrolment of women across the education system and also the narrow range of subject specialization at higher levels is of concern. The gender gap comes at a high cost in view of evidence showing high interrelationship between female education, health, nutrition levels, agricultural production, fertility rates and chances of employment in the formal sector (*WB 1989 and 1994, UNDP Human Development Reports*). Further more, ILO country studies in Africa suggest that women have to have a better education to be considered for a job which requirements are often exaggerated in order to discriminate against women (*ILO Women's Employment Patterns Discrimination and Promotion of Equality in Africa*). Thus the lack of basic education as well as the narrow range of subjects of studies at higher level limit women's access to higher level occupations and further carrier advancement through in-service training which is becoming essential in most economic sectors and manufacturing in particular.

1.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF POLITICAL, LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Representation of women in positions of influence on political and public life plays an important role in changing the perception of women and their status in the society. Access to positions of political power enhances the chances of women's demands being considered in policy formulation and allocation of public resources. Women in Africa have so far made a little headway in the sphere of constitutional power. There are no examples of a woman in the national leadership posts either as a head of state or a prime minister in the post independence history of Africa. The short spell of the Rwanda's female prime minister ended tragically during the civil war in April 1994.

From the limited data available it is estimated that African women constituted less than 6 per cent of cabinet posts and less than 3 per cent of the legislative posts in 1991 (*Bowker-Saur 1991*). Although the number of women ministers (mainly Ministers of Women's Affairs or equivalent) compares favourably with other regions of the world, African women's representation in legislatures is around four times less than the other regions. The narrow political base weakens the strength of the political power at the top to influence decisions affecting the economic and social well-being of women. The low level of politicization among African women is not only determined by their economic and social burdens taxing their time which could be available for political activities, but to a larger extent by the cultural and social barriers. It has generally been during the independence struggle that women actively participated in political movements and been later rewarded for it by gaining direct access to cabinet posts.

A very few African countries have a truly democratic constitution which grants the rights of individuals and social groups and is the basis for a legal and institutional framework to protect and implement these rights. It is recognized that even in countries with a democratic constitution, constitutional rights and powers of representative institutions are often undermined by forces outside the constitutional process. Social prejudices rooted in traditional cultural biases against women's political and economic activities outside the household are a serious obstacle to women's advancement in Africa. Also, the high importance placed by many African societies on male children to carry on the lineage has a prejudicial influence on the economic and social status of women in many African societies. An objective assessment of these forces is extremely difficult. Public media and education curricula are often not only a reflection of the traditional values but can be used as instruments in their perpetuation or change.

Laws and institutions directed at protecting and enhancing the interest of women are important for attracting public attention to women's issues and can be instrumental in implementing desired changes. Although the majority of countries in the region are signatories to the International Convention on Elimination of All Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), 14 countries have not yet ratified it (*Moghadan 1993*). These countries include Algeria, Botswana, Morocco, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Even countries which ratified CEDAW have not progressed much in its implementation (*UN Economic and Social Council, ECA 1987*). The subordination to men, whether by custom or by law, is one of the most fundamental causes of gender inequalities in African societies. In many countries, legal barriers and customs prevent women from acquisition of land and property, gaining

independent access to credit and loans, and inheritance entitlements. This is in sharp contrast to the important contribution women make to the economic development of the continent and to the very survival of their families.

An integration of gender issues in national development plans provides a framework for setting goals for changes and monitoring the progress in achieving them. Only a few countries have gone further than general policy intentions for enhancing women's integration in the country development. Since political and institutional machineries are weak the NGOs play an important role in enhancing women's economic and social emancipation. Since the Declaration of 1975 to 1985 as the UN Decade of Women which culminated in the formulation of the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies, many new NGOs have been established often with a support of donors. Regretably, efforts of the NGOs have been seldom supported by government policies. In addition, regional networking among women's groups have contributed to the exchange of ideas and experiences in different areas of women's concerns and strengthening the solidarity among African women. Examples of regional organizations are African Women's Development and Communications Network (FEMNET), the Association of African Women for Research and Development (AWORD), the Federation of African Women Entrepreneurs (FAWE), and Women in Law Development in Africa (WILDAF).

Four regional women's conferences have taken place and led to the formulation of joint policies and strategies for the advancement of African women. However, their impact still remains to be seen. Regional and sub-regional organizations such as the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), African Development Bank (ADB), Organization of African Unity (OAU) as well as Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States (PTA), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) can play an active role in providing the necessary political backing and logistical support for the implementation and monitoring of these strategies.

1.5. DETERMINANTS OF WOMEN'S ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL PARTICIPATION

The results from the correlation analysis are reviewed in terms of relationships between indicators characterizing different systems and interdependency of indicators within the same system. Identification of indicators' system-internal and system-external relationships presents different options for formulating plans of action appropriate to the patterns of the respective clusters discussed in the following chapters. Since correlations do not explain causal relationships, interpretation of the results is only an indication of the strength not a direction of these relationships. Only the strongest correlations are discussed below but a complete table with all results of multi correlation analysis is presented in Annex C.

a) Relationships between systems

Not surprisingly, the correlation analysis shows that indicators characterizing the situation on the labour market (System I and II) have strongest relationships with indicators characterizing the supply of labour (System IV). However, the correlations vary for female participation rates in the different sectors of the economy. Female economic activity rates (1.1.1) and female participation rates in agriculture (1.1.5) have a negative correlation with

the female secondary school enrolment rates (4.2.4) (-0.45 and -0.68), whereas female participation rates in the tertiary and the manufacturing sector (2.1.1) have positive correlations (+0.67 and +0.50). The same directional relationships were found with respect to female enrolment rates in primary school education (4.2.2), but the correlations were insignificant. A positive association between female secondary school enrolment rates and female activities in the tertiary and manufacturing sector, but a negative relationship with the participation rates in agriculture (1.1.5), reflect the general situation of women in Africa. The majority of women are mainly involved in labour-intensive subsistence farming and young girls are needed to help in the fields and household chores.

A similar correlation pattern was also found between the women's economic role and fertility rates. Correlations between the fertility rates (4.1.4) and women's participation rates in the tertiary (1.1.7) and the manufacturing sector (2.1.1) were negative (-0.64 and -0.64) but were positive for women's participation rates in agriculture (+0.71) and, to a lesser degree, for female economic activity rates (1.1.1) (+0.38). This could be interpreted as the vicious circle of poverty. Women in agriculture due to the lack of technology inputs are dependent on family labour. In addition, they do not have access to health, sanitation and education facilities which would reduce infant mortality rates and they cannot afford to send their daughters to schools. As noted above, education is important for women engaged in trade and industry which may explain the negative relationship between their activities and the fertility rates. In the absence of wage employment data in these sectors, one can only speculate on the basis of evidence from Asia, that employment of women in the formal non-agricultural sectors will also lead to a reduction in fertility rates.

Correlations between female participation rates in the different segments of the labour market and the economic indicators representing the demand for female labour (System III) showed the following. Logarithms of GDP (3.1.1) per capita³ correlated positively with female participation rates in the tertiary (1.1.7) and manufacturing sector (2.1.1) (+0.62 and +0.43) but negatively with female participation rates in agriculture (1.1.5) (-0.62). Correlations between female sectoral participation rates and logarithms of MVA per capita (3.2.1) gave similar results (+0.53, +0.43 and -0.56). This indicates that the relationship between the level of economic/industrial development and female participation in non-agricultural activities is mutually beneficial whereas the contrary holds true for the relationship between the economic/industrial development and participation rates of women in agriculture. This is not surprising in view of the high concentration of women in the low-productivity subsistence rather than the higher-productivity commercial agriculture and the low priority attached to the development of the sector as such.

Correlations between the different indicators of female labour market participation and indicators representing the political and institutional environment (System V and VI) were generally very low. Also, there was no evidence of any strong association of the two systems, V and VI, with indicators in system III and IV. On the other hand, a number of

³ Logarithms of GDP and MVA per capita were preferred to the actual values because the relationships between female participation rates and the actual values of per capita GDP and MVA are not linear and correlations are generally much lower and less representative. (see similar analysis conducted by Khoo in UN/ESCAP 1987, Perkins in UN/ESCAP 1992).

high correlations were found between indicators representing labour demand (System III) and supply (System IV). Logarithm of GDP per capita (3.1.1) and MVA per capita (3.2.1) correlated positively with female secondary school enrolment rates (4.2.4) (+0.67 and +0.69) and the rate of urbanization (+0.60 and +0.53). This supports the evidence showing that economic/industrial development is associated, among other factors, with the process of urbanization and better educated manpower.

b) Internal system relationships

As could be expected, a strong relationship was found between the female economic activity rate (1.1.1) and female participation in agriculture (1.1.5) (+0.56). Negative correlations between the different sectoral participation rates of women were also to be expected since they are in competition. Also not surprisingly, the correlation between the logarithm of GDP per capita and MVA per capita was high (+0.80) so was the correlation between logarithms of GDP per capita and the economic contribution of the agricultural sector (-0.62). These relationships clearly show that economic and industrial levels of development are highly interdependent in a positive way whereas the opposite is true for the relationship between the present level of economic development and the state of the agricultural sector.

Interestingly enough, very few high correlations were found between the indicators within the system IV. The most revealing correlation was found between the fertility rates (4.1.4) and female secondary school enrolment rates (4.2.4) (-0.53). This supports the evidence of teenage pregnancies being closely related to the drop out rate of female students after the primary school level. There were also lower than expected correlations between the female primary and secondary school enrolment rates, and the male-female enrolment gaps at the respective levels (-0.25 and -0.59). However, high correlations were found among the gender gap indicators themselves. This indicates that gender inequalities in the access to education at different levels reinforce each other.

c) Influence of gender disparities

Correlations between indicators expressing disparities between men and women were found to have a strong interdependent relationship both within and across systems. These relationships were often reinforcing and/or making the established associations between other indicators stronger. For example, the correlation between the gender disparity in economic participation rates (1.1.2) and female participation rates in agriculture (1.1.5) was stronger than that between the indicators of the two respective participation rates. The results also indicate a strong relationship between the gender disparity indicators and the respective female participation rates.

The conclusion which can be reached on the basis of the correlation analysis is that advancement of women economic and social status is interdependently linked with the level of economic/industrial development, level of education, fertility rates and access to more productive employment outside the agricultural sector. The results also strengthen the argument for a greater and more efficient involvement of women in the economic/industrial development. The system model adopted for the analysis demonstrates the interdependency of social, demographic and economic determinants of women's participation which only if acted upon together can bring about positive changes.

Figure 1

Male/Female Gender Gap of Economic Activity Rate

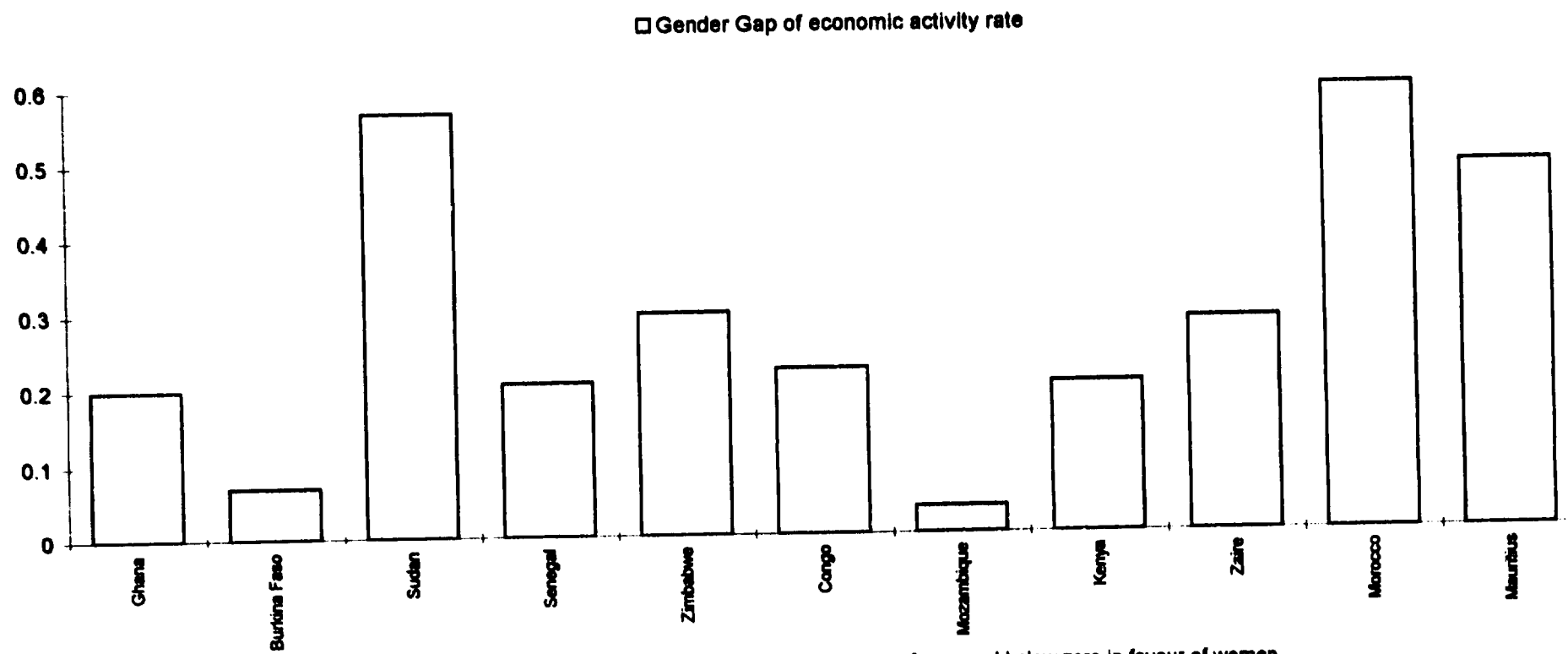


Figure 2

Economic Distribution of Sectors as Percentage of GDP

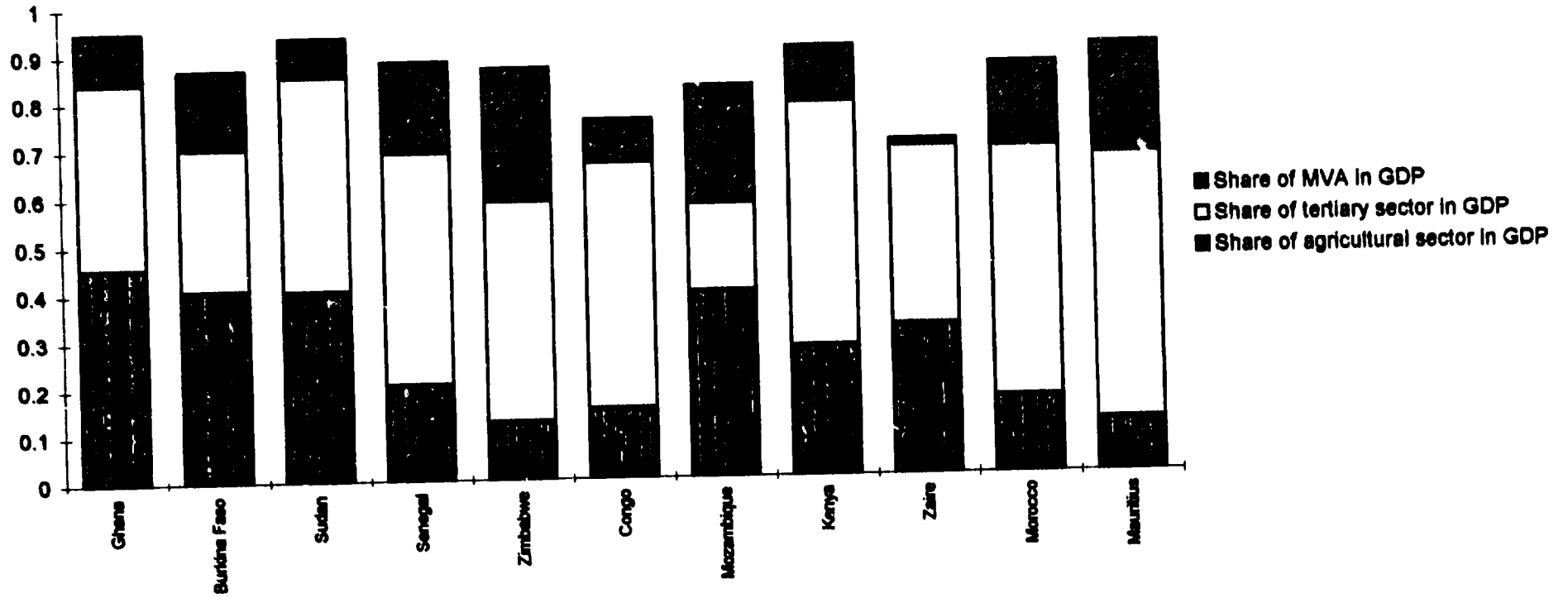
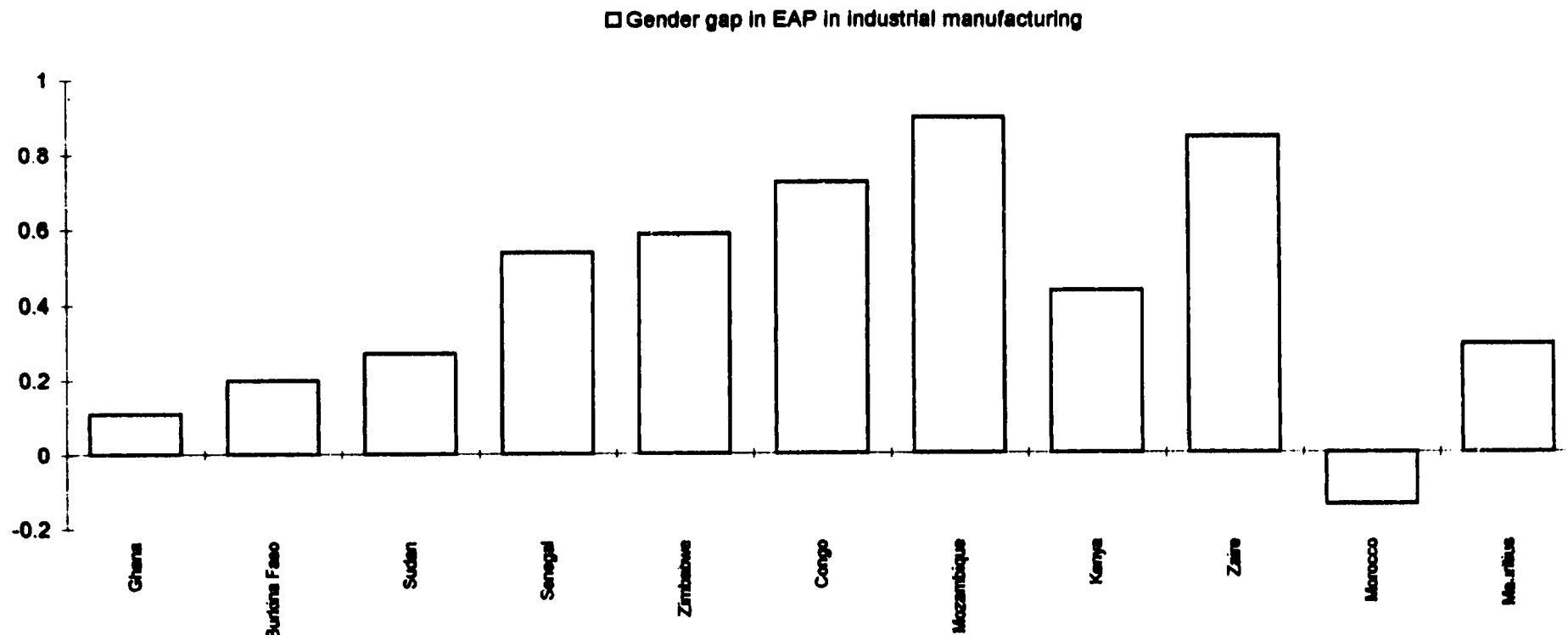


Figure 3

Male/Female Gender Gap of Participation Rate in Manufacturing



Disparities above zero indicate participation rates in favour of men and below zero in favour of women.

Figure 4

Sectoral Distribution of Female Economic Active Population

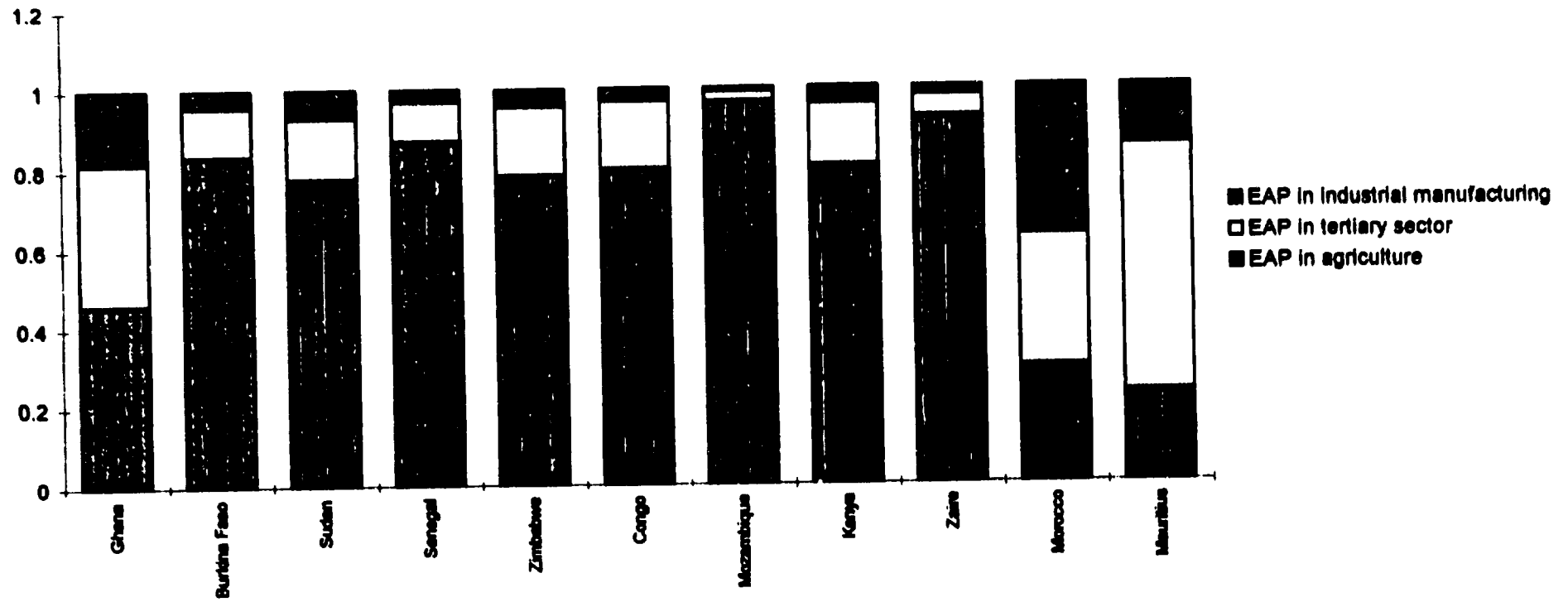
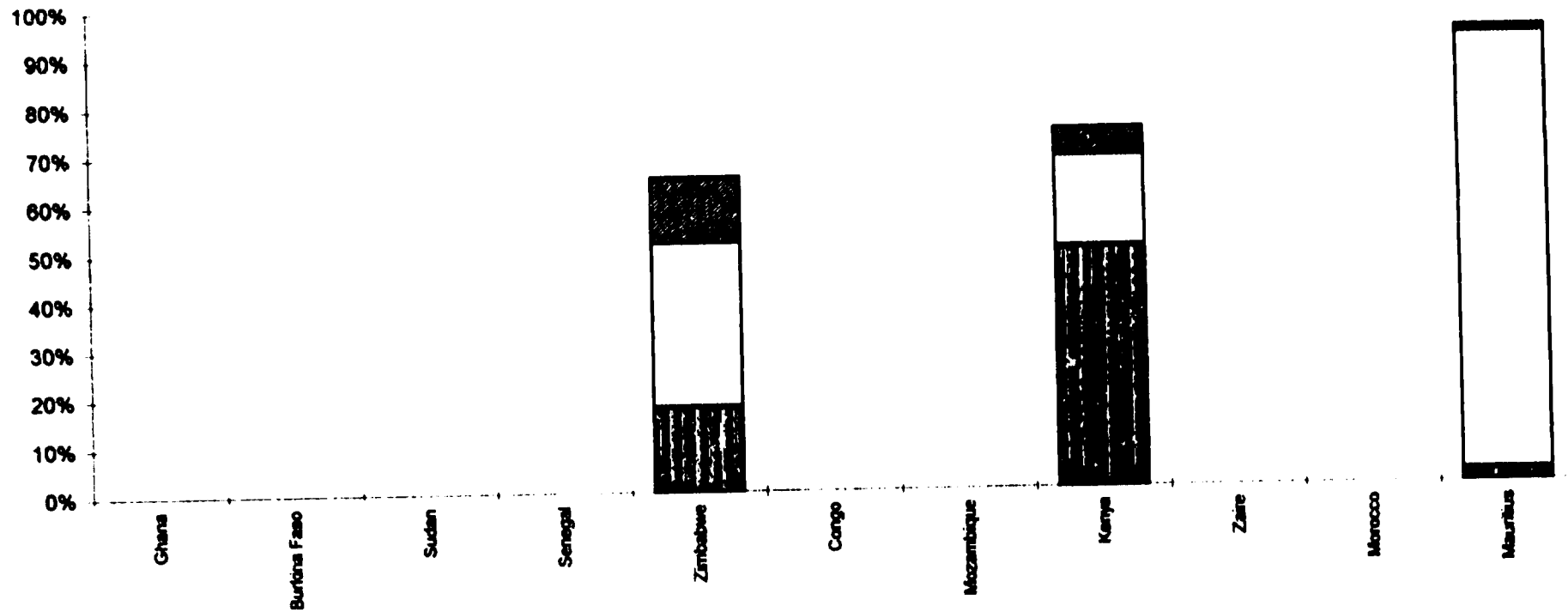


Figure 5

Women's Participation in sectors 31, 32, and 38



■ Female Employment in the food, beverages, and tobacco sub-sector (31) □ Female Employment in the textile, garments and leather sub-sector (32)
▨ Female Employment in metal, machinery, and equipment production (38)

Figure 6

Female Economic Activity Rate and Fertility Rate

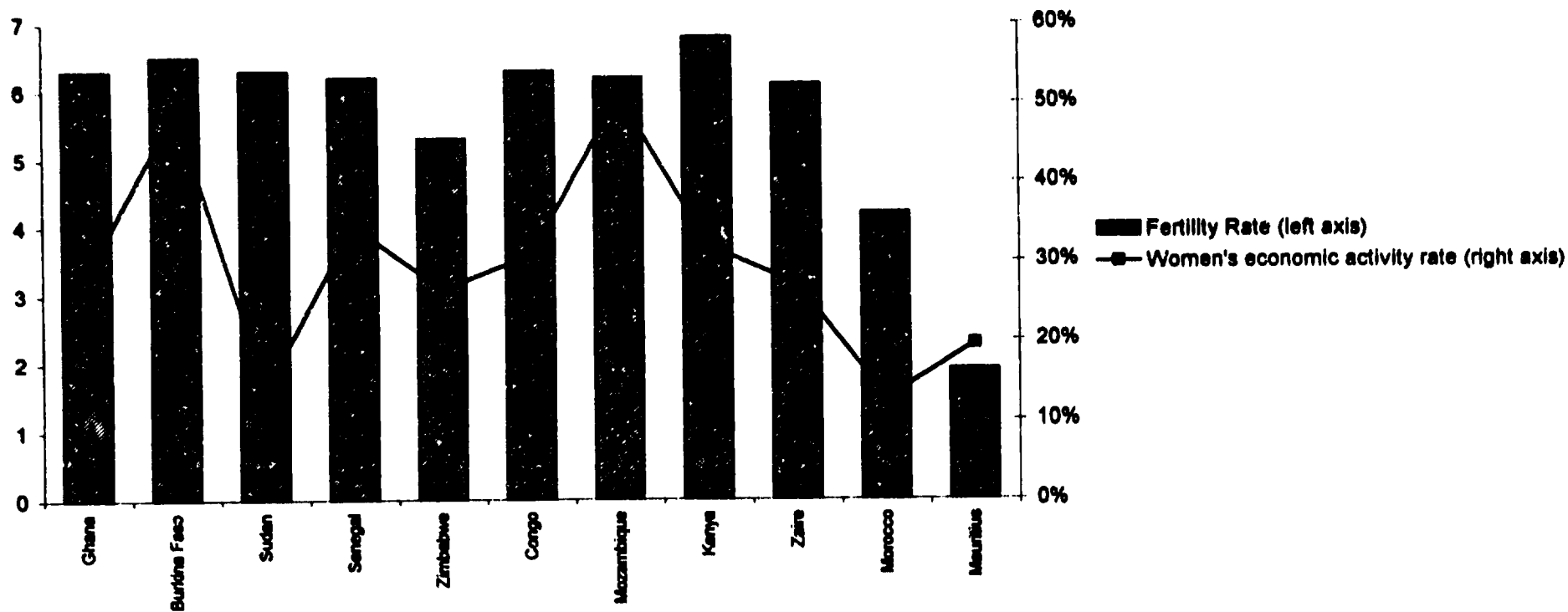


Figure 7

Fertility Rate and Female Secondary School Enrolment Rate

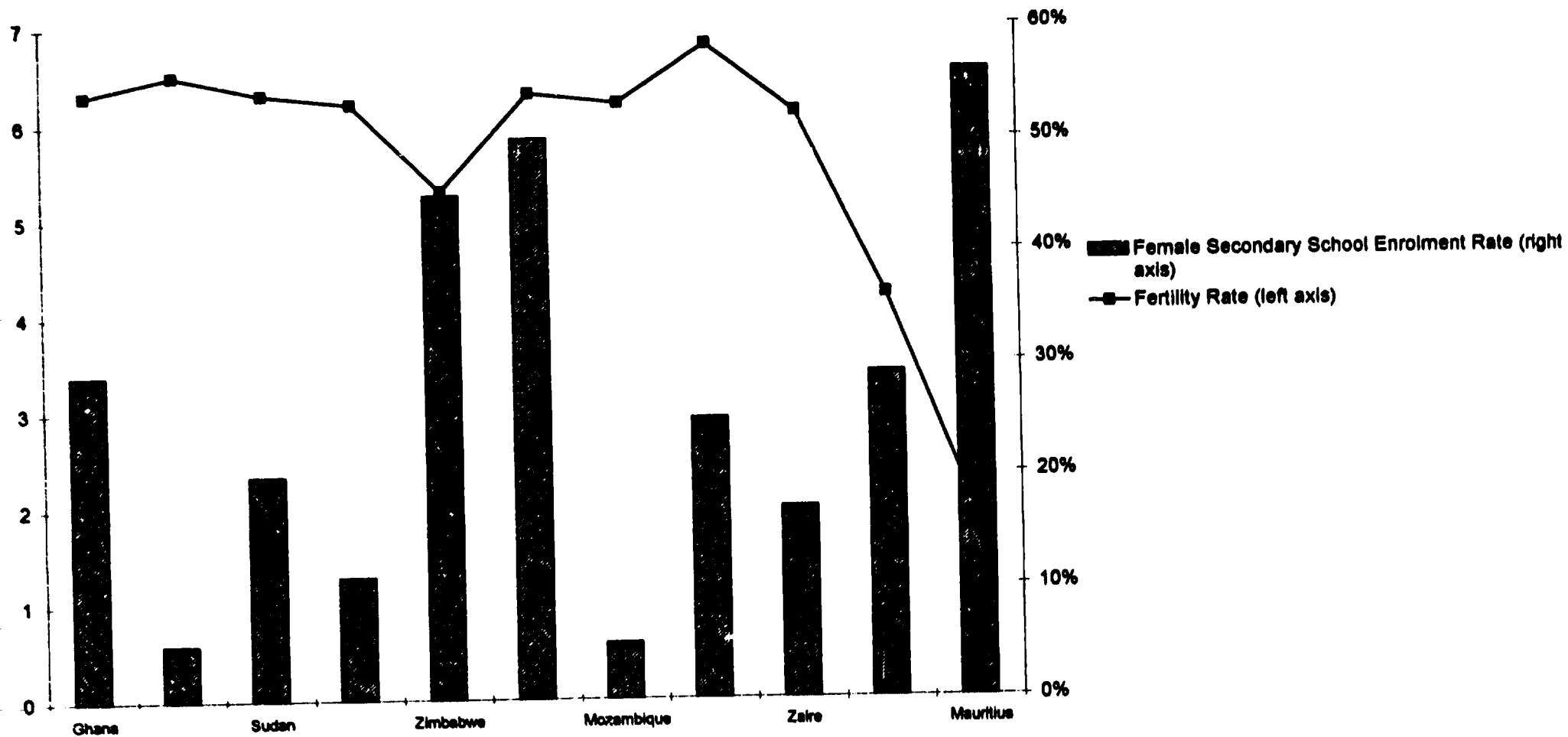
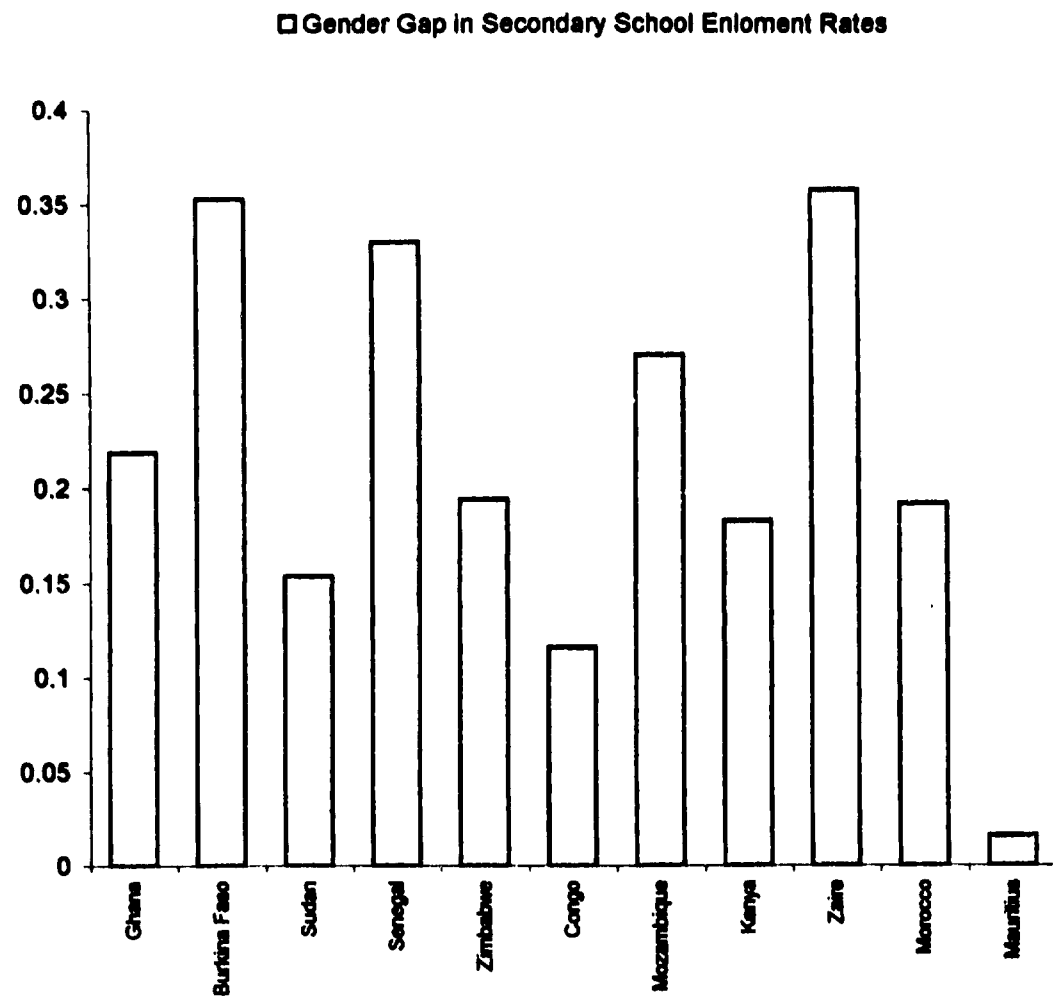


Figure 8

Male/Female Gender Gap in Secondary School Enrolment Rate



Disparities above zero indicate participation rates in favour of men and below zero in favour of women.

CHAPTER II. GROUPS OF COUNTRIES AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Cluster analysis was used to identify groups of countries which have similar characteristics across the relevant systems portraying the economic role of women and its socio-economic determinants. Examination of country-group-specific patterns of female participation allows an assessment of constraints and enhancements determining women's economic status at a particular point of time. This facilitates formulation of strategies for action adapted to the specific needs of the different groups of countries discussed in chapter IV.

The main asset of the multivariate technique used in the cluster analysis is the possibility of considering a large number of indicators in the cross-country comparison. The clustering results may thus produce groupings of countries which from the strictly economic point of view may have very little in common but share commonalities from the determinants of women's economic/industrial participation point of view. This is a more holistic approach to the analysis of women's involvement in economic/industrial development and represents a contribution to the field of study on this subject.

The clustering analysis produced seven groups from a total of 52 countries using a set of 27 indicators (see Table 3). The criteria for the choice of indicators were to capture determinants of women's economic role most relevant to the situation in Africa and to balance the number of indicators between the identified systems. Availability of data to ensure widest coverage also was an important consideration. For this reason indicators in system five, representing the political environment, had to be excluded from the cluster analysis. Although there are country to country variations within the clusters, a compromise was made between a maximum number of similarities viewed across all systems and a meaningful number of the country groups.

The identified country groups are as follows:

- Cluster 1 Ghana, Nigeria, Togo, Burkina Faso, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Central African Republic, Niger, Benin, Guinea, Comoros, Mali, Gambia;
- Cluster 2 Chad, Sudan, Mauritania, Cameroon, Sao Tome & Principe, Djibouti, Cote d'Ivoire;
- Cluster 3 Madagascar, Malawi, Swaziland, Senegal, Gabon, Congo, Zambia, Angola, Mozambique, Rwanda, Zimbabwe;
- Cluster 4 Kenya, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Burundi, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Somalia;
- Cluster 5 Morocco, Tunisia, Cape Verde, Egypt, Algeria, Lybian Arab Jamahiriya;
- Cluster 6 Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa;
- Cluster 7 Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho;

2.1. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

The clusters with a similar pattern of women's involvement in the economy and in manufacturing have a diverse composition of countries which may not strictly follow the conventional sub-regional and/or development level groupings. This indicates that geographical commonalities are not necessarily associated with strong similarities in the economic and socio-cultural environment which in turn exhibits differences in its impact on the economic status of women.

Only cluster 5 (North African countries, except Cape Verde) and cluster 7 (Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho) are examples of more geographically, culturally and economically homogeneous groups. Clusters 2 and 3, on the other hand, are the most heterogeneous groups by the conventional criteria. The clusters also do not exhibit any strong pattern regarding language similarities. This can be interpreted as the historical influence of colonial powers on the economic role of women varied depending on the countries' traditional socio-cultural practices. Other explanation could be a different level and impact of the prevailing economic crises on the position of women in these countries due to different means adopted to cope with them.

Different patterns of female participation in the economy in general and the manufacturing sector in particular are illustrative of the different socio-economic and cultural environments prevailing in the seven groups of countries in or around 1990. Comparison of cluster means (see [Table 3](#)) clearly demonstrates the association between the measurements of female economic and manufacturing participation and the determinants discussed in the previous chapter.

Female economic participation rate is lowest in cluster 5 (11 per cent) and highest in cluster 4 (39 per cent). However, cluster 5 has the highest recorded share of female economically active population in the industry/manufacturing sector (30 per cent) and one of the lowest in agriculture (19 per cent). The opposite is true for cluster 4 which has the lowest participation rate of women in industry (2 per cent) and the highest participation rate in agriculture (86 per cent). As for the remaining five clusters, the economic activity rates vary between 24 and 34 percent and, except cluster 6, participation rates in industry are between 3 and 6 per cent and in agriculture between 68 and 85 per cent.

This illustrates the undisputable importance of the agricultural sector for women's economic activity in most African countries. This sector is also a women's domain. The gender gap in agricultural economic activity rate is in favour of women in all but few countries. The differences in female economic participation rates between clusters, allowing for their often poor and underscored measurements, tend to support the theory of a U-shaped relationship between female economic activity rates and economic development.

In traditional economies, high women's economic activity rates are the result of their important role in subsistence agriculture and micro-scale production activities mainly linked to food processing. These activities have been most affected by the competition from the growing modern sector leading to displacement of female labour force. The situation changes at a later stage of industrialization when these losses are compensated by higher female participation rates in industry and services as illustrated in cluster 5 and 6. Industrial

Table 3

Cluster and Regional Means

Indicator	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6	Cluster 7	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	33%	24%	34%	39%	11%	25%	28%	27%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	74%	76%	85%	86%	19%	12%	68%	60%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	20%	19%	11%	11%	51%	68%	29%	30%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (Industry) manufacturing	6%	5%	3%	2%	30%	15%	4%	9%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	5.98	6.27	6.31	5.13	7.11	6.08	6.94	6.54
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	39%	27%	26%	47%	15%	7%	11%	24%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	42%	52%	43%	36%	47%	58%	43%	46%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	8%	10%	17%	6%	12%	19%	8%	11%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	20%	29%	37%	22%	32%	41%	40%	32%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	12%	17%	17%	30%	27%	5%	4%	16%
3. 2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	3.36	4.22	4.11	1.24	5.17	6.39	4.34	4.12
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	36%	10%	16%	12%	30%	31%	77%	30%
4.1.1 Urbanization	31%	46%	32%	24%	51%	53%	27%	38%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	6.68	6.56	6.49	6.58	4.75	3.40	5.97	5.77
4.1.8 Female headed households	17%	21%	40%	29%	21%	25%	34%	27%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	46%	42%	85%	64%	94%	110%	109%	78%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	11%	14%	21%	11%	50%	44%	28%	25%
6.1.1	69%	0%	82%	89%	67%	67%	33%	58%
6.1.2	85%	86%	91%	33%	100%	0%	0%	56%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	77%	88%	82%	22%	100%	0%	0%	52%
Gap Indicator (+ is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)								
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.23	0.39	0.20	0.17	0.68	0.40	0.31	0.34
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	-0.03	-0.16	-0.14	-0.12	0.26	0.25	-0.11	-0.01
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	-0.04	0.17	0.33	0.30	-0.16	-0.09	-0.05	0.07
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.41	0.53	0.66	0.56	0.03	0.33	0.57	0.44
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.03	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.02	-0.05	-0.04	-0.03
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.27	0.30	0.17	0.17	0.14	0.01	-0.01	0.15
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.37	0.29	0.19	0.28	0.13	0.03	-0.12	0.17

development may also help to reduce the influence of the socio-cultural barriers. Although women in cluster 5 are strongly underrepresented on the labour market, the manufacturing sector employs a high share of female labour force. Improvements in socio-economic conditions and the economic status of women can be observed in cross-cluster comparison.

Clusters with the highest female participation rates in manufacturing (cluster 5 and 6) have the highest level of urbanization, the lowest fertility rates and the highest female school enrolment rates both in the primary and secondary level. These clusters give the clearest example of the positive association between the level of economic and industrial development based on export promotion. The demand for female labour in formal sector activities, especially in export oriented manufacturing, was influenced by the general need for a larger work force as the economy grew and also by the comparative advantage of underutilized and undervalued female labour. However, these conditions have occurred only in a few African countries which still remain rather exceptional examples. For the majority of African countries economic stagnation and trends of deindustrialization observed since the beginning of 1980s resulted in worsening of the socio-economic conditions of women and their possibilities for advancement.

2.2. ANALYSIS OF THE COUNTRY GROUPS

The following examination of the identified country groups makes use of the larger data base and information from other sources to give as wide coverage as possible of most of the desirable gender sensitive indicators included in Table 1. Indicators presented in Tables 3-10 illustrate the similarities and differences between countries within the same cluster. Figures 9 to 22 facilitate a two-dimensional comparison. One dimension shows to what extent the mean values of cluster indicators deviate from values of corresponding indicators for all 52 countries with the mean of zero and variance of 1. The other dimension shows how these deviations differ across clusters. In this way the figures help to illustrate the distinguishing features of each cluster and facilitate a cross-cluster comparison. The seven clusters can be thus characterized as follows:

Cluster 1. Sub-Saharan African Countries with low levels of social development and low female activity rate but comparatively high participation in agriculture. [Ghana, Guinea, Central African Republic, Comoros, Benin, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Togo, Liberia, Gambia.] (Table 4, Figures 9 and 10)

The economic and industrial environment of the 13 countries in this cluster exhibits a kaleidoscope of variations in size, performance and future prospects. Nigeria, an oil exporting country has the highest population in Africa and comparatively a sizable industrial base. Ghana too has a relatively more developed manufacturing sector compared to the other countries in the cluster. In 1991, Nigeria alone accounted for 30.2 percent of the sub-regional MVA in West Africa while Ghana's contribution was 9.7 per cent. Comoros and Gambia, are small countries with negligible industrial sector, Mali, Burkina Faso, and Niger are landlocked Sahelian countries with limited industrial base. Guinea, Liberia, Central African Republic and Sierra Leone are mineral exporting countries with a very low industrial base. In spite of these variations, all countries in cluster 1 are classified as low income countries by the United Nations and the World Bank. As for regional groupings,

Central African Republic and Comoros belong to the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS). The remaining twelve countries are members of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS).

In most of the countries in this cluster the share of the tertiary sector to GDP is higher than other sectors of the economy. In Mali, Ghana and Nigeria, the share of the agricultural sector to GDP is higher. Agriculture provides raw materials for the agro-based industries for most of the countries in the Cluster. The share of MVA in GDP exceeds 10 per cent in only three countries, Burkina Faso, Ghana and Nigeria. In terms of development strategies, the weather-dependent nature of agriculture coupled with inadequate access to modern factors of production, import-intensive manufacturing, lack of a diversified export base and inadequate allocation of resources towards the development of human resources are the major problems facing all countries in this cluster.

The strategy of import-substitution industrialization was in fact heavily dependent on imports. In Nigeria for example, 60 per cent of the total raw materials in the manufacturing sector was imported. This degree of import dependence reflected a neglect of the agricultural sector which in turn meant domestic shortage of food and a heavy reliance on food imports.

Consequently since the 1960s but more particularly since the economic crisis of the 1980s, the overall economic profile of these countries is characterized by decline in agriculture's share of GDP, stagnation or decline of the small manufacturing sector and a significant increase in the service sector. Political instability and authoritarian forms of government coupled with bad governance have also had a large part to play in the economic decline of countries in cluster 1.

The impact of the economic crisis of the 1980s on countries of cluster 1 was much more dramatic than the message conveyed by the notion of 'a lost decade'. The changing fortunes of Nigeria is perhaps a graphic illustration. Between 1960 and 1980, on the average, the GNP increased at a much a higher rate than the population. This was accompanied by a significant increase in per capita income. In 1970, there was a structural transformation of the Nigerian economy as oil replaced agriculture as the driving force of the economy. Propelled by an externally generated oil boom, Nigeria enjoyed a phenomenal economic growth. As the economic crisis deepened between 1980-1985, however, the economy began to exhibit a negative growth of about 2.9 per cent while the population grew at 3.3 per cent per annum. Nigeria's per capita plummeted from US \$ 1,030 in 1980 to \$ 250 by 1989. Nigeria was down graded from a middle income to low-income country. The most visible manifestation of the crisis was the rapid build up of the debt. By 1992 Nigeria was Sub-Saharan Africa's largest debtor and one of seventeen most indebted nations in the world [Fajana, 1983]. The case of Liberia shows similar trends of economic decline and indebtedness and a downgrading from a middle income country to low-income country. To varying degrees, other countries in cluster 1 have experienced a downturn in economic activities and are burdened with a debt overhang.

The Structural adjustment programme (SAP) which was supposed to reverse the trend in economic decline has in most countries of cluster 1 failed to produce the promised panacea. In no country has the projected growth rates been achieved and some countries registered further decline. The decline of the manufacturing sector, public sector employment and

salaries and wages have been substantive. In the manufacturing sector, SAP was expected to make domestic industries more competitive and promote new exports including manufactured goods. Devaluation implied a drastic decline in imported inputs for local industries. Liberalization exposed local industries to competition with imported goods. All in all, observers argue that the overall impact of the Stabilization and Structural Adjustment Project has been a process of de-industrialization. In general, the implication of these economic reforms for the manufacturing sector differ between those industries which continued to be heavily import-dependent and those which could develop local sources of supply. Industries such as beverages, food, textile, clothing apparel have registered improved performance. However growth of the manufacturing sector is constrained by a number of factors such as inadequacy of basic infrastructure, weak consumer demand resulting from the erosion of purchasing power and, high interest rates and high product prices.

Prior to 1980, in most countries of cluster 1, the public sector provided the biggest share of formal sector employment. In Benin and Gambia for example, 75 per cent of the formal sector work force was employed in the public sector (*Jespersen, 1992:22*). A major component of adjustment policies is reduction of the public sector and public expenditure. These two policies have had enormous impact on employment and incomes. In the 1980s, all countries in cluster 1 have implemented a policy of retrenchment of public employees. In Ghana, for example more than 60,000 civil servants were retrenched. A related factor was a declining trend in official real wages. Between 1970 and 1986, all countries in cluster 1 experienced substantive declines in real wages. In Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Ghana, Guinea and Togo official minimum wages fell an average of 45 per cent. In Nigeria the slump in minimum wages was more than 60 per cent (*Ndulu, 1992: 234*).

Reduction in formal employment and declining income has meant a phenomenal increase in informal activities. In particular these trends have been major determinants of women's participation in the labour force. In countries of cluster 1, the largest proportion of female labour force is found in agriculture. The lowest rate of participation of women in agriculture in this cluster is found in Ghana where the rate is 48 per cent. Other countries in the cluster where female participation is relatively lower include Nigeria, Togo, Central African Republic and Benin. Lower rates of participation in agriculture indicates women's significant role in trade. The lack of desegregated data, makes it difficult to specify the sectoral distribution of female labour within the agricultural sector, particularly in the cash crop sector. In Sierra Leone, Ghana and Liberia, higher percentage of women compared to men are classified under unpaid family labour. Women's response to changing socio-economic processes in countries of cluster 1, has been a significant increase in own-account farming, as well as in non-farm activities mostly petty trade. What one study observed as a 'veritable boom' in women's farming in reference to Nigeria is also applicable to other countries in cluster 1 (*Guyer and Idowu, 1991:268*).

For all countries of cluster 1, women's participation rate in manufacturing is very low. The highest rate is 18 per cent in the case of Ghana. Women's low level employment in manufacturing is both a reflection of the small size of the sector in the economies of countries in this cluster as well as disadvantages faced by women as a result of gender ideology and lack of educational and training opportunities. It was in the service sector that a growing number of women found opportunities for formal employment. However,

retrenchment has meant loss of "jobs in which the proportion of women employed is substantially higher than average" (*Jespersion, 1992:22*). In urban areas the majority of women are found in the informal sector mostly as self-employed in petty trade, as employees and unpaid family workers. In most countries of cluster 1, some women are high income earners and engage in sub-regional trading activities. However most women are found in small scale activities earning low incomes and involved in activities which have low productivity but require long hours. Women's income has become indispensable for both rural and urban livelihoods.

The social and demographic profile of countries in cluster 1 is characterized by both high total fertility rate and maternal mortality rates. Life expectancy in this cluster is relatively low for both males and females although it is slightly higher for women than men. The lowest female life expectancy is in Sierra Leone (43 years), Guinea (44 years), and Gambia (45 years). The highest female life expectancy is in Ghana (56.8 years), Nigeria (53.3 years). The median age of the population is under 17 and thus exhibits a high dependency ratio, an important determinant of women's pattern of employment. In comparison to other regions of Africa, the percentage of female-headed households in this cluster is rather low, the highest is in Ghana with 35 per cent followed by 29 per cent in Nigeria. Given the civil war in Liberia and political instability in Sierra Leone, the percentage of female-headed households is probably much higher than what is actually reported.

Between 1960- 1980, most countries in cluster 1 allocated a high share of GDP to education, health and social services. Spending cuts in public expenditure has meant a marked deterioration in the educational health and other social sectors. Primary enrolment rates rose in some countries of cluster 1, while it flattened out in some countries and tended to fall in others. Burkina Faso and Niger registered expansion in primary enrolment rates while the rates flattened out in Ghana, Benin and Mali. Falling rates were registered in Nigeria, the Gambia, Central African Republic and Sierra Leone.

In the context of substantive population growth, for most countries there has been a decline in the average per capita expenditure on education. In Burkina Faso, however, per capita expenditure on education almost doubled between 1980 and 1987 and moderate expansion was registered in Niger (*Jespersion, 1992:32*). The implementation of cost-recovery has meant a shift of the growing share of educational costs to households. The major outcome has been low quality education and a drop in enrolment. Given the low rate of female enrolment and widely prevalent gender ideology, girls are the most affected by the decline in enrolment. Although more recent trends indicate that the enrolment rates for girls has picked up more than boys, the gap is still large in favour of boys.

Enrolment ratios at the secondary level show similar trends as those for primary enrolment. They declined in Togo, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Comoros, Central Africa Republic and Guinea and flattened out in Ghana. Female secondary enrolment ratio is highest in Ghana and lowest in Mali, Burkina Faso and Guinea.

For all countries in cluster 1 the difference in female primary and secondary enrolment is quite substantive but the drop is very significant in Togo, Comoros, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Mali and Guinea. The female tertiary enrolment ratio is rather bleak for all countries in this cluster including the bigger countries like Nigeria and Ghana.

Figure 9

CLUSTER CHARACTERISTICS

Cluster 1: Ghana, Nigeria, Togo, Central African Republic, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Niger, Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Liberia, Comoros, and Mali

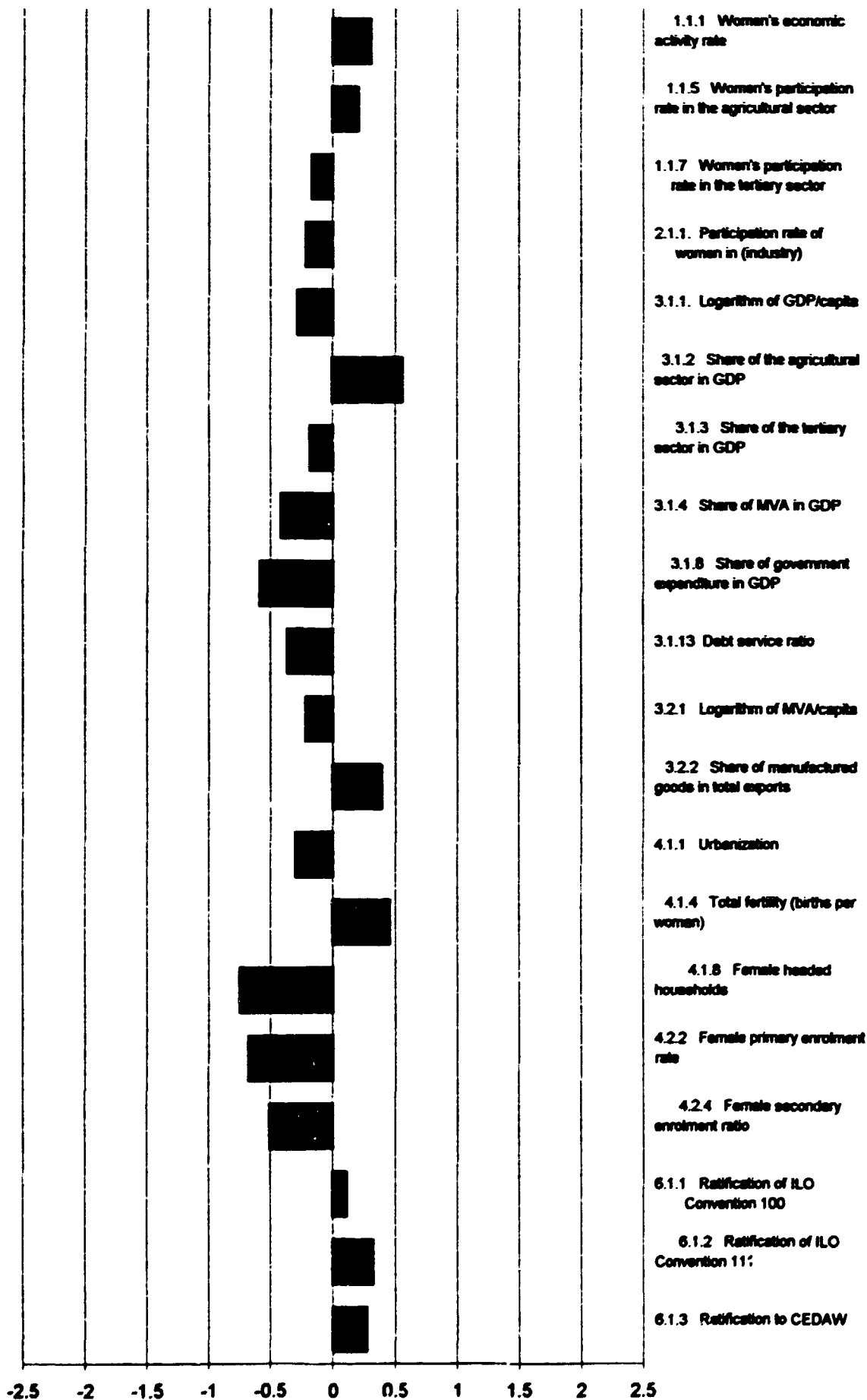


Figure 10

MF-DISPARITIES

Cluster 1: Ghana, Nigeria, Togo, Central African Republic, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Niger, Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Liberia, Comoros, Mali

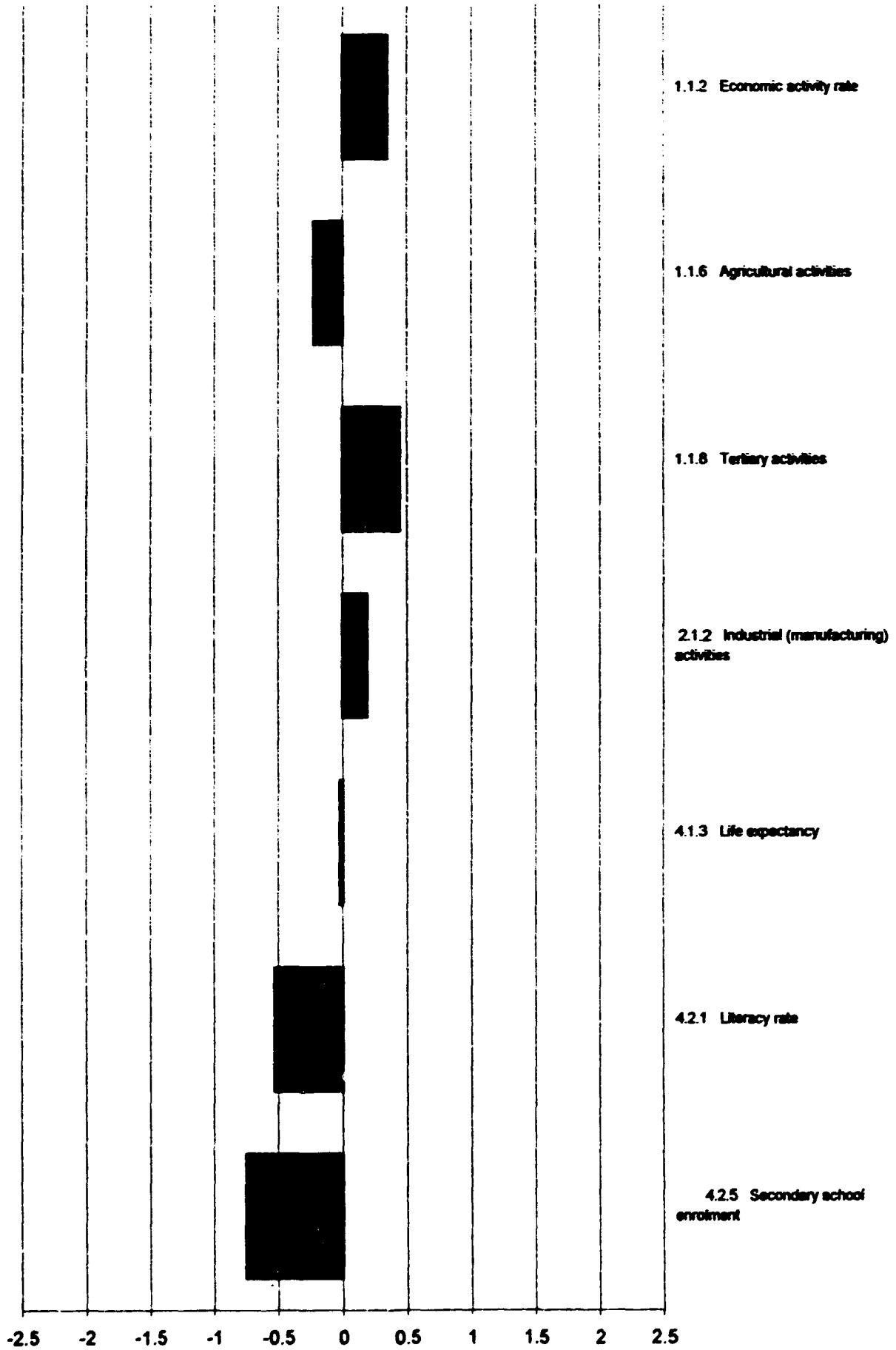


Table 4

System Characteristics of Cluster 1

Indicator	Ghana	Nigeria	Togo	Cent. African Republic	Sierra Leone	Gambia	Niger	Benin	Burkina Faso	Guinea	Liberia	Comoros	Mali	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	28.50%	26.16%	29.88%	43.55%	23.88%	37.47%	47.97%	44.32%	49.11%	36.36%	21.28%	36.53%	10.17%	33.48%
1.1.6 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	46.00%	65.70%	63.70%	68.70%	76.40%	90.40%	91.60%	63.90%	83.40%	79.90%	78.60%	61.40%	74.60%	74.19%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	35.70%	26.60%	28.10%	26.50%	18.70%	6.80%	8.20%	31.40%	12.40%	11.10%	19.30%	17.00%	21.20%	20.23%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	18.40%	7.70%	8.20%	4.80%	4.90%	2.80%	0.20%	4.70%	4.20%	8.90%	2.10%	1.60%	4.00%	6.58%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	6.13	5.84	6.17	5.99	4.78	5.85	5.77	5.99	5.71	6.26	7.57	6.18	5.51	5.96
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	45.31%	38.13%	34.99%	42.71%	32.18%	28.55%	41.77%	39.06%	40.57%	23.20%	42.60%	43.34%	49.75%	36.63%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	36.79%	33.11%	41.25%	44.13%	51.35%	57.64%	40.96%	45.82%	29.69%	44.12%	43.37%	43.67%	33.02%	42.07%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	10.74%	10.07%	6.85%	7.15%	8.48%	6.97%	4.36%	4.31%	16.47%	4.38%	8.76%	4.65%	7.59%	7.75%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	4.00%	8.00%	20.00%	29.00%	17.00%	28.00%	28.00%	21.00%	13.00%	26.00%	21.00%	17.00%	27.00%	19.92%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	26.90%	29.05%	7.43%	9.54%	7.61%	12.63%	14.62%	5.09%	9.32%	12.30%	3.47%	6.64%	9.81%	11.86%

3.1.13 Debt service ratio	26.80%	28.00%	7.43%	8.54%	7.61%	12.63%	14.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	3.58	3.21	3.21	3.69	2.17	3.15	3.16	3.60	3.84	3.05	5.14	3.00	2.65	3.36
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	15.80%	2.09%	5.40%	69.91%	53.34%	60.97%	71.53%	3.94%	2.72%	38.74%	82.17%	32.98%	25.44%	35.77%
4.1.1 Urbanization	33.80%	36.80%	27.20%	48.30%	33.70%	24.40%	20.80%	39.00%	9.60%	27.00%	48.10%	28.90%	19.90%	30.68%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	6.30	6.60	6.60	6.20	6.50	6.20	7.10	7.10	6.50	7.00	6.70	7.00	7.10	6.66
4.1.8 Female headed households	35.00%	29.00%	12.00%	25.00%	20.00%	20.00%	10.00%	12.00%	5.00%	10.00%	18.00%	5.00%	15.00%	18.62%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	67.00%	63.00%	80.00%	48.00%	39.00%	58.00%	21.00%	44.00%	28.00%	21.00%	24.00%	81.90%	17.00%	48.53%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	29.00%	17.00%	12.00%	7.00%	12.00%	12.00%	4.00%	7.00%	5.00%	5.00%	7.00%	27.00%	1.00%	11.15%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	69.23%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	84.62%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	76.92%

Gap Indicator (+ is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)

1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.20	0.30	0.28	0.08	0.34	0.19	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.20	0.42	0.19	0.67	0.23
1.1.8 Gender gap in agricultural activities	0.07	0.02	0.07	-0.07	-0.15	-0.09	-0.04	-0.04	0.01	-0.07	-0.08	-0.04	0.05	-0.03
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	-0.19	-0.21	-0.34	0.08	0.02	0.33	0.15	-0.05	-0.15	0.14	0.02	-0.09	-0.20	-0.04
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.11	0.30	0.24	0.34	0.87	0.61	0.82	0.47	0.20	0.27	0.73	0.74	-0.19	0.41
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.05	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.12	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.32	0.30	0.23	0.63	0.35	0.39	0.21	0.07	0.19	0.27
4.2.8 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.22	0.14	0.52	0.43	0.28	0.41	0.41	0.42	0.35	0.51	0.44	0.20	0.42	0.37

In the political environment, the representation of women in both cabinet and the parliament has registered some increase. With the exception of Nigeria and Mali, all countries in Cluster 1, have not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Discrimination Against Women. In 1992, the number of women occupying percentage of seats in Parliament was 8 in Ghana and the Gambia, 6 in Liberia, Togo, Benin and Burkina Faso, 4 in Central African Republic and 2 in Nigeria (*Human Development Report, 1994:145*). The number of cabinet posts held by women is very low in spite of the democratization process currently under way in countries like Mali, Niger and Benin. However there are new trends which are noteworthy. The Foreign Minister of the Transitional Government of Liberia is a woman and so is the Minister for Trade and Industry in Ghana. Although most countries have ratified International Conventions on Equal Remuneration and Discrimination of Employment and Occupation, these conventions are not implemented. In the context of a deepening social and economic crisis, women employees continue to work in a less protected environment.

Cluster 2 Countries with a low female economic activity rate, especially in the more productive sectors of the economy, and low social and economic status (Chad, Sudan, Mauritania, Cameroon, Sao Tome & Principe, Cote d'Ivoire and Djibouti). Table 5, Figures 11 and 12

This cluster is one of the most geographically diverse including countries from all four African sub-regions of varying sizes and different levels of economic development. The common features uniting countries in this cluster are: a low female economic activity rate, a much higher participation rate of women in agriculture but much lower involvement in the manufacturing related activities than men, and high fertility rates. The distinguishing features of the cluster as a whole compared to the regional mean include a high share of the tertiary sector in GDP, a low contribution of manufactured goods in total exports, a relatively high rate of urbanization, a large gender gap in literacy rates as well as a low female primary school enrolment rate, and an inadequate legal protection of women against remuneration discrimination.

The economic and industrial environment in the seven countries differs in size, structure and policies. It includes oil exporting country (Cameroon), small countries with a limited industrial base (Djibouti and Sao Tome & Principe) and countries with a relatively more developed manufacturing sector (Cameroon and Cote d'Ivoire). Except the latter two countries, other countries in this cluster are classified by the UN system as least developed countries. The GDP per capita in 1990 varied between US\$ 181 in Chad to a five times higher in Cameroon. Cameroon and Cote d'Ivoire belong to middle-income countries by the World Bank criteria. Before the economic crisis of the 1980s, Cote d'Ivoire was considered one of the economically and industrially most advanced countries in West Africa. In 1990 it has one of the highest debt service ratios in Africa.

On average less than 25 per cent of the female population above the age of 15 years are recorded as being economically active in this cluster. The lowest female activity rates are found in the Sahel countries, Mauritania, Chad and Sudan. These countries also have the highest male-female disparity in economic activity rates. There is little doubt that culturally determined definition of women's economic activities is largely responsible for the low official statistics. About three quarters of economically active women in the cluster are

involved in agriculture which is a much higher proportion than that of economically active men.

For all countries in this cluster, except Chad, the highest sectoral share in GDP is contributed by the tertiary sector (wholesale and retail trade, tourism, transport, administration, and social and financial services). In Cote d'Ivoire and Sao Tome & Principe the service sector's contribution is over 50 per cent and approaching almost 80 per cent in Djibouti. The agricultural sector's contribution is relatively small. With the exception of Chad, Sudan and Mauritania it is less than half of that contributed by the tertiary sector.

Only in Cameroon and Cote d'Ivoire is the share of manufacturing sector in GDP above 10 per cent. In all countries, with the exception of Djibouti and Sao Tome & Principe, the share of manufactured goods in total exports is even smaller. Thus it is not surprising that female economic participation rate in this sector is on average only about 4 per cent and gender inequality in industrial job opportunities is high. This is in spite of the predominance of light consumer industries in the composition of MVA which traditionally attract larger proportion of female than male labour force, especially food processing and textiles/garments. Apart from the recurring problem with undercounting women's contribution as self employed and unpaid family labour, plausible explanations could be the adoption of a more advanced technology in the formal sector requiring skills which favour men due to their better educational background, and/or a tough job competition in both, formal and informal sector. In the latter case, gender based discriminatory hiring practices and cultural prejudices about women's occupations play an important role, especially in countries with a muslim culture. All countries in the cluster have a low human development index (*Human Development Report 1994*) which gets even lower when adjusted for gender disparity. Although in all countries women's life expectancy exceeds that of men, there are variations in the number of years women can expect to live. The highest female life expectancy at birth is 56.8 years in Cameroon, the lowest is 48.5 years in Chad. Chad also has the highest maternal mortality rate (800 per 100 000, *IFAD 1993*) among the countries in the cluster. The total fertility rate is on average 6.6 for the cluster as a whole. The highest rate of 7.4 is recorded in Cote d'Ivoire and the lowest 5.8 is in Chad.

Female primary school enrolment rates are below 50 per cent for all countries except Cameroon. Chad has the lowest primary and secondary school enrolment rate, 35 and 2 per cent respectively. The low school enrolment rates in Chad can be directly associated with the early age of marriage which is 16.6 years. In the other countries the secondary school enrolment rates, although not as low, are nonetheless considerably lower than primary school enrolment rates and also those of male students. The limited data available indicate that the gender gap gets even larger at the tertiary level of education.

The political and institutional environment is of little support to the advancement of women in spite of the fact that all countries except Djibouti are signatories to the UN Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Only in Cameroon and Sao Tome & Principe is the representation of women in parliament above 10 per cent. In the other countries women's share is 5 or less per cent. None of the countries in the cluster has signed the ILO convention on equal remuneration, although all but Mauritania have signed the convention on discrimination in employment. However, in the face of large

Table 5

System Characteristics of Cluster 2

Indicator	Cameroon	Cote d'Ivoire	Mauritania	Sudan	Chad	Sao Tome and Principe	Djibouti	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	26.05%	28.28%	13.30%	13.94%	14.81%	31.87%	36.91%	23.57%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	71.10%	68.30%	81.20%	77.70%	82.90%	68.30%	65.00%	76.36%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	23.60%	25.30%	13.20%	15.30%	15.40%	26.40%	13.40%	18.94%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	5.40%	6.40%	5.70%	7.00%	1.70%	5.30%	1.60%	4.73%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	6.95	6.38	6.35	6.27	5.28	5.91	6.73	6.27
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	24.12%	26.58%	29.73%	40.24%	44.04%	23.46%	3.31%	27.35%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	42.62%	52.02%	45.51%	44.89%	43.82%	55.02%	79.60%	51.93%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	13.85%	13.45%	6.68%	8.18%	9.12%	9.92%	5.65%	9.52%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	15.00%	34.00%	31.00%	30.00%	14.00%	46.00%	34.00%	29.14%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	16.17%	32.38%	20.68%	7.05%	4.52%	35.58%	4.45%	17.26%
3. 2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	4.69	4.73	4.80	4.30	3.54	3.02	4.47	4.22
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	13.41%	11.36%	0.67%	3.67%	1.87%	28.10%	12.35%	10.20%
4.1.1 Urbanization	43.10%	41.70%	49.50%	22.80%	31.30%	50.60%	81.50%	45.79%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	6.9	7.4	6.7	6.3	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.56
4.1.8 Female headed households	25.00%	10.00%	20.00%	24.00%	20.00%	30.00%	20.00%	21.29%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	93.00%	37.02%	42.00%	41.00%	35.00%	10.00%	38.00%	42.29%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	23.00%	16.00%	10.00%	20.00%	2.00%	15.00%	12.00%	14.00%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	86%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	86%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)								
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.32	0.31	0.56	0.57	0.57	0.22	0.19	0.39
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	-0.12	-0.15	-0.15	-0.15	-0.06	-0.37	-0.10	-0.16
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	0.04	0.08	0.34	0.33	0.04	0.19	0.18	0.17
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.55	0.36	0.40	0.27	0.69	0.70	0.76	0.53
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.02	-0.04	0.02	-0.03	-0.02
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.16	0.24	0.29	0.44	0.28	0.20	0.46	0.30
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.19	0.40	0.40	0.15	0.64	0.05	0.20	0.29

Cluster 2: Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Mauritania, Sudan, Chad, Sao Tome and Principe, and Djibouti

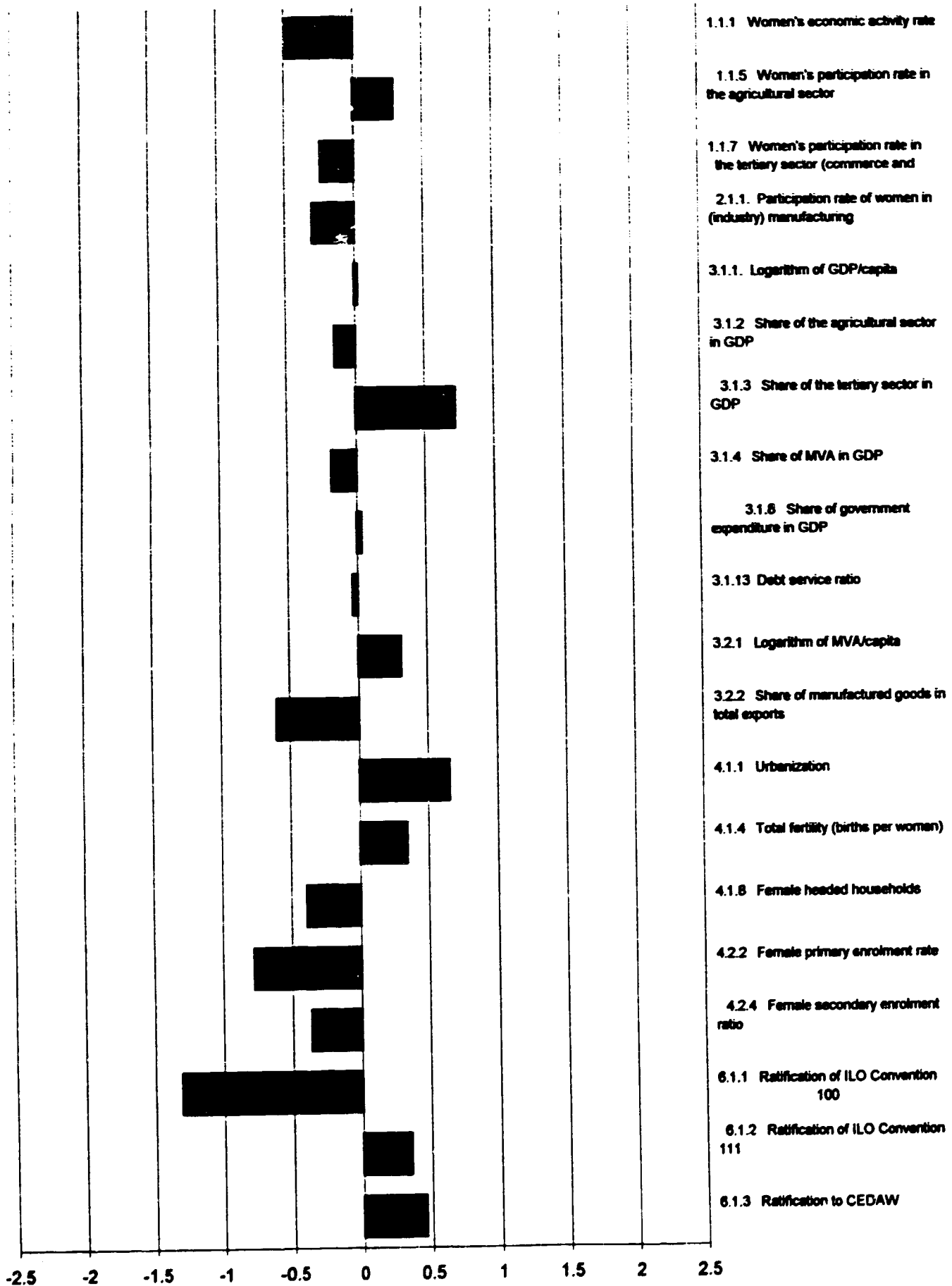
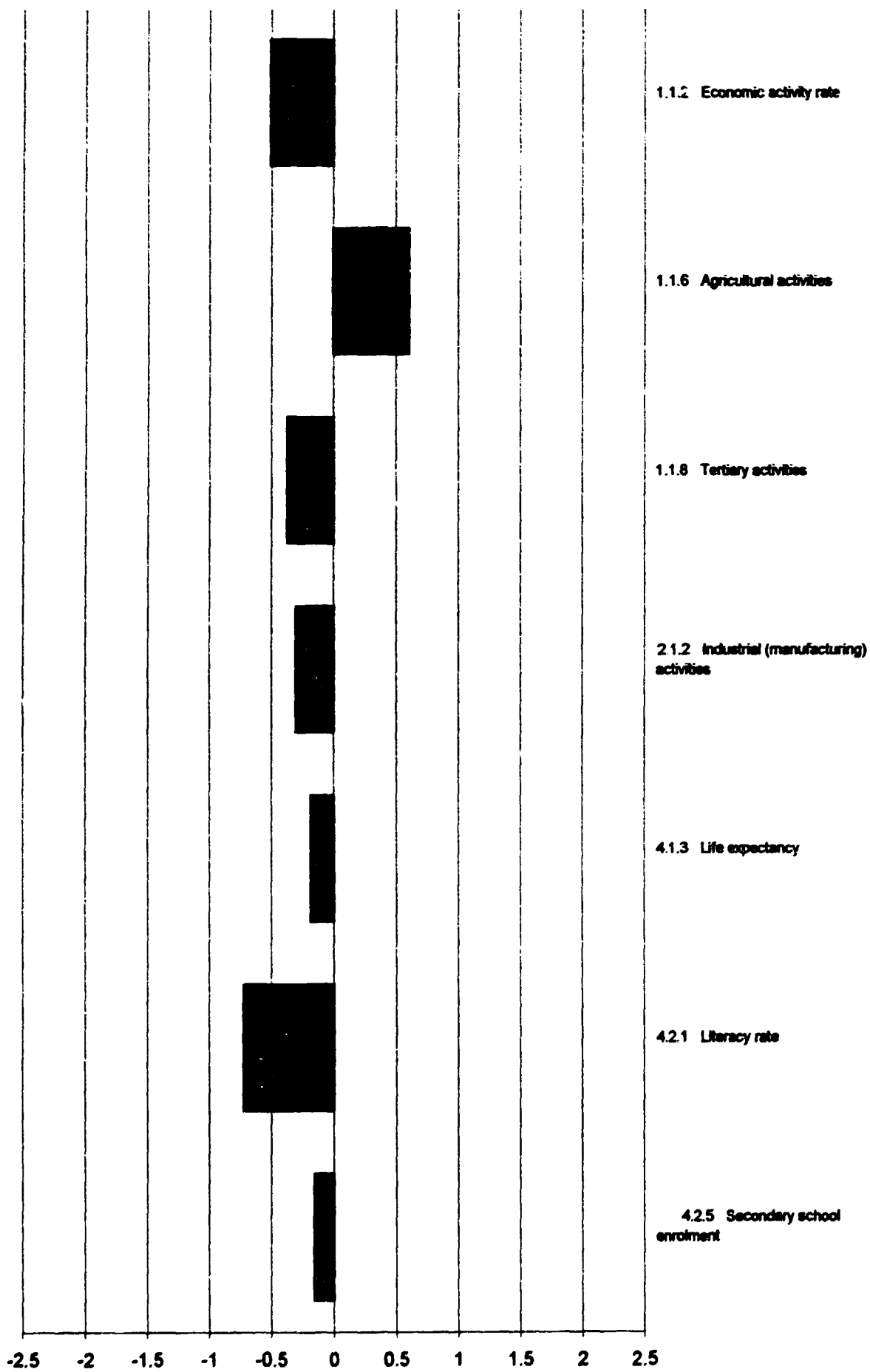


Figure 12

M/F-DISPARITIES

Cluster 2: Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Mauritania, Sudan, Chad, Sao Tome and Principe, Djibouti



unemployment implementation of the latter convention proves difficult and its effect on the female industrial labour force has been minimal so far.

Cluster 3 Countries with a moderate economic activity rate of women, large gender disparities in sectoral distribution of labour, and high percentage of female headed households (Senegal, Gabon, Congo, Rwanda, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola, Mozambique and Swaziland). Table 6, Figure 13, 14

Although the majority of countries in this cluster belong to the East and Southern Africa sub-region, countries from Central and West Africa also belong in this group. The cluster includes countries with different colonial past, level of development and political environment. Angola and Mozambique were the last countries in Africa to obtain independence from overseas powers in 1975 but have not yet achieved internal stability. Rwanda has been periodically torn with civil wars, the latest in 1994. Zambia and Malawi have only recently changed from one party ruled states to democracy. The Kingdom of Swaziland have enjoyed the longest stability and economic growth since independence. The prominent features of this cluster as a whole are: a relatively high female economic activity rate which is most pronounced in the agricultural sector but considerably less in the non-agricultural activities; a relatively high share of manufacturing sector in GDP but a low percentage of manufactured goods in total exports; and a high proportion of female headed households.

The economies in this cluster are depended on the mining and oil extraction sector and a few cash crop commodities. Only in Rwanda, Angola and Mozambique is agriculture the largest contributor to GDP. In the other countries, apart from Zambia, the tertiary sector (including government services) is the largest contributor to the national economy. Although the industrial base is considerable in countries such as Angola, Congo, Gabon, Zambia and Zimbabwe on account of their rich mineral deposits and also petroleum (in Angola, Congo and Gabon), the manufacturing sector's contribution to GDP is of some significance only in Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Zambia has one of the largest MVA share in GDP on the African continent, 40 per cent. However, the composition of MVA predominantly consists of copper refining. Also, the relatively high shares of manufacturing in GDP in Swaziland, Mozambique and Senegal are based upon processing of a narrow range of agricultural products. Zimbabwe has the most diversified manufacturing sector in the Sub-Saharan region (excluding South Africa), ironically as a result of the twenty year sanction period and policies aimed at self-sufficiency prior to independence. Today, Zimbabwe has one of the highest debt service ratios in Africa.

Given that disproportionately many more economically active women than men are engaged in agriculture and the reverse being the case in the service and manufacturing sectors indicates that more women than men are involved in economically less productive activities which also bring lower economic returns to their labour. Problems associated with definitions of female economic activities and the exclusion of the informal sector as well as services provided by women for household consumption from official statistics, partially accounts for

this gender inequality in the labour market reflected in the data available.¹ Colonial policies and cultural factors as well as post-independence industrial strategies are largely responsible for the lack of women's participation in the formal sectors of the economy, especially in the industrial labour market.

In Zimbabwe, for example, the migratory pattern of the male labour force was enforced by the past colonial regime. Men were recruited from rural areas to work in mines and industries in major towns but their wives were prohibited to join them. This not only excluded women from industrial exposure but also reduced their economic and social status. Thus the lack of women participation in industry even today has to be viewed from this historical perspective. Women in Zimbabwe constitute about 16 per cent of the employees in the formal sector (*Ministry of National Affairs, Employment Creation and Cooperatives, Harare 1993*). Most of them are concentrated in the service sector including health, education, trade and financial services. Their representation in the manufacturing wage employment is only about 7 per cent. However, women constitute about 67 per cent of small scale enterprises in the informal sector of which manufacturing related activities are an important component.

The post-independence industrial development of the countries' in this cluster has been influenced by import substitution strategies with a large government support financed from mineral revenues and/or export receipts from few basic agricultural commodities. Although the involvement of government in the economy has been reduced in most countries as the result of crises in the 1980s, government expenditure as a share of GDP is still high. The on-going civil war which has lasted since independence in Angola and Mozambique has precluded social and economic development in these countries. Angola has one of the highest military expenditures as a percentage of GDP in Africa, 20 per cent (*Human Development Report 1994, Table 21*). It is more than twice as high as the share of combined education and health expenditure.

All countries in this cluster have a high percentage of female headed households, well above the regional average. In Angola and Mozambique, due to the war situation, more than half of total households are headed by women. These countries, together with Malawi, also have the lowest female life expectancy and the lowest average age at first marriage in this cluster (*Human Development Report 1994, Table 8*). Fertility rates are high in all countries, particularly in Rwanda and Malawi, 8 and 7.6 respectively.

Female primary school enrolment rates are approaching or above hundred per cent in 6 countries. Senegal and Malawi have rates 49 and 60 and per cent. The lowest rates are recorded in countries with the on-going civil war, Angola and Mozambique. Countries where female secondary school enrolment rates are above 90 per cent and secondary enrolment rates above 30 per cent include Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Gabon and Congo. In the other countries there is a conspicuous difference between primary and secondary enrolment rates of girls. The reasons for discontinued female education, can be traced to the preference to educate

¹ Surveys in Malawi and Zambia show a high involvement (70-90 per cent) of rural and urban women in trade activities mostly of their own products (*Marja Kuiper, Women entrepreneurs in Africa, ILO Training Papers, No 68, 1991*).

boys in case of a financial hardship, early pregnancies and marriages, limited number of school places and much earlier exposure of girls than boys to economic activities and household work.

Available data on the percentage of women in total higher education enrolment is even more discouraging. Women hardly succeed 20 per cent of the total enrolment (*WB 1992, Table 6*). Only in Gabon, and Madagascar and Swaziland female students constituted between 30 and 43 per cent of total enrolment in higher education around 1988. Even in these countries with a relatively high female enrolment rates, do women rarely enrol in science and technology related subjects.

The political and legal environment in countries of this cluster has been influenced by different sets of cultural and religious values as well as different political philosophy and colonial experience. Although the majority of countries have been exposed to the influence of socialistic oriented government policies which had a positive effect on women's political and legal status, economic crises and political instability have in many countries slowed down and often averted the process of advancement. Without the support of government policies traditional views about women's role are often used to discriminate against women in political affairs, the labour market, and the division of labour and income within a household.

For example, women's involvement in the struggle for independence in Zimbabwe was initially rewarded by a relatively large female representation in parliament and cabinet. A Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs was established to formulate policies and coordinate activities to promote women's social and economic advancement. Today, the representation of women in parliament is down to less than 12 per cent compared to 35 per cent in the early 1980s. The Ministry has been abolished as a result of cuts in government expenditure and the responsibility for Women's Affairs have been transferred to a Unit in the Ministry of National Affairs and Employment. Although certain changes in the legal framework have been introduced to counteract the women's subordinate status prescribed by the customary and Roman Dutch laws, women still do not have a direct access to land and credit. Similar situation can be found in Zambia.

All countries, with the exception of Swaziland which is a kingdom, had a relatively high women's participation in parliament compared to regional average in 1990. Rwanda, Angola and Mozambique had the highest female representation in parliament on the African continent, between 16 and 17 per cent. However, women in executive positions of power are rare. For example in Malawi, until 1994 there has been not a single women holding an executive position in the history of the ruling party. In Zambia, only one of the 32 cabinet posts is held by a women. Rwanda is the only example of African country where a women ever occupied the post of a prime minister. However, her brutal murder during the civil war in 1994 has made this historical experience last for only a short time. With a few exceptions, all countries in this cluster have signed the International Convention on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women and the ILO conventions on equal employment opportunities and remuneration. However, government commitment and resources for the implementation of these conventions is lacking. Donors supported NGOs are the most active pressure groups in raising issues concerning gender equalities and in implementing projects directed at women's economic and social advancement.

Table 6

System Characteristics of Cluster 3

Indicator	Malawi	Senegal	Madagascar	Zimbabwe	Swaziland	Gabon	Angola	Rwanda	Congo	Mozambique	Zambia	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	35.55%	34.53%	35.39%	26.41%	31.90%	32.07%	31.90%	47.09%	30.72%	51.06%	19.35%	34.18%
1.1.6 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	89.60%	87.20%	87.90%	78.30%	77.00%	80.20%	85.50%	97.00%	79.80%	96.50%	80.40%	85.40%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	5.90%	9.90%	9.30%	17.40%	17.80%	15.70%	12.40%	1.60%	17.10%	2.60%	16.40%	11.49%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	4.50%	2.90%	2.90%	4.20%	5.20%	4.10%	2.10%	1.10%	3.10%	0.90%	3.20%	3.11%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	5.48	6.12	5.90	6.38	6.59	6.16	5.97	5.39	7.06	6.42	5.93	6.31
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	33.86%	20.40%	32.80%	12.30%	16.02%	8.82%	44.24%	41.96%	14.83%	39.15%	17.04%	25.57%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	49.24%	48.52%	52.40%	46.27%	51.51%	41.16%	37.22%	36.22%	51.59%	18.42%	33.39%	42.54%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	10.77%	19.22%	11.62%	28.05%	24.94%	7.36%	3.29%	12.27%	9.08%	24.65%	40.04%	17.39%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	24.00%	33.00%	10.00%	36.00%	29.00%	32.00%	57.00%	89.00%	34.00%	37.00%	22.00%	36.64%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	24.19%	12.54%	18.77%	31.94%	3.04%	16.52%	7.24%	23.33%	11.93%	9.40%	29.32%	17.11%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	3.35	4.69	3.23	4.97	5.27	5.36	2.28	3.52	4.58	2.96	5.01	4.11
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	4.98%	18.87%	19.76%	29.73%	13.50%	2.66%	12.40%	2.62%	16.46%	46.63%	4.76%	15.71%
4.1.1 Urbanization	12.50%	39.50%	25.10%	28.90%	35.50%	47.40%	29.60%	6.30%	41.60%	29.50%	51.70%	31.60%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	7.60	6.20	6.50	5.30	6.50	5.30	6.30	8.00	6.30	6.20	7.20	6.49
4.1.8 Female headed households	30.00%	36.00%	36.00%	35.00%	40.00%	30.00%	50.00%	25.00%	50.00%	60.00%	45.00%	39.73%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	60.00%	49.00%	90.00%	93.01%	106.00%	113.00%	35.00%	68.00%	153.00%	48.60%	116.00%	84.69%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment rate	3.00%	11.00%	18.00%	45.00%	47.00%	27.00%	7.00%	7.00%	50.00%	5.00%	13.00%	21.18%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	81.62%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	90.91%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	61.62%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)												
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.16	0.21	0.20	0.30	0.21	0.24	0.22	0.04	0.22	0.04	0.41	0.20
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	-0.15	-0.09	-0.13	-0.11	-0.13	-0.14	-0.18	-0.06	-0.28	-0.17	-0.11	-0.14
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	0.51	0.28	0.39	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.33	0.61	0.35	0.71	0.11	0.33
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.57	0.54	0.59	0.59	0.57	0.66	0.77	0.71	0.72	0.90	0.65	0.66
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03	-0.05	-0.04	-0.02	-0.03
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.26	0.27	0.06	0.07	0.03	0.15	0.26	0.24	0.16	0.26	0.06	0.17
4.2.6 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.31	0.33	0.03	0.19	0.02	0.13	0.30	0.15	0.12	0.27	0.26	0.19

Figure 13

CLUSTER CHARACTERISTICS

Cluste 3: Malawi, Senegal, Madagascar, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Gabon, Angola, Rwanda, Congo, Mozambique, and Zambia

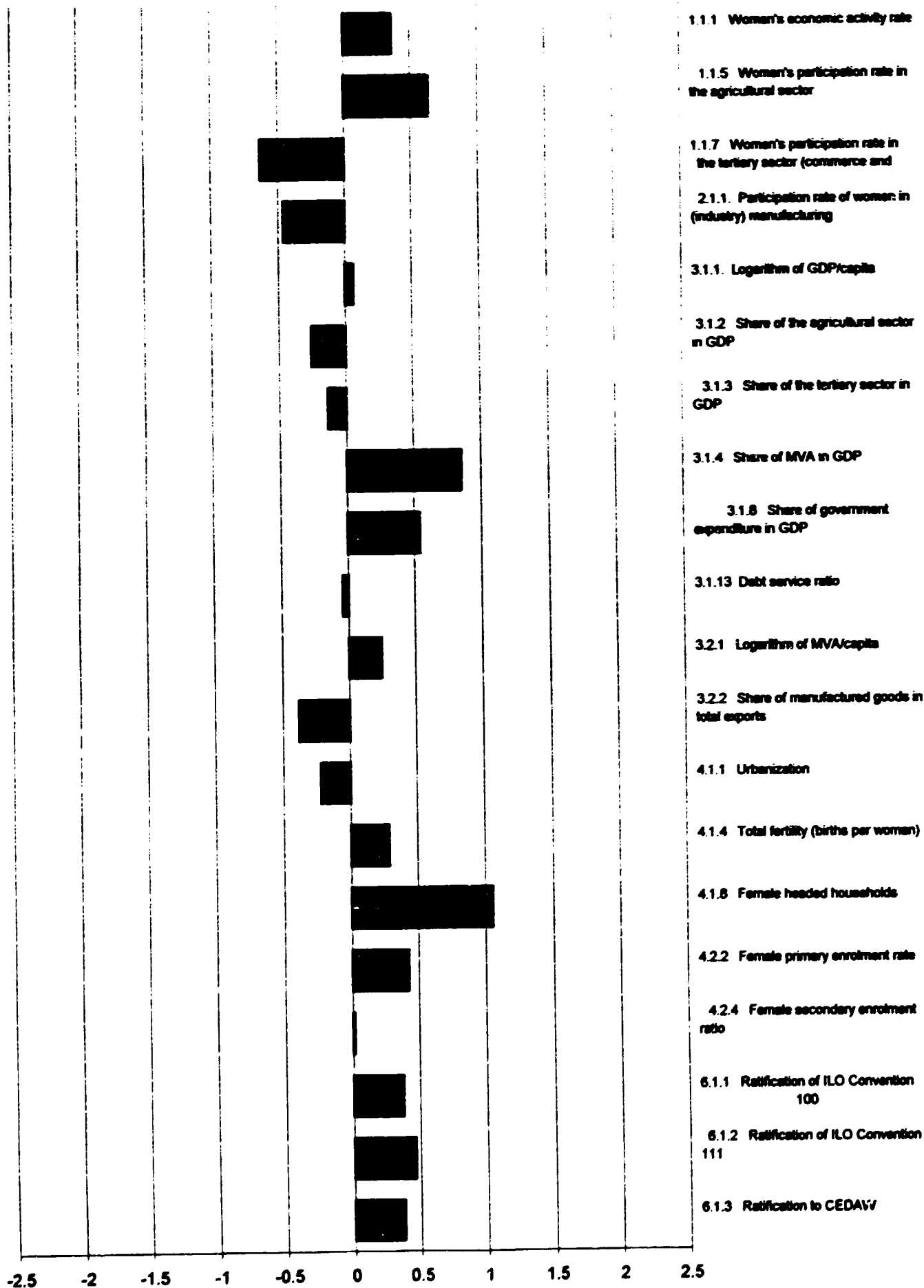
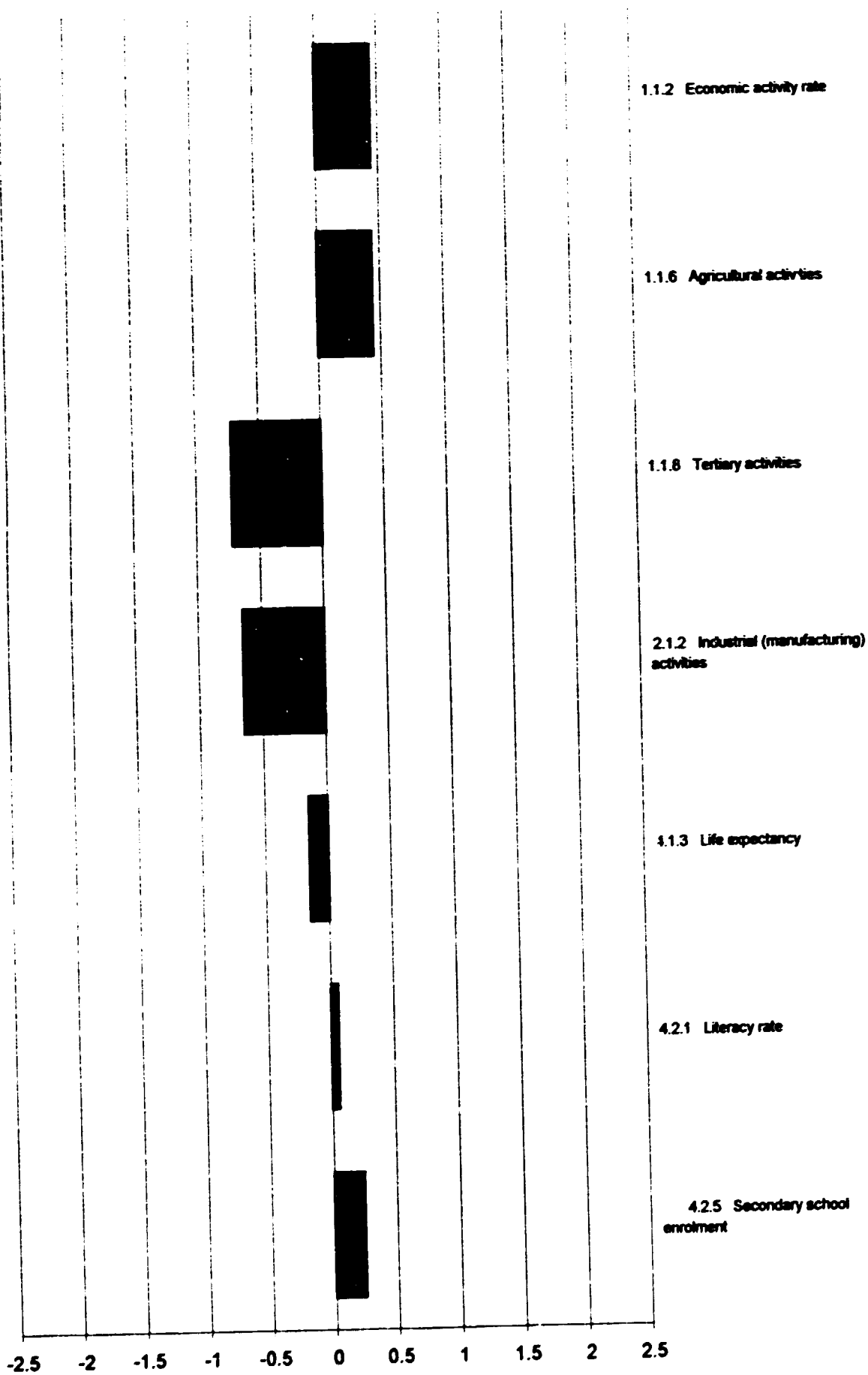


Figure 14

MF-DISPARITIES

Cluster 3: Malawi, Senegal, Madagascar, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Gabon, Angola, Rwanda, Congo, Mozambique, Zambia



Cluster 4. Sub Saharan African Countries with extremely low-levels of social development but relatively high female economic activity rate. (Kenya, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Burundi, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Ethiopia, Guinea - Bissau, Somalia) (Table 7, figures 16 and 17)

This cluster includes nine sub-saharan countries which differ in size, geographical location, resource endowments and economic development. With the exception of Equatorial Guinea, all the other countries in Cluster 4 belong to the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern And Southern Africa (PTA). The common characteristics of this cluster are: a relatively high female economic activity rate, very high participation of women in agriculture, but very low participation in manufacturing, high fertility rate and a sizable proportion of women-headed households.

The economic and industrial environment of countries of cluster 4 is diverse. Zaire one of the largest countries in sub-saharan African with a relatively rich resource endowment depends on export of copper, cobalt and industrial diamonds. Kenya enjoys a relatively more developed manufacturing sector. The manufacturing sector in Tanzania, Uganda and Ethiopia is highly limited and much more so in the case of Guinea Bissau and Somalia.

In most countries of cluster 4, the agricultural sector of the economy accounts for the dominant share of GDP, income, employment, food supply and export earnings. In Kenya, the tertiary sector has a higher sectoral share in GDP. For the cluster as a whole, the second significant sectoral share in GDP is the tertiary sector. In the 1980's, most countries in this cluster registered significant declines in per capita GDP. Economic reforms, and good weather in the early 1990s has meant modest economic growth rates for Uganda, Tanzania and Ethiopia. Overall, countries in cluster 4 continue to face the challenges posed by low per capita income, poor physical and social infrastructure, and for some, political instability. The Human Development Report classify all countries in cluster 4 under low human development category (least developed countries).

Most countries in this cluster have suffered or continue to suffer from major political instabilities due to wars, military coups and ethnic violence leading to huge loses of life, poor output and considerable destruction of infrastructure. Political instability has meant a misallocation of severely limited resources. Often, defense expenditure claims twice or three times of the expenditure allocated to education and health. In 1991, Ethiopia's GNP per capita was \$120 US dollars and the military expenditure per capita was 14.9 [Human Development Report 1994:51]. In 1989, Kenya allocated 9.1 per cent to defense and 6.6 per cent to health whereas Tanzania allocated 15.8 per cent to defense and 5.7 per cent to health. In Zaire, military expenditure (as percentage of combined education and health expenditure) in 90-91, was 71 per cent and that of Burundi was 41 per cent (*Human Development Report, 1994: 171*).

The civil war in Ethiopia lasted 20 years that in Uganda 20 years. Burundi has suffered from political turmoil since independence in 1962. In 1993 alone, ethnic clashes that followed a failed coup attempt which killed Burundi's first democratically elected president produced 700,000 Burundian refugees and 5,000 deaths. In the case of Somalia in addition to extremely high death rates and devastation of the country, the ongoing civil war has created million of Somalis refugees about 700,000 of whom are in neighbouring countries

mostly in Kenya and Ethiopia. Uganda, Zaire and Tanzania host an ever increasing number of refugees. The majority of refugees are women and children.

Refugee producing countries like Burundi, Ethiopia and Somalia now face a new challenge of rehabilitating large numbers of returnees as well as internally displaced persons. The socio-economic and environmental impact of hosting large number of refugees is enormous. Cutting forests for fuel wood by large numbers of refugees and increased use of rural road networks to transport food relief are just two minor examples of damages to an already poor infrastructure and a fragile environment.

In terms of the size and distribution of economically active population, the most prominent feature of this group is the relatively high female economic activity rate. This group has the highest concentration of female labour in agriculture and together with cluster 3, the smallest proportion in tertiary and industrial activities. In Burundi, one of the countries with the highest population density in sub-Saharan African, female activity rates are almost equal to those of for males. In Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia, Tanzania and Zaire, over 85 per cent of the female labour force are employed in own household farm activities but less than 10 per cent are engaged in wage employment.

The participation rate of women in manufacturing is very low in this cluster. It is highest in Equatorial Guinea with 5 percent followed by 4 per cent in Kenya and Uganda. The low participation is both a reflection of the small size of manufacturing and historical trends in formal employment. Women's entry into formal wage employment is a fairly recent phenomenon in most of the countries of cluster 4.

The low proportion of women in the tertiary sector is more a reflection of the definition of economically active persons in census data. In this narrow definition, women's non-agricultural activity tends to be omitted altogether. A related problem is the exclusion of the informal sector from official statistics. In countries of cluster 4, the participation of women in trade related activities both in rural and urban areas is increasing (*Tripp, 1989, UNICEF, 1989*). In the urban areas of countries in this cluster, the majority of women are hawkers and involved in buying and retailing manufactured goods from wholesalers, selling processed foods and handicrafts. A growing number of women operate in fully licensed premises. A relatively new breed of women travel to Europe, the middle East and Asia to import consumer items to sell in the up scale urban market.

The demographic environment indicates variation between the countries in the cluster. The common features is that in all the countries women's life expectancy is higher than men. However there are variations in the number of years women can expect to live. The lowest life expectancy of women is in Uganda, (40 years), Guinea - Bissau (44 years), Ethiopia and Somalia (48 years), Equatorial Guinea and Burundi (49 years). In Tanzania women can expect to live up to 52 years of age and in Zaire it is 53 years. Kenya has the highest life expectancy rate of 63 years. Population growth rates are above 2.5 in all countries except Equatorial Guinea (1.2) and Burundi (2.2). Kenya has the highest growth rate with 3.5 per cent followed by Uganda's 3.3 and Tanzania with 3.2.

Two emergent trends in the demographic and social environment of countries in cluster 4 which are worth highlighting are the growth of female-headed households and the spread of

the AIDS pandemic. The increase in female headship is indicative of political turmoil, the spread of absolute poverty and increased female rural urban migration.

The incidence of the spread of the AIDS pandemic is poorly recorded. In Uganda, a 1988 survey indicated 1.5 million Ugandans with HIV and 35,000 with AIDS. These figures are said to be highly underestimated. The founder and director of The AIDS Support Organization in Uganda, an organization set up to prevent and control the spread of the disease points to a much more alarming figures. She notes that "AIDS has struck five times as many women as men in the crucial 15-25 year-old age group, with recorded HIV incidence among pre-natal mothers rising from 6 per cent in 1987 to 30 per cent in 1992" (*Bentsi-Enchil, 1992-93:15*). Reports by Kenya's National Aids Control Programme note that about 750,000 to 1 million people in Kenya are HIV positive. The rate among ante-natal mothers is reported as 8.9 per cent. A study in Zaire relates gendered differences in access to resources and the spread of AIDS, a trend which is aggravated during this period of deepening crisis. "Differences in power, wealth and ideology combine to make women more susceptible to infection and less able to negotiate safer sex practices with their partners." In 1987, in Kinshasa alone there were 30 per cent more women than men who were infected with the HIV virus (*Schoepf et al.1991:163-164*).

Female enrolment rates in primary schools are above 90 per cent in Kenya, Equatorial Guinea and Uganda. The lowest enrolment rates are found in Somalia and Ethiopia with 10 and 31 per cent respectively. While the primary enrolment rate is 48 per cent in Guinea Bissau, it is 63 per cent for Tanzania and Burundi and 67 per cent for Zaire.

The only two countries where female secondary enrolment is slightly above 40 per cent are Tanzania with 42 per cent and Kenya with 41 per cent. The other countries indicate a large male-female gap in secondary enrolment rates. An observation made concerning female-male gaps in secondary enrolment in Kenya probably applies to most countries in the cluster. Among the reasons cited were "poor academic performance, being at least two years older than one's peers, experiencing economic hardships." The same author cites the findings of a study on school girls pregnancy which gave an annual figure of 10,000 drop-out. [P.Obura, 1993:95] In recognition of gender specific constraints in school attendance in 1992, the Kenyan government has lowered the university entry point by one for girls. Another new policy allows the re-entry of pregnant and nurturant mothers into the school system. These type of gender sensitive policies are likely to increase female secondary and tertiary enrolments.

Data on women as percentage of women in total higher education is scanty and dated. The UNESCO figures were for 1988. The available data indicates that in countries of cluster 4, by 1992, only Kenya and Tanzania have achieved about 27 per cent of female enrolment in higher education. What is more, women tend to concentrate on a narrow range of subject specialization. In Kenya, it is encouraging to note that, the percentage of women in science in the universities has increased from 14 to 21 per cent from 1980 to 1989 [P.Obura,1993:95].

The overall prospect for girls enrolled and successfully completing secondary school is depressingly low. The economic crisis, structural adjustment programmes, and a narrow labour market have aggravated the problem. Cuts in public expenditure, the implementation

Table 7

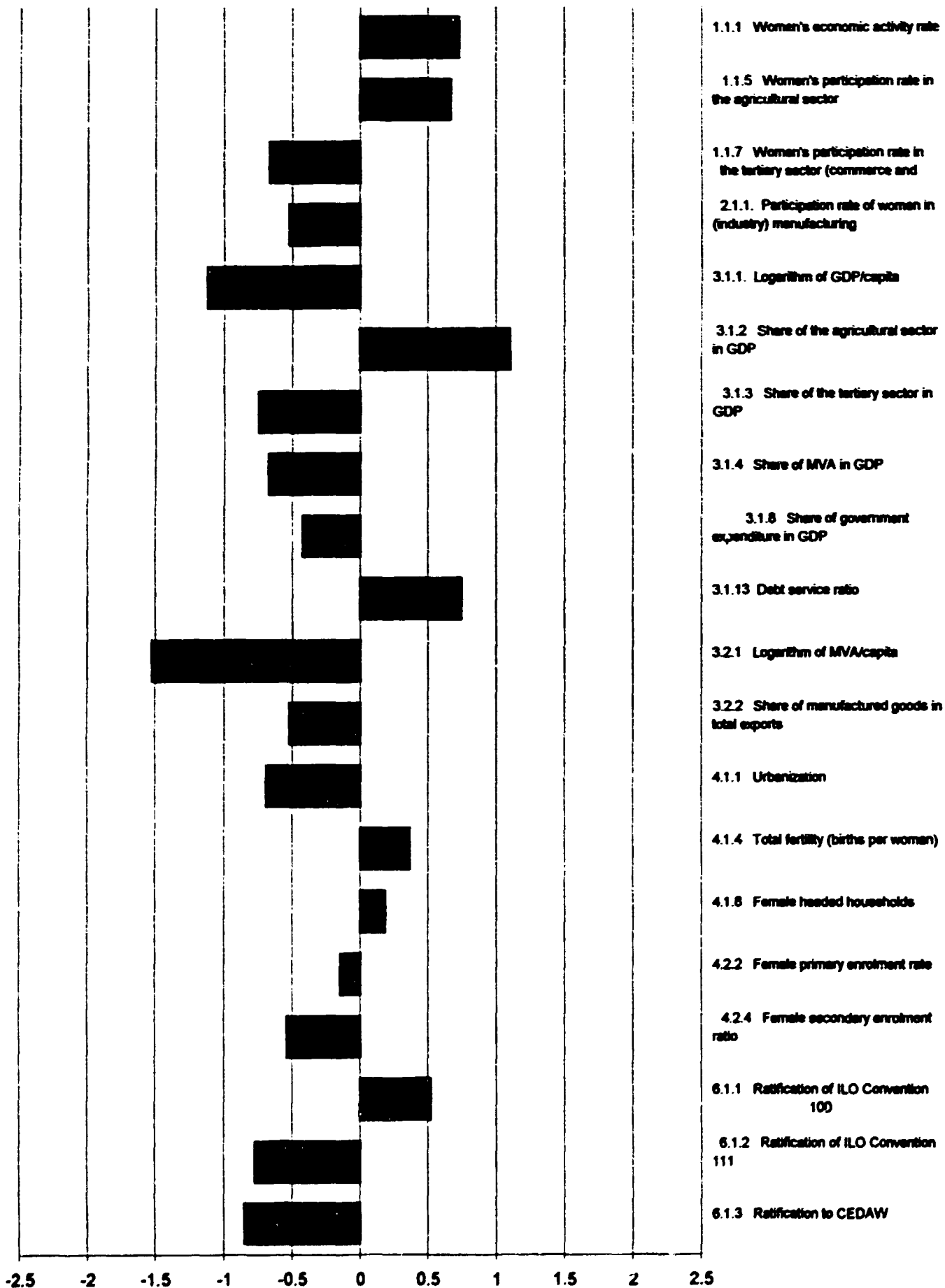
System Characteristics of Cluster 4

Indicator	Kenya	Uganda	Burundi	United Rep. of Tanzania	Zaire	Equatorial Guinea	Ethiopia (Former)	Guinea Bissau	Somalia	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	31.94%	36.69%	48.99%	45.20%	26.96%	33.14%	55.55%	37.37%	33.09%	36.77%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	80.40%	82.00%	97.80%	87.30%	92.50%	76.80%	87.26%	80.00%	83.00%	86.34%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	15.60%	14.50%	1.10%	11.70%	5.50%	18.20%	9.00%	7.50%	15.40%	10.94%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	4.10%	3.60%	1.10%	1.00%	2.00%	5.00%	1.57%	2.50%	1.60%	2.50%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	5.85	5.34	5.37	4.61	4.41	6.00	4.54	5.49	4.54	5.13
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	27.30%	51.43%	50.90%	57.72%	31.44%	49.99%	43.11%	44.19%	68.88%	47.22%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	51.16%	36.81%	31.20%	31.46%	37.38%	40.27%	36.46%	42.44%	16.54%	35.97%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	11.69%	4.26%	12.42%	5.11%	1.37%	0.80%	6.92%	5.49%	2.42%	5.83%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	26.00%	19.63%	20.00%	42.00%	18.00%	21.00%	25.36%	22.00%	7.00%	22.33%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	27.04%	42.68%	34.98%	32.43%	15.03%	9.52%	9.46%	67.14%	12.06%	30.04%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	0.46	-0.56	2.98	1.12	-0.53	1.70	2.12	3.10	0.82	1.24
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	16.39%	1.26%	4.31%	15.39%	30.42%	4.89%	25.32%	2.25%	6.14%	12.04%
4.1.1 Urbanization	25.20%	10.90%	5.80%	35.70%	40.80%	29.40%	12.26%	20.80%	37.90%	24.31%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	6.80	7.30	6.80	7.10	6.10	5.90	6.80	5.80	6.80	6.58
4.1.8 Female headed households	30.00%	36.00%	37.00%	25.00%	30.00%	36.00%	15.50%	10.00%	38.00%	28.61%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	92.00%	91.00%	64.00%	63.00%	67.00%	120.40%	31.07%	42.00%	10.00%	64.50%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	25.00%	9.00%	4.00%	4.00%	17.00%	11.00%	14.52%	5.00%	5.00%	10.50%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	89%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	0%	100%	0%	33%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	22%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)										
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.20	0.17	0.05	0.05	0.28	0.20	0.24	0.18	0.18	0.17
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	-0.03	-0.01	-0.07	-0.07	-0.29	-0.29	-0.05	-0.12	-0.15	-0.12
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	-0.04	-0.09	0.79	0.18	0.64	0.32	0.19	0.50	0.20	0.30
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.43	0.37	0.66	0.77	0.84	0.63	0.14	0.41	0.81	0.56
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.14	0.25	0.16	0.04	0.13	0.36	0.34	0.25	-0.15	0.17
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.18	0.31	0.23	0.15	0.36	0.52	0.14	0.36	0.30	0.28

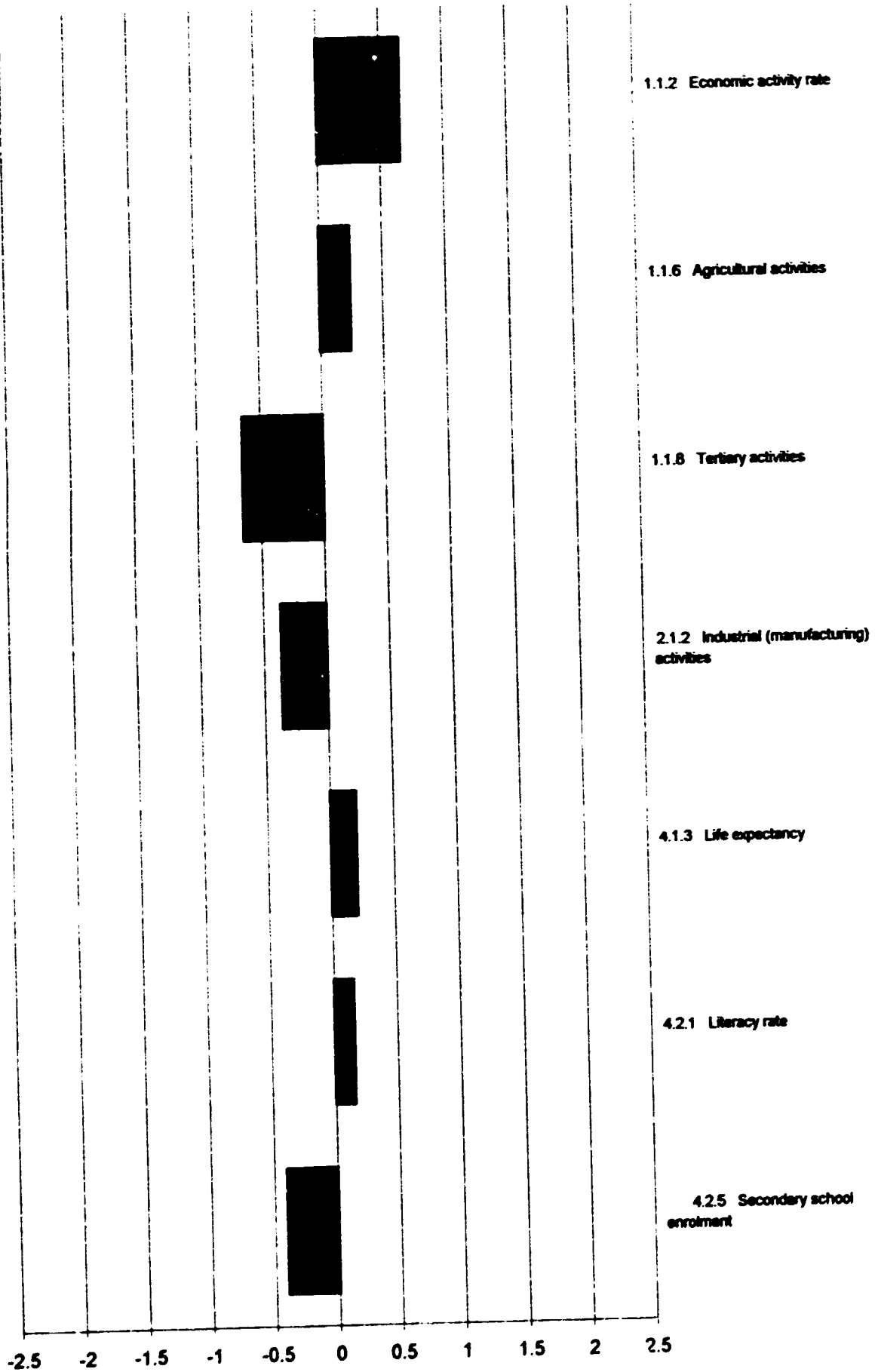
Figure 15

CLUSTER CHARACTERISTICS

Cluster 4: Kenya, Uganda, Burundi, United Republic of Tanzania, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia (Former), Guinea-Bissau, and Somalia



MF-DISPARITIES
Cluster 4: Kenya, Uganda, Burundi, United Republic of Tanzania, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia (Former), Guinea-Bissau, Somalia



of cost recovery in a context of a growing absolute poverty and the phenomena of unemployed graduates has meant a significant drop in enrolment as well as the deterioration of the quality of education. Given the current gender gap in women's employment in the tertiary, and manufacturing sector of countries in cluster 4, the declining enrolment rates will further limit women's opportunities for employment.

Women's political involvement represented in terms of percentage of women in parliament and cabinet posts varies among the different countries. In 1992, the percentage of women occupying seats in parliament was 13 in Uganda and Guinea-Bissau, 11 in Tanzania, 10 in Burundi, 5 in Zaire and 3 in Kenya. With the exception of Kenya and Somalia, most countries in Cluster 4 have not ratified the CEDAW. In the broader sense of political participation, a trend worthy of note is the growth in the number and diversity of women's professional association and pressure groups lobbying for the advancement of women's rights. In almost all countries in cluster 4, there are now Associations of Women Lawyers, Association of Women Entrepreneurs, and other NGO's principally concerned with women's rights and access to resources. In the context of democratization that is widely debated in the countries in cluster 4, women are defining and lobbying for gender specific changes needed to sustain democratic culture. (*See Kabira et.al., 1993, for debates in Kenya*)

Cluster 5: Countries with high participation of women in manufacturing and tertiary sector (Morocco, Tunisia, Cape Verde, Egypt, Algeria, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya) (table 8, figures 18 and 19)

The economic and industrial environment of countries in this cluster, with the exception of Cape Verde, is characterized by a relatively high per capita GDP, a general decline in contributions of agriculture to GDP and growth of export-oriented labour intensive manufacturing. All the five countries of the Maghreb are classified as middle-income countries by the United Nations. However the 1994 World Development Report has classified Egypt as a low-income country. While Cape Verde belongs to the Economic Community of West African States, the remaining 5 countries are members of the Arab Maghreb Union. There are significant variations even among countries of the Maghreb, a sub region which is one of the most geographically and culturally homogenous. Libya and Algeria, the two countries with the highest GNP per capita, depend on oil as their principal export. Tunisia, Egypt, and Morocco export labour to oil rich Middle Eastern Countries and Europe. While remittances make a sizable contribution to the economies of these three countries, it is the growth and export of manufactured goods that has been the engine of economic growth. The share of manufactured goods in total exports is highest in Tunisia with 69 per cent followed by 52 per cent in Morocco and 31 percent in Egypt. In Algeria and Libya, export of manufactured goods is negligible. Cape Verde, a coastal island in West Africa exports labour mostly to United States and, to a lesser degree, to Europe and neighbouring countries like Senegal. The share of manufactured goods in total exports of Cape Verde is about 19 per cent, a much high rate than Algeria and Libya.

A common feature of all the countries in this cluster, is the high share of the tertiary sector in GDP. This sector includes transport, tourism, hotels, social and financial services, wholesale and retail trade. On the other hand the share of agriculture is much less than that of the contribution of the tertiary sector. In Algeria and Libya, it is less than 10 per cent.

Table 8

System Characteristics of Cluster 5

Indicator	Morocco	Tunisia	Cape Verde	Egypt	Algeria	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	12.89%	15.23%	20.94%	5.48%	4.17%	4.58%	10.51%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	29.20%	20.60%	20.40%	13.00%	5.00%	25.80%	19.00%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	33.40%	26.40%	55.60%	66.30%	69.60%	52.40%	50.62%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	37.50%	53.00%	24.00%	20.70%	25.40%	21.80%	30.40%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	6.57	7.34	6.11	6.37	7.77	8.53	7.11
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	16.05%	19.27%	20.73%	18.58%	6.56%	7.53%	14.79%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	52.44%	48.56%	49.71%	50.46%	41.23%	44.15%	47.43%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	17.83%	17.19%	6.12%	11.16%	11.67%	7.93%	11.98%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	21.00%	41.00%	19.60%	52.00%	23.00%	37.00%	32.27%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	31.40%	22.53%	11.18%	20.52%	71.92%	5.21%	27.13%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	5.34	5.47	4.11	4.76	4.89	6.45	5.17
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	54.17%	68.85%	19.26%	30.66%	2.18%	5.34%	30.08%
4.1.1 Urbanization	49.40%	55.10%	30.00%	48.10%	53.30%	71.70%	51.27%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	4.20	3.40	5.30	4.00	4.90	6.70	4.75
4.1.8 Female headed households	17.00%	10.00%	40.00%	30.00%	20.00%	11.00%	21.33%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	52.36%	107.00%	103.60%	89.00%	90.00%	121.00%	93.83%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	29.00%	42.00%	16.00%	73.00%	53.00%	86.20%	49.87%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	0%	100%	100%	100%	0%	100%	67%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)							
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.59	0.63	0.43	0.80	0.82	0.83	0.68
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	0.15	0.12	0.45	0.54	0.68	-0.41	0.28
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	-0.02	0.12	-0.49	-0.34	-0.25	0.03	-0.16
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	-0.14	-0.14	0.08	0.06	0.11	0.21	0.03
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.03	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.02
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.12	0.07	0.21	0.18	0.11	0.16	0.14
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.19	0.14	-0.01	0.12	0.13	0.20	0.13

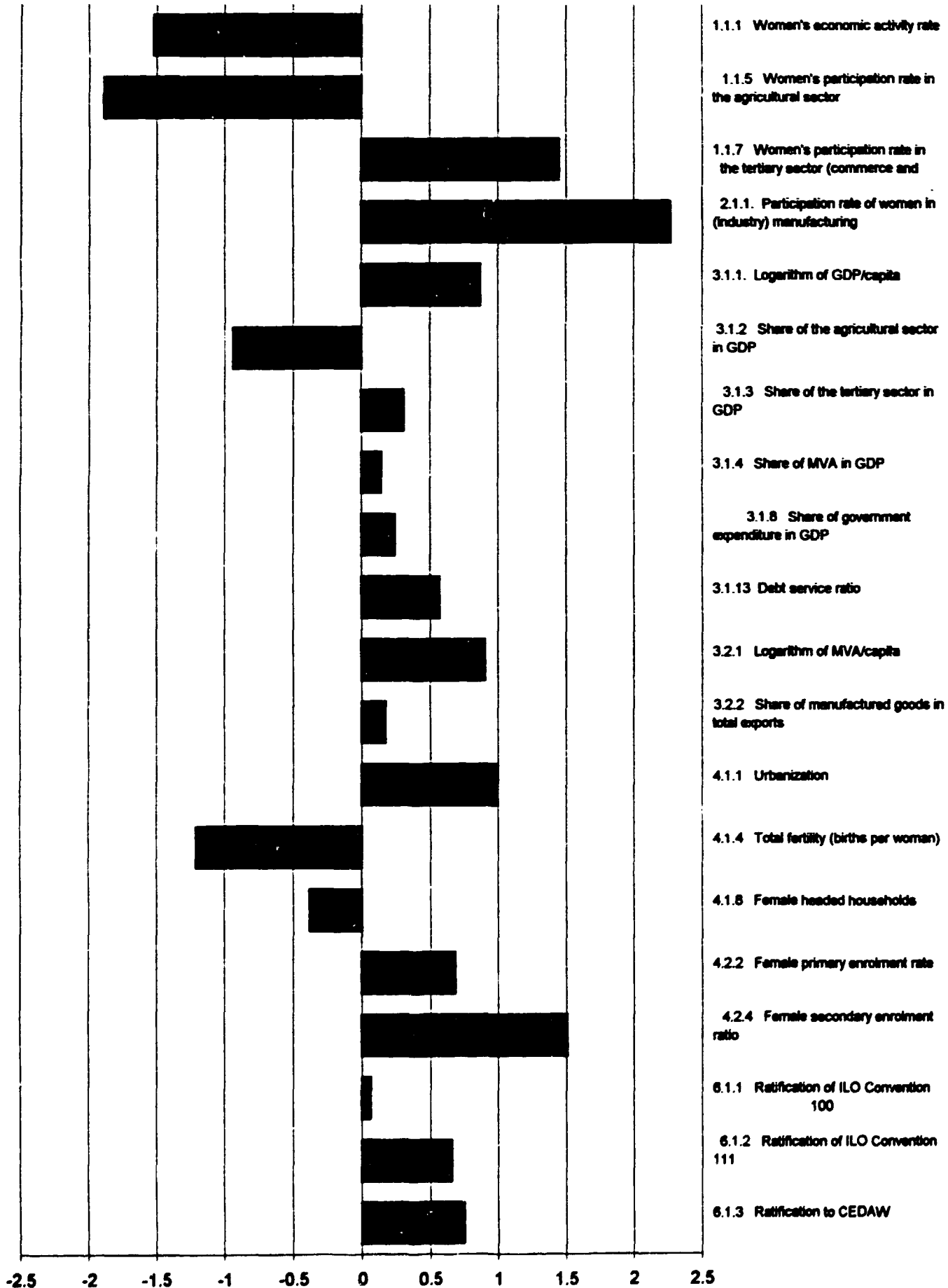
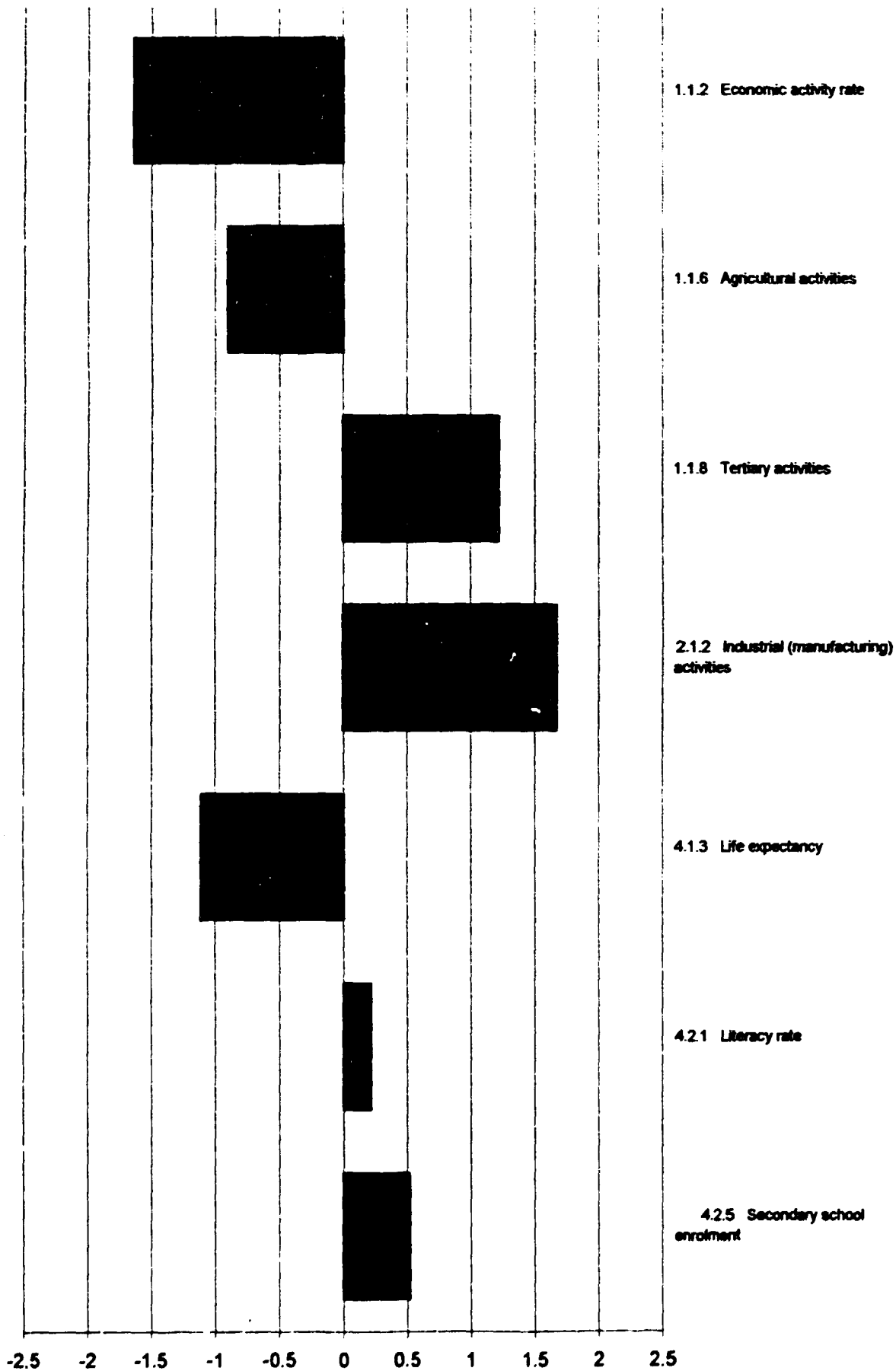


Figure 18

M/F-DISPARITIES

Cluster 5: Morocco, Tunisia, Cape Verde, Egypt, Algeria, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya



The highest share of the Agricultural sector in GDP is found in Cape Verde with an approximate rate of 21 per cent.

In terms of women's share in the labour force, the most prominent feature of this cluster is the relatively high share of women in the formal sector particularly in tertiary and manufacturing. As far as the North African countries, particularly Tunisia, Morocco and Egypt, are concerned in the last 25 years, women's labour force participation has grown much faster than that of men. In Egypt and Morocco, women's activity rate increased by 45 per cent and in Tunisia, it increased by 118 per cent (*Moghadam, 1993:20*). In these three countries women's employment is in the private sector (*Bin Sultan, 1991:7*).

The manufacturing sector predominantly consists of agro-industrial enterprises, textiles and ready-made clothing (*UNDP, 1990*). These sectors employ more women than men. The agro-industrial sector employs both permanent and seasonal workers most of whom are female. In Morocco seasonal workers are about 20 per cent of the total number of those employed in agro-industry (*UNIDO, 1991:22*). Similarly, "in Tunisia, women in the manufacturing sector are more likely than men to be employed in seasonal industries such as food processing, and therefore find themselves unemployed for most of the year" (*Moghadam, 1993:23*).

Numerous socio-economic and cultural factors which are global, regional, and country-specific in nature contributed to this phenomenal increase in female employment. In the 1960's the major causal factor in the increase of female paid employment was the expansion of the public sector and the policy of import-substitution industrialization. In Egypt and Algeria, the economy was heavily controlled by the state and was guided by central planning. In Morocco and Tunisia, the private sector and foreign investment played significant roles in the economy. Moreover these two countries adopted the strategy of manufacturing for export. Both types of development strategy opened up employment opportunities for women in the civil service, and in the manufacturing sector.

In the 1970, the major determinants in the supply for female labour were the continued expansion of the public sector and the oil boom which triggered a massive process of male migration. The expansion of health, educational and welfare services, "were conducive to greater work participation by women" and tended to "encourage female activity in the public sphere" (*Moghadam, 1990:21*). Male migration created labour supply shortages and increased the demand for female labour. A third factor which was conducive to the increase in female employment was 'a favourable policy climate' and gender aware legislation. In Egypt, the Nasser administration provided for guaranteed public sector employment for all graduates with at least a secondary school education (*Moghadam, 1993:23*). In Algeria, the Constitution of 1976 prohibited discrimination on the basis of sex.

The best example of legislative support for women's rights is found in the Comprehensive Constitutional and Civil Code of Tunisia. Promulgated in 1956, the Personal Status Code abolished polygamy and gave women the right to choose a husband. Divorce was no longer the sole initiative of men as both spouses were guaranteed the right to legal divorce. Minimum age of marriage was fixed at 17. Women have the right of custody of children and since 1981, in case of the father's death, a woman automatically has the guardianship of the children. Furthermore there is now a law which guarantees equal right to employment,

tenure and remuneration. The legal age of majority is 20 years for both men and women. Primary school attendance is obligatory for both sexes. Women have the right to sign contracts, to buy and enjoy the use of their assets. The import and distribution of contraceptives is authorized as is abortion under certain conditions (*Baffoun, 1994 ; Secretary of State to the Prime Minister in Charge of Women in Family Affairs in Tunisia, 1993*).

In the 1980s, the increase in women's unemployment can be attributed to the economic recession which has greatly affected all countries in Cluster 5 and to the accelerated rate of the globalization of female labour through the relocation of Training Need Centres. Economic recession and the responses to it such as Structural Adjustment Programmes has meant significant cuts in public employment and expenditures, substantive cuts in wages, removal of subsidies and a growing debt-burden. These trends have increased the need for women to earn income but have limited the opportunities for employment. The unemployment rate is high for both men and women. However the rates are higher for women and women constitute a relatively large portion of the underemployed (*Moghadam, 1993:23*).

These economic trends together with a persistent cultural attitudes concerning 'Suitable work' for women have increased women's participation in the informal sector. Unlike women in Sub-saharan Africa, in the Maghreb, most of women's informal sector activity takes place at home. These activity predominantly entails the production of handicraft and garments, "Craftswomanship" at home often involves children ,other women of the family and neighbours in the production process. In the case of carpet weaving in Morocco, official permits are required in order to sell the produce and taxes are levied on the carpets. However, census data and other statistics on the labour force does not include craftswomen nor their assistants (*UNIDO, 1992: 12*).

In the last decade or so, home-based workers have been increasingly linked to manufacturing production through the practice of contracting out of piece work. Firms supply raw materials to home-based workers who then complete one or several steps in the production process. On collecting the finished product, the firm pays the produces on piece rate basis. In most cases, labour laws do not protect homeworkers (*Moghadam, 1993:24*). In general, home-based work, or informal sector activities conceal the magnitude of income earned by both the growing number of female-headed households and married women whose spouses are unemployed or earn inadequate income to support the household. In the face of an emergent conservative ideology, the more acceptable myth of the 'male breadwinner' tends to be reinforced.

Another sector in which the participation rates of women is substantive but which is not accurately captured by national census or statistics is female participation rate in agriculture. Accelerated international and rural urban male migration has resulted in an increasing responsibility for rural women most of whom are de facto heads of households. The female labour force participation in agriculture is reported to be high. It is highest in Morocco followed by Egypt, Algeria and Tunisia. Official neglect of women's contribution to agriculture and the consequences thereof resemble that of other african countries. Rural women lack access to productive resources such as land, credit, technology , other productive inputs and extension services. Consequently, there is growing evidence of ruralization and feminization of poverty (*EL Bakri, 1990: 30; UNDP, 1990:16*).

With the onset of the economic crisis of the 1980's, the phase of feminization of urban employment has been faced with a number of constraints. In countries of cluster 5, the major manifestation of the crisis is the rapid growth of unemployment. The socio-economic and political responses have triggered a growing debate on the legitimacy of women's employment in the face of wide spread male unemployment and declining male wages. In the context of stabilization and structural adjustment on the policy front, and religious fundamentalism as a vocal ideological current in the countries of the Maghreb, women's employment is fraught with a number of difficulties. Thus far, the concrete manifestation of an emergent political climate which privileges and legitimizes the importance of a male breadwinner is the 1984 Family Code of Algeria. The Code emphasizes women's homemaking vocation and men's responsibility for the provision of their families.

The reduction in public sector employment limits job opportunities for educated women. On the other hand the acceleration of export-led strategies with emphasis on industries such as textiles, garments, agribusiness and agro-processing are likely to increase the demand for cheap female labour in Tunisia, Morocco and Egypt.

The social and demographic environment of countries in cluster 5 underscores the triangular relationships between economic growth, social and female economic role. Although there are variations between countries the overall demographic trend are declining fertility, higher life expectancy and growing urbanization. In terms of fertility decline, the exception is Libya where fertility rate is still high. On the other hand, in Tunisia, the decrease in fertility and birth rates during the last two decades has been "dramatic" (*Moghadam, 1993:16*). In all countries of this cluster, there is a rise in the age of marriage for females but the rise is highest in Tunisia. All countries of cluster 5 have a higher female life expectancy than males, the highest of 67.9 being for Cape Verde.

Another demographic trend with implications for women's economic activity is the change in household structure and composition in countries of cluster 5. The socio-economic transformation have triggered the growth of women-headed or women maintained households. While fragmentary data exists under the general rubric of female-headed households, indicating changes in the composition of households, there is hardly any data on female headship by economic responsibility. Female headship by household composition indicates the absence of an adult male due to migration, divorce, separation or death. Data on female headship by economic responsibility indicates households in which the women is the sole or main economic provider whether a man is or is not present (*INSTRAW, 1984*). In most countries of cluster 5, women-headed households are probably much more statistically significant. In "Moroccan cities, a women heads one in four households" and "in Egypt 30 percent of households are maintained by women". In Cape Verde, the percentage of female-headed household is reported to be 40 per cent but given the rate of male migration, it is probably much higher.

In the social sphere impressive gains have been made in all countries of cluster 5. The most significant progress is the growth in female primary school enrolment. The lowest primary enrolment rate and the widest gender gap is found in Morocco. In addition to overall economic growth, other explanatory factors for the phenomenal increase in primary school enrolment includes a favourable policy climate towards girls education, the growth in urbanization and changes in parental attitude in favour of girls education (*Moghadam,*

1993:18; Ben Sultan, 1990:3-4). Countries in cluster 5 have also achieved significant progress in female secondary enrolment ratio although it is rather low in Cape Verde and again in Morocco. The data on female tertiary enrolment is rather fragmentary and outdated. The Human Development Report of 1994 indicates that the last year for which gross female tertiary enrolment ratio is available was 1990. The ratio was highest in Libya with 15.3 per cent followed by 12 per cent in Egypt, 7.3 per cent in Morocco and a relatively low per cent of 6.8 in Tunisia.

The female literacy rate is low and the gender gap is rather wide in all countries of cluster 5. As for vocational training, in countries of the Maghreb, there are only few schools that offer vocational training for girls and the training tends to focus on nontechnical skills such as sewing, dressmaking, secretarial/commercial skills (*UNIDO, 1991:28*)

In the political environment, the representation of women in both cabinet and the parliament is very low in countries of cluster 5. In 1991, in Algeria, out of 24 cabinet posts, only 2 were held by women and these were the minister of Youth and the Ministry of Health. In Egypt there was one Minister of Social Insurance and another of Social Affairs out of 27 cabinet posts. In Libya, out of a total of 6 cabinet posts one was held by a women. There were no female Ministers in Tunisia and Morocco (*Boker-Sarr, 1991*). As for parliamentary seats occupied by women, in 1992, the highest number was found in Algeria with 10 per cent, 7 per cent in Cape Verde, 4 per cent in Tunisia, 2 percent in Egypt, and 1 per cent in Morocco (*Human Development Report, 1994:144*). The index for the ratification of CEDAW Conventions is very high for all countries of cluster 5.

Cluster 6 Countries with high GDP and MVA per capita, low participation of women in agriculture but high participation rate in the tertiary sector (Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa). (*Table 9, Figures 19, 20*)

The triangular relationship between the level of economic/industrial development, social and demographic changes and female economic role are most apparent in this group of countries. It is interesting that South Africa which is considered the most developed country on the African continent and last to obtain majority rule belongs to this cluster. The explanation lies in the long history of an apartheid system which prevented the majority of the population from a full participation in the economic development as well as sharing its benefits. Women's advancement has been affected not only by sex but also race discrimination. In spite of this, the composite data for all races reflecting the determinants of women's economic/industrial participation are similar to those in the other two countries in the cluster.

The economic activity rate of women has increased in all three countries during the last decade. In Mauritius and Seychelles the increase amounted to almost 5 per cent between 1980 and 1990. Although in South Africa the increase was only 1 per cent, the female participation rate is still the highest and the gender gap is the lowest out of the three countries. The cluster as a whole has the lowest female participation rate in agriculture but the highest participation rate in services. The service sector (trade, commerce, tourism, domestic work and social and financial services) is the most important sector of women's activities. The proportion of economically active female population in manufacturing activities has increased most rapidly

in Seychelles between 1980 and 1990 and the cluster as a whole has much higher participation rates than any other cluster of countries in the Sub-Saharan region.

Mauritius and Seychelles have also experienced large advances in women's access to formal sector wage employment and there has been a steady increase in the female proportion in the industrial labour force during the 1980s. A survey of 1993 revealed that seventy four per cent of the economically active female population in Mauritius were employed, comprising about 46 per cent of the total employed labour force (*Ministry of Economic Planning and Development 1993*). About 55 per cent of the employed women are working in the textile industry. In South Africa, the economic stagnation in the 1980s has adversely affected the growth of employment opportunities. The major increases in female employment occurred in the 1970s. In 1991, women comprised about 43 per cent of employed labour force (excluding self employed) and accounted for almost 30 per cent of the manufacturing employment (*O'Regan & Thompson, 1993*). There has also been a steady increase in women's representation in professional and managerial occupational categories in both, South Africa and Mauritius. In South Africa, women occupied about 30 per cent of professional posts (excluding nursing and teaching professions) and almost 20 per cent of administrative and managerial posts in 1991 (*O'Regan & Thompson, 1993*).

Whereas the economies in Seychelles and Mauritius were expanding during the 1980s, the economic growth stagnated in South Africa. In 1992 the GDP per capita in South Africa was about the same as in Mauritius but about one half of the level in Seychelles. The tertiary sector (commerce, transport, banking insurance, tourism, domestic services) is the most important economic sector in all three countries. The contribution of agriculture to GDP in this cluster is the lowest of the seven clusters. The contribution of the manufacturing sector to GDP is a double the regional average in Mauritius and South Africa. The average annual growth rate of the manufacturing sector was 11 per cent in Mauritius but -0.1 in South Africa between 1980-1991 (WB Development report 1993). Although the manufacturing sector in Seychelles is smaller, there are signs of expansion and diversification.

In Mauritius, the share of manufactured products in total exports has grown considerably during the 1980s and has now replaced the traditional importance of the sugar sector. In 1990, almost half of Mauritius' exports consisted of apparel and clothing produced mainly in the export processing zone which was first established in 1971 and is the oldest of its kind in Africa. After 20 years in existence, the EPZ has become the most important engine of economic and employment growth. It employs over 90 000 workers of which 70 per cent are women and accounts for over 65 per cent of gross export earnings (*Commonwealth Secretariat, 1992*). South Africa's manufactured exports are more diversified but account for smaller proportion of total exports which are still dominated by the mineral sector. In Seychelles where manufacture exports are still low, processed fish is an important export commodity and the industry is an important employer of female labour.

The demographic and social indicators have improved considerably in all three countries. The female life expectancy in the three countries is one of the highest and the fertility rates in Mauritius and Seychelles are the lowest in Africa. The fertility rate in South Africa is much higher but still below the regional average. Total primary school enrolments are over 100 per cent in this cluster and so are the female enrolment rates, except Seychelles. Seychelles also lacks behind the other two countries in the female secondary school enrolment rates which

Table 9

System Characteristics of Cluster 6

Indicator	Mauritius	Seychelles	South Africa	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	19.49%	20.59%	33.68%	24.59%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	22.50%	7.10%	7.24%	12.28%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	62.80%	71.90%	70.02%	68.24%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	14.80%	21.40%	8.92%	15.04%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	7.81	8.45	7.97	8.08
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	10.95%	5.66%	4.66%	7.09%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	55.74%	73.66%	44.68%	58.09%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	23.32%	11.95%	22.96%	19.41%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	28.00%	60.00%	34.00%	40.67%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	8.13%	7.07%	1.00%	5.40%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	6.30	6.36	6.49	6.39
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	62.31%	0.06%	31.67%	31.35%
4.1.1 Urbanization	40.50%	70.50%	49.21%	53.40%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	1.90	2.80	5.49	3.40
4.1.8 Female headed households	19.00%	10.00%	45.00%	24.67%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	130.93%	94.00%	105.00%	109.98%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	58.00%	29.80%	45.00%	43.60%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	100%	100%	0%	67%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	0%	0%	0%	0%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	0%	0%	0%	0%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)				
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.49	0.44	0.26	0.40
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	0.02	0.26	0.46	0.25
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	-0.12	-0.18	0.01	-0.09
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.29	0.29	0.42	0.33
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.05	-0.06	-0.05	-0.05
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	0.07	-0.04	0.01	0.01
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.03

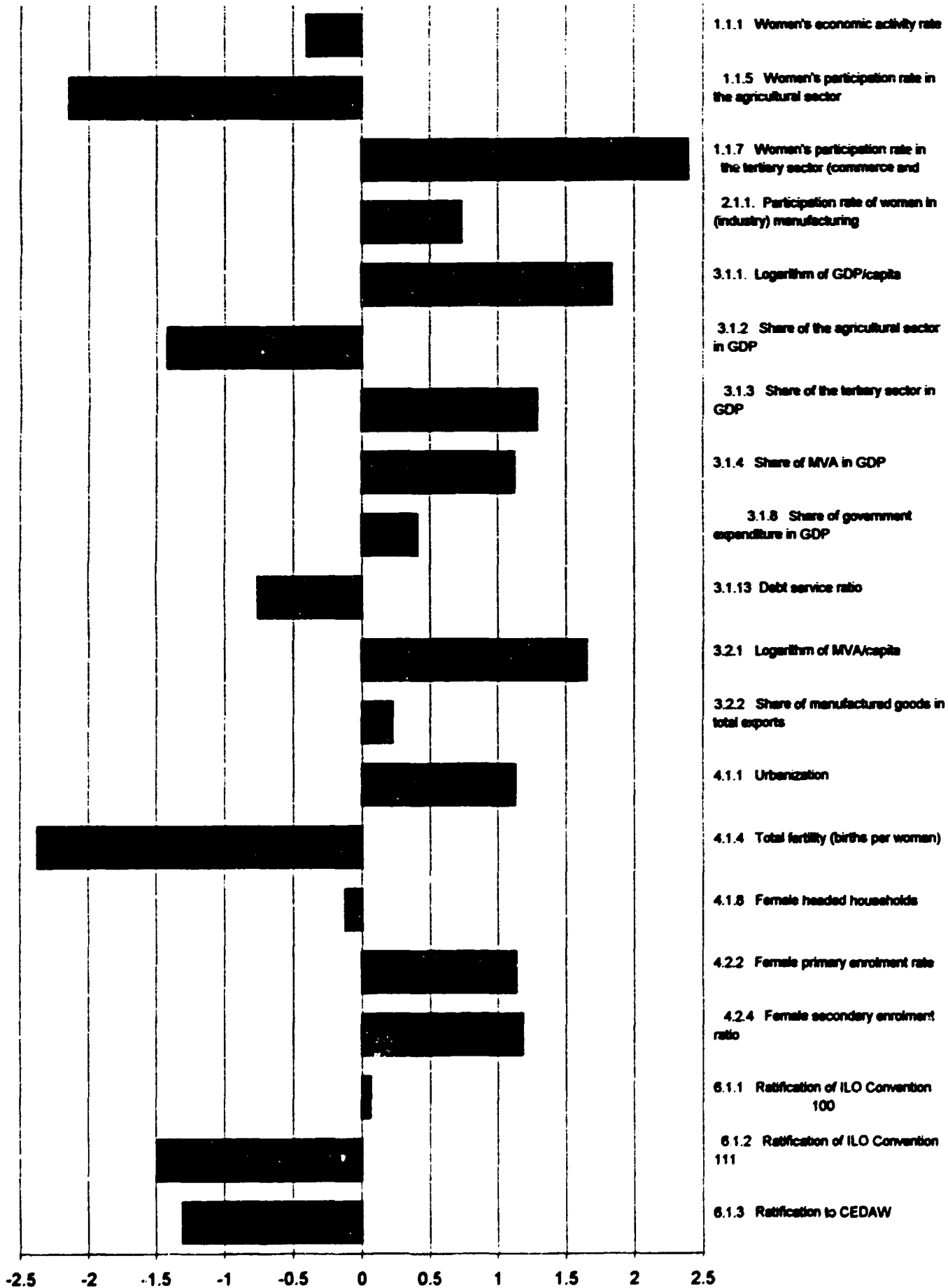
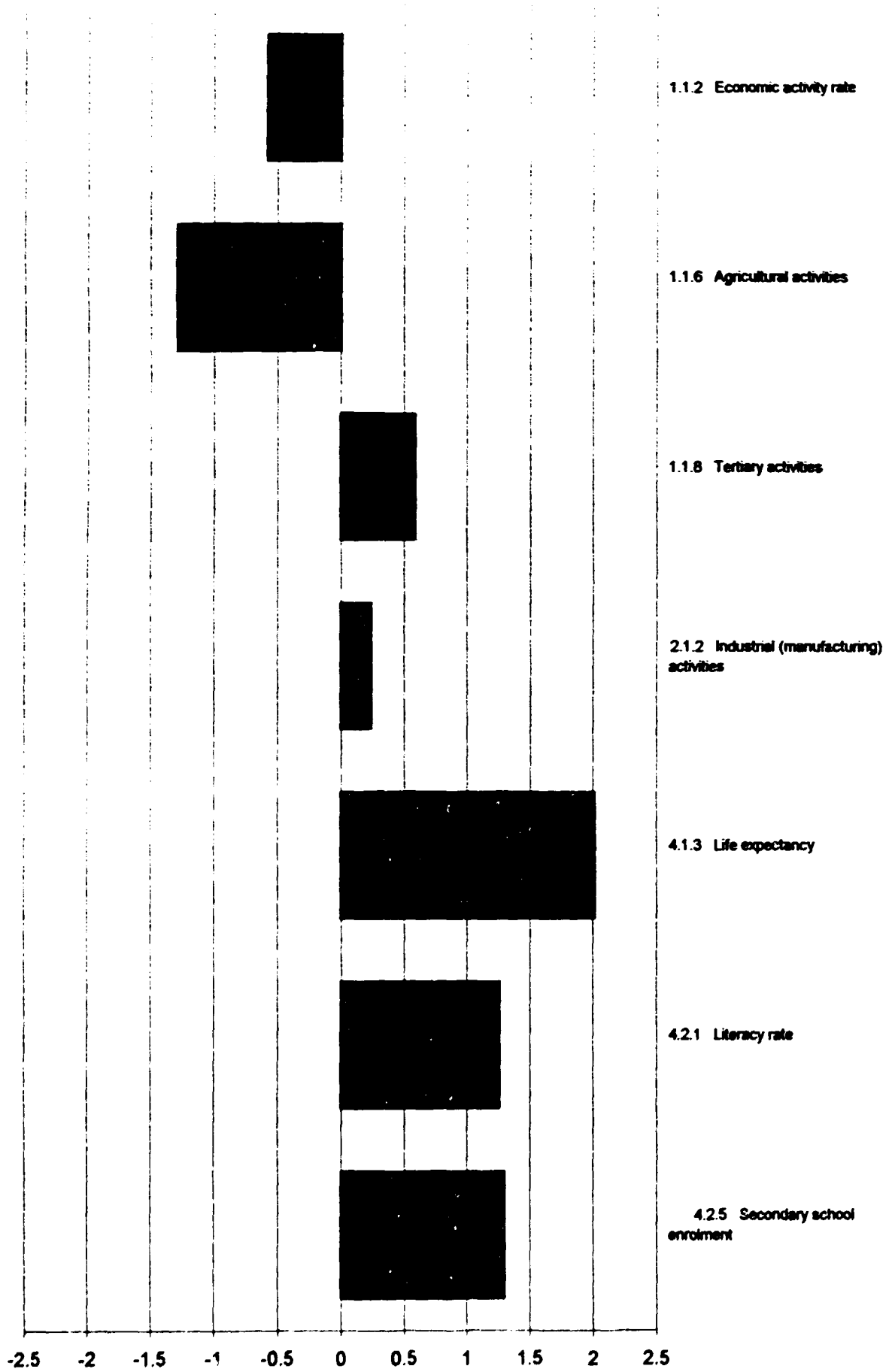


Figure 20

M/F-DISPARITIES
Cluster 6: Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa



are higher than male enrolment rates. However, male enrolment rates are higher at the tertiary level in all three countries.

Political participation of women, expressed as a percentage of women in parliament, varies considerably among the three countries. In 1991, female parliamentary representation was 16 per cent in Seychelles, 7 per cent in Mauritius and only 3 per cent in South Africa. The relatively high percentage of women in the Seychelles' National Assembly is mainly a result of the socialistic oriented policy of the previous government. On the other hand, the low representation of women in South African Parliament in 1991 is attributed to the policy of the apartheid system which denied voting rights to the majority of the country's population. After the change of government in 1994, women increased their share in parliament to almost 25 per cent and secured 2 posts as cabinet ministers.

The new government in South Africa has also appointed a Cabinet Committee on Women and a White Paper is in preparation to formulate policies and propose institutional structures to promote women's economic and social advancement. In Mauritius, the government set up a National Women's Council in 1985. The Council acts as a focal point for all issues concerning women and coordinates activities of 400 women's organizations involved in cultural, religious, social and economic activities. None of the three countries in the cluster is a signatory to neither the convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, neither the ILO convention on Discrimination in Employment and Occupation.

Cluster 7 Southern African countries with a moderate female economic activity rate but relatively high representation of women in manufacturing wage employment, high male labour force migration, and high female school enrolments (Botswana, Namibia and Lesotho). (Table 10, Figures 21 and 22)

This cluster is one of the most geographically, economically and culturally homogeneous clusters. Although Lesotho is the least developed of the three countries there are distinct similarities in the economic and social status of women in this group. The proportion of the de facto female headed households is 40 per cent in Botswana and 36 per cent in Namibia and 25 per cent in Lesotho. This high percentage is mainly a result of a traditional practice where a large number of the male economically active population migrates to South African in search of work, mainly in mines. In Namibia, it was the migration from the previous homeland territories to mines both in Namibia and South Africa. All three countries in this group are members of the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) which makes their economies closely related to that of South Africa. However, their membership in the sub-regional organization, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), has had much less economic impact so far.

Female economic activity rates in Botswana and Namibia are somewhat lower than the average for the region as a whole but the rate is much higher in Lesotho. In Botswana and Lesotho, 75-80 per cent of female economically active population is engaged in agriculture, mainly subsistence farming. In Namibia, the tertiary sector is the women's domain. All three countries have a hostile geographical and climatic environment with large desert areas in Namibia and Botswana, and high mountains in Lesotho. The unpredictable weather conditions and shortage of arable land makes agricultural production very difficult and dependency on

food imports from South Africa is very high. Contribution of the agricultural sector to GDP is low, 6 per cent in Botswana, 10 per cent in Namibia and 16 per cent in Lesotho.

Judging by GDP per capita, Botswana and Namibia should rang among the middle-income level countries. However, because of the unequal distribution of income they fall, together with Lesotho, in the UN category of least developed countries. None of the three countries is faced with the external debt problem to the degree experienced by most Sub-Saharan countries, and so far escaped the necessity of implementing the WB/IMF financed structural adjustment regime. This does not mean that structural changes which would reduce rural poverty and diversify domestic production and exports are not necessary.

Economies of all three countries are based on capital intensive mining industries and livestock production both of which are the men domain. The tertiary sector, including government services, contributes the largest share to GDP. In Lesotho and Botswana the government is the single largest provider of wage employment in general and to women in particular. In Namibia, the private sector is in the lead. During the 1980s, contrary to the experience of other African countries, the manufacturing sector has been growing steadily, although to lesser degree in Namibia. Nonetheless, the sector's contribution to GDP is still small. In Botswana and Lesotho conscious efforts were made by the government to support industrial development by attracting foreign investment and putting emphasis on labour intensive production to solve raising unemployment problems. This policy has also been adopted by the post independence government in Namibia.

As a result of this policies, the manufacturing labour force has been increasing by almost 10 per cent annually in the last decade in Botswana, and by about 8 per cent in Lesotho between 1985-1990. In Namibia, the growth has been much less but with the recent developments of the fisheries sector new employment opportunities are expected to grow substantially. Manufacturing has become the third largest wage employer in the three countries. Although commerce and services are still more important for female wage employment, women constituted 37 per cent of total manufacturing employment (2.1.11) in Botswana and about 10 per cent in Namibia in 1992 (*UNIDO 1993 and 1994*). In Lesotho, which has the highest rate of male economically active population outside the country (traditionally 30 per cent of male labour force), women constituted as much as 63 per cent of the manufacturing labour force in 1986 (*ILO 1994a*).

The general pattern of women's occupational and employment status is similar in all three countries. Women are mainly found in semi-skilled jobs in export oriented textile factories and to a lesser extent in food processing plants. Their wages are generally much lower than those of men. In Botswana, women's salaries are on average two thirds of those for men with similar educational background. The percentage of manufactured goods in total exports is still low in Botswana and Namibia due to the large export dependence on high value minerals. Data in Table 10 appear large (3.2.2) for these 2 countries most probably due to the inclusion under this item of semi-processed minerals and live-stock. In Lesotho, the presence of loose foot export oriented foreign enterprises, especially textiles, has boosted the share of manufactures in total exports above the level in the other two countries. However, the conditions of female employees in the industry are in sharp contrast with the country's labour code.

The demographic and social environment in the three countries has been, to a large extent, influenced by the migratory pattern of male labour force. Although the population in the countries is relatively small compared to other African countries of similar sizes, the population growth is high, especially in Botswana and Namibia. Women outnumber men not only in the total population but also in primary and secondary school enrolments. In Lesotho, female students also outnumber male students in technical and vocational schools and the university. In Botswana and Namibia, high teenage pregnancies prevent, to a large extent, continuation of secondary and higher education for a large proportion of women (*UNICEF/Botswana 1993, UNFPA/Namibia 1994*). In Namibia, the secondary school retention rate for female students was about 14 per cent compared to almost 20 per cent of male students in 1991. By the age of 17 almost 19 per cent of females have begun child bearing and by the age of 19 about 45 per cent are already mothers or expecting a child. Thus whereas boys miss school earlier due to herding duties and later migration, the ones who stay in school outnumber female students at higher levels.

Women's political involvement represented in terms of percentage of women in parliament is 7 per cent in Namibia, 5 per cent in Botswana, and 2 per cent in Lesotho. In spite of the highly democratic constitutions in Namibia and Botswana and the recognition of the important contribution women make to the economic and social development of these countries only 2 out of twenty ministerial posts are filled by women in Namibia and a similar number in Botswana. Lesotho is a monarchy and has a less gender sensitive constitution. In spite of the high visibility of women in all spheres of life, women are hardly found at the top of policy decision making organs. The adherence to discriminatory systems of customary and Roman-Dutch laws has a great influence on the social status of women in all three countries. None of these countries is a signatory to CEDAW and only Namibia has ratified the ILO convention on equal remuneration. However, none has signed the convention on equality in employment and occupations.

The subordination to men, whether by custom or by law, is one of the most fundamental causes of gender inequalities in the three societies. Women are treated as minors which affects their property rights, inheritance, child custody and access to land and credits. Because women in these countries are much more visible and have achieved much more in terms of gaining access to educational and employment opportunities than women in many other African countries, the cultural and law biases makes the inequalities in these three countries greater. This illustrates the importance of a balance between the different systems affecting women's economic role for the full realization of the female human resource potential. In spite of government policies and established machineries to deal with women's issues, women constitute the majority of the rural poor whose even basic needs have not yet been met in neither of the three countries.

Table 10

System Characteristics of Cluster 7

Indicator	Lesotho	Botswana	Namibia	Means
1.1.1 Women's economic activity rate	40.12%	23.29%	13.28%	25.56%
1.1.5 Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector	81.40%	75.50%	46.50%	67.80%
1.1.7 Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector	14.30%	20.30%	51.00%	28.53%
2.1.1 Participation rate of women in (industry) manufacturing	4.30%	4.40%	2.50%	3.73%
3.1.1 Logarithm GDP/capita	5.79	7.85	7.18	6.94
3.1.2 Share of the agricultural sector in GDP	16.06%	5.69%	10.81%	10.85%
3.1.3 Share of the tertiary sector in GDP	48.17%	30.27%	50.60%	43.01%
3.1.4 Share of MVA in GDP	15.94%	4.58%	4.09%	8.20%
3.1.8 Share of government expenditure in GDP	41.00%	45.00%	35.00%	40.33%
3.1.13 Debt service ratio	5.30%	3.27%	2.82%	3.80%
3.2.1 Logarithm of MVA/capita	4.06	4.83	4.14	4.34
3.2.2 Share of manufactured goods in total exports	52.80%	89.10%	89.64%	77.18%
4.1.1 Urbanization	21.70%	30.30%	29.00%	27.00%
4.1.4 Total fertility (births per woman)	5.80	6.40	5.70	5.97
4.1.8 Female headed households	25.00%	36.00%	40.00%	33.67%
4.2.2 Female primary enrolment rate	115.00%	112.00%	99.00%	108.67%
4.2.4 Female secondary enrolment ratio	30.00%	7.00%	47.00%	28.00%
6.1.1 Ratification of ILO convention 100	0%	0%	100%	33%
6.1.2 Ratification of ILO convention 111	0%	0%	0%	0%
6.1.3 Ratification of CEDAW	0%	0%	0%	0%
Gap Indicator (+is in favour of men; - is in favour of women)				
1.1.2 Gender gap in economic activity rate	0.12	0.28	0.52	0.31
1.1.6 Gender gap in agricultural activities	-0.02	-0.15	-0.17	-0.11
1.1.8 Gender gap in tertiary activities	0.03	0.02	-0.20	-0.05
2.1.2 Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities	0.18	0.68	0.86	0.57
4.1.3 Gender gap in life expectancy	-0.04	-0.05	-0.02	-0.04
4.2.1 Gender gap in literacy rate	-0.15	0.11	0.02	-0.01
4.2.5 Gender gap in secondary school enrolment	-0.19	-0.04	-0.11	-0.12

* These figures must probably include semi-processed minerals and livestock

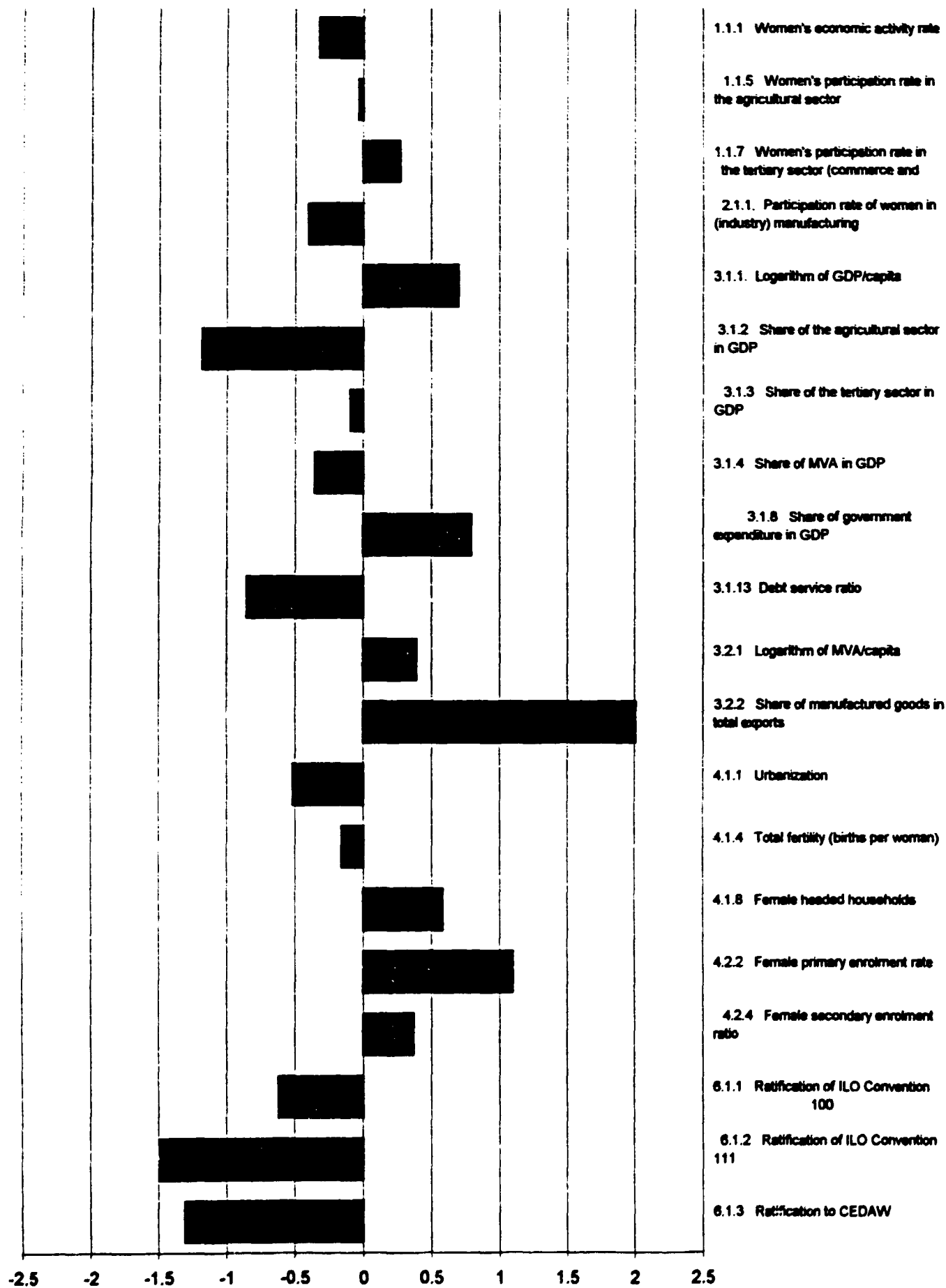
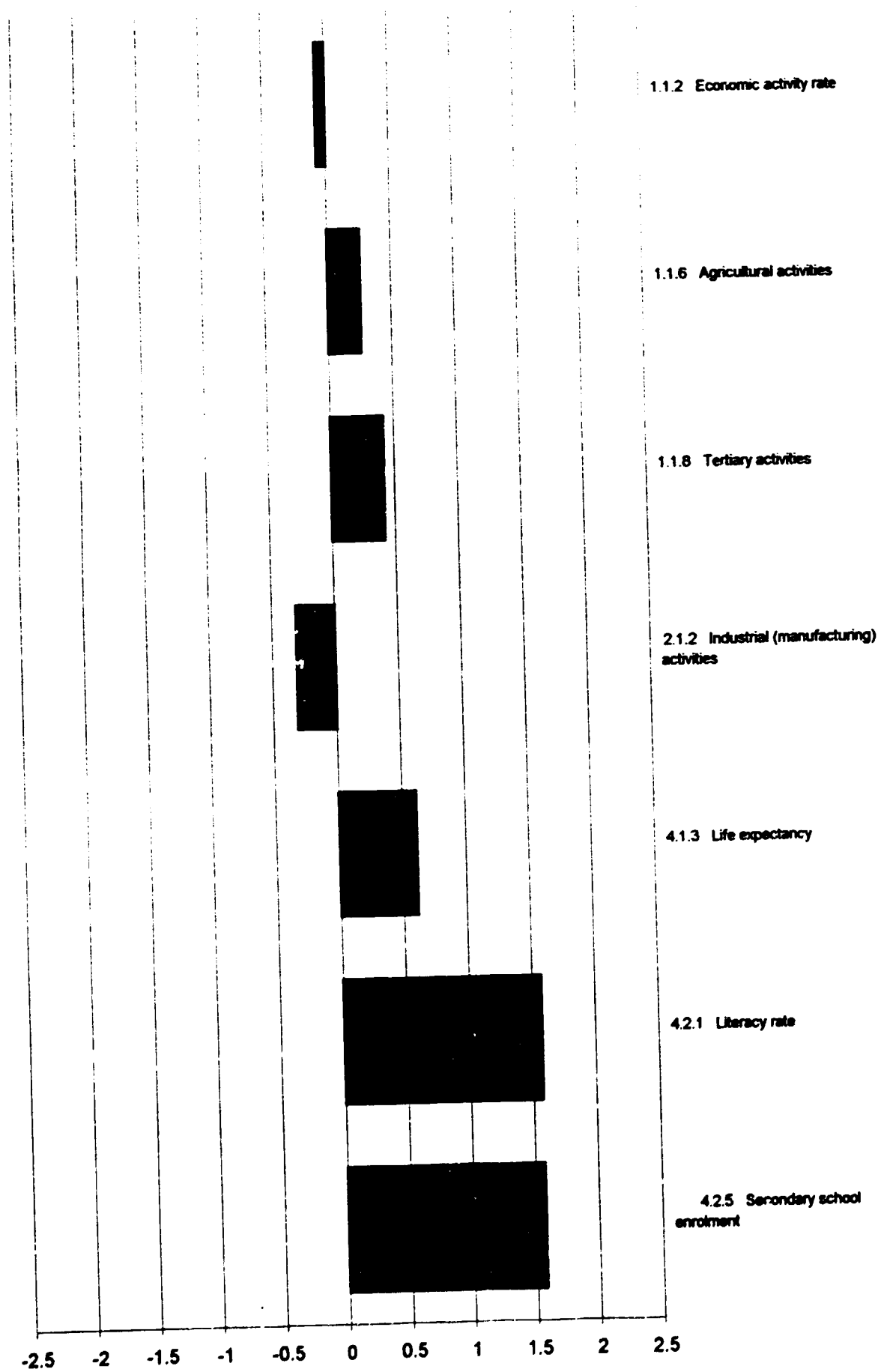


Figure 22

M/F-DISPARITIES
Cluster 7: Lesotho, Namibia, Botswana

CHAPTER III - DEVELOPMENT TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

The analysis in the previous two chapters dealt with the present determinants of women's economic participation in the individual groups of countries. This chapter outlines some important trends which present future challenges to the economic role of women in development. Inter-regional and international trade and investment are crucial factors in stimulating industrial and economic growth in all countries included in the analysis. It is thus important that any proposed strategies for increasing women's economic participation consider development trends not only in the individual countries but the region and the world as a whole. Implications of these trends for the individual clusters are discussed in the second part of this chapter.

The economic crisis of the 1980s, labelled as the "lost development decade", has exposed structural weaknesses of African countries' economies and their vulnerability to changes in external environment. Although most of the countries are highly dependent on external trade, Africa's trade represented a mere 2 per cent share of world trade at the end of the 1980s. The industrial base has remained small. Africa's share in world manufacturing value added (MVA) accounts for about one per cent and has not changed from what it was nearly 20 years ago. The widespread reliance on import substitution industrial strategies in the years immediately after Independence was built with a large government support financed from the receipts of the region's primary commodities exports. Sources of this investment have dried up as world prices for Africa's major export commodities fell and economic recession spread throughout the region. The attainment of objectives laid down in the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos for economic and social transformation of the continent by the beginning of the next century seems still far away.

3.1. REGIONAL AND GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT TRENDS

The initial spurt of African economic development in the 1960s was based on the notion that industrialization is the key to raising general standards of living and welfare of the population on the continent. The general validity of this concept has now been questioned on the basis of its sustainability and equity. Although industry is still considered very important for the overall economic development, a more holistic approach to development is emerging. Creating an enabling environment, restructuring and integration of all economic activities - industry, agriculture and services- and human resources development is the new paradigm. The management of economic infrastructure is considered vital in bringing together the determinants of economic progress, human resources, technology and capital.

A critical appraisal of actual achievements made during the UN proclaimed Industrial Development Decade for Africa (IDDA 1981-90) formed a basis for a revised industrial strategy adopted as the Programme for the Second Industrial Development Decade for Africa by African Ministers of Industry in Dakar, June 1991. Although the overall objectives are the same as those outlined in the Lagos Plan of Action and embodied in the first IDDA, the goals of the second IDDA are more realistic and based upon individual countries own assessment of their available resources and implementation capacity. The central theme of the Programme is rehabilitation and reconstruction of the industrial base. To achieve this four broad areas for action have been delineated: consolidation of private and public industrial enterprises, expansion of 10 key industrial sectors, promotion of small- and medium-scale

industries and entrepreneurship, and development of supportive infrastructure including human resource development.

The new strategy for industrial development in Africa puts emphasis on outward looking, export oriented industrial policies that aim at raising international competitiveness, promoting private enterprise, attracting direct foreign investment and joint ventures, as well as enhancing regional and international cooperation. Competitiveness and open trade are at the centre of this new strategy. The global environment is becoming more and more important in setting the parameters of competitiveness which go beyond low cost production based on cheap labour. Globalization of production, creation of regional trading blocks, fast changing technology and demand conditions increase the pressures for structural changes in the composition and quality of internal factors of production. These new trends pose a big challenge to the use of human resources. Although the potential for increasing the role of women in the industrial process is widely recognized the national programmes which provided the basis for the formulation of the second IDDA have not made specific reference to this issue. Integration of women in industrial development has thus received only a token attention in the Programme document.

Aspects of the global trends which are relevant to the labour market situation in the region and female labour force in particular are summarized below.

Structural adjustment

Zaire was one of the first African countries which turned to the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund for solutions to their economic problems in the early 1980s. By the late 1980s, over 30 African countries have adopted stabilization and structural adjustment programmes (SAP), usually with the support of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. Although the opinions may differ why the "Washington-style" structural adjustment has not brought the expected results in the region (*e.g. ECA 1989e and WB 1994*), there is ample evidence of the negative social and economic impact of these programmes on the vulnerable groups of the population, especially women (*Steward 1987, ILO/JASPA 1990, Mc Farlane 1988, Boyle 1988, Commonwealth Secretariat 1989*). This has led to an additional burden on women whose economic position has already been disadvantaged and marginalized by the development strategies ignoring the fact that women work mostly in the informal sector and in agriculture.

The proposed African Alternative Framework (AAF) to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-Economic Recovery and Transformation (*ECA 1989e*) is based on the full understanding of the region specific structural problems and its needs:

"The major problems of mass poverty, food shortage, low productivity, weak productive base and backward technology that plague Africa are basic bottlenecks that arise from the structure of production, consumption, technology, employment and socio-political organization " (ECA 1989e, page 1)

The AAF has a critical social dimension which has been grossly neglected by the orthodox stabilization and structural adjustment programmes and puts much more emphasis on the conditions of the domestic market and regional integration. The conceptual model of an interplay between the "operational forces, the available resources and the needs to be catered

for proposes a modified set of policy instruments and measures reflecting more the realities of the African predicament. However, as in the orthodox model, crucial issues of gender equality in labour markets and decision making are not addressed.

The exclusion of gender relations in the theories attached to the structural adjustment policies impedes the effectiveness of such policies (*Palmer 1991*). By ignoring socially and culturally rooted gender-based distortions in markets and in government interventions, the allocation of resources cannot be economically optimal. Further more, the lack of acknowledgment that these distortions originate in the male-bias household relations which prevent women to make the most efficient choice in their labour allocation in response to new market conditions, the policies may retard rather than enhance women's economic status (*Elson 1993*).

Privatization

The recent trends point towards an increasing role of the private sector in most developing countries. These trends are of particular relevance to the industrial sector in Africa as most of the large-scale industrial projects have tended to be wholly or partially state-owned. The poor performance of the majority of these enterprises has been attributed to bad management, inappropriate technology and macroeconomic environment but also to poor investment decisions and choice of products. All these factors coupled with shortages of capital and low investors' confidence make the privatization programme in the region difficult to implement. In addition, shortages of local entrepreneurial, managerial and technical skills make the progresses of privatization much slower than anticipated. Capitalizing on women entrepreneurial potential that shows to be quite prominent, especially in West Africa, could enhance the process (*Kuiper 1991*). This would however depend on increasing women's access to resources and changing traditional and cultural prejudices about sexual division of labour. The example of a business women in Burkina Faso who managed not only to buy tannery enterprises from the government in the country but is also looking into possibilities to do the same in the neighbouring countries, is a good role model.

Transferring more responsibility to the private sector not only for production but also for services could hold a potential for new female employment possibilities. However, this potential has not even become an issue in Africa. Retrenchments of civil servants and reductions in government provision of social and welfare services has had a large negative impact on the however small advances made in female wage employment. These losses have not been compensated by the absorption into the private sector which employment creation capacity has been long reduced by the unfair competition from the public sector. The transition from public to private enterprises has been associated with a rapidly rising unemployment, more relaxed views on labour code regulations and even greater discrimination in hiring practices. Employment in the informal sector has often represented the only viable option for survival. In addition, cost recovery pricing of services has led to the exclusion of the underprivileged groups of the population from these benefits. A large proportion of these have been women who now also shoulder a larger burden of caring for children, elderly and sick members of the family.

Investment climate

In the effort to attract foreign investment, incentives often include deregulation of provisions made in the legal labour code such as minimum wage, conditions of employment and rights to form trade unions. However, the attraction of low cost labour is not a sufficient guarantee

to bring foreign capital into the country any more. Particularly in Africa, where the cost of labour is relatively high considering the productivity levels, political stability, sound macroeconomic management, physical infrastructure and services are becoming much more important criteria for investment decisions, especially in the manufacturing sector.

Structural changes in manufacturing production have led to major changes in the pattern of international flows of capital and production for export. Although relocation of labour-intensive production to low cost labour areas continues to play an important role, sector specific technology developments are of great relevance to the pattern of relocation. A few African countries, e.g. Mauritius, Tunisia, have benefited from relocation of garment production but relocation of electronic industry to Africa is still rare. It could be expected that the competition to attract labour-intensive and low-skilled industries in the region will intensify as more countries adopt more liberal political and economic regimes. As the experience shows, these industries often stimulate a large demand for female labour but under exploitative conditions.

Preferential access to developed countries' market has been an additional consideration in the relocation strategies for industrial investment, especially of textile and garment industries. The new GATT agreement signed in June 1994 will change the special status enjoyed by developing countries under the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP) and also the preferential access to European Union's markets of African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries granted under the Lome Convention. This will put extra pressure on African countries to increase competitiveness of their products in price, quality and time deliveries. In addition, demands from industrialized countries for improvements in working and employment conditions in developing countries will be increasingly used as non-tariff trade barriers. This poses a great challenge to government policies on development of human resources which have so far neglected the potential of women.

Capacity building

The technology gap between the industrialized and developing countries has been increasing. The technology advances made by the industrialized countries were mainly possible because of the superior quality of their labour force. In Africa, the building up of national technological capabilities which comprise the entire complex of human skills (entrepreneurial, managerial and technical) have been long neglected (*Lall 1989*). Training and education, especially high education, has been primarily geared to fulfil requirements of the public sector rather than meeting the skill demands of the private business and industry. Foreign direct investment and technology transfer have contributed disappointingly little to learning and capacity building among the domestic labour force as there was not a consistent and deliberate policy, on neither the exporter or the importer side, to link these processes.

Relative to the total population, there are fewer students enrolled in vocational training and engineering education in Africa than in Asian developing countries (*UNIDO 1991b*). Women constitute a very low proportion of the student bodies, especially in technical colleges. On the other hand, there is a vast and increasing pool of unemployed university graduates in many African countries (*Hinchcliffe 1985*). The ratio of students at tertiary level receiving academic tuition to those undergoing vocational training is approximately 2.5:1 in Namibia, while the world ratio is approximately 0.25:1 (*UNIDO 1994*). The adequacy, appropriateness and quality of African education and training systems are the bottlenecks mainly responsible

for the skill supply-demand disequilibrium on the labour market. It is estimated that there are currently 80 000 to 100 000 expatriate technical assistants in Africa (Harsch 1990). Their cost is estimated at least US\$ 4 billion a year. At the same time, there are 4 000 African professionals working in the private sector and international organizations in the USA and about 70 000 in Western Europe.

It is the human capital which now provides the competitive edge in industrial development. Development of human resources is the biggest challenge to African economic growth. Africa cannot afford any more to neglect the development of the largest part of its population, women. The development has to address a key issue of equality on all levels, welfare, access to resources, social and traditional norms and beliefs, participation in political and economic decision making, and power sharing. Only when women gain control over their own lives can they become equal and productive partners in the development of their nations (*for more details on Women's Empowerment Framework see Longwe 1991*).

The Informal Sector

Today, the most dynamic and growing part of the African labour market is in the informal sector of the economy. The sector has established itself as the employer of last resort in urban areas, currently comprising over 60 per cent of the urban labour force (*ILO/JASPA 1990*). In spite of the important role it has played for economic survival of large sections of the continents' population both in urban and rural areas, the sector received a little attention and often active discouragement by the governments. Consequently, entrepreneurial initiatives could hardly develop and small scale enterprises could not raise capital, obtain technical and managerial training and gain access to infrastructure services. Thus it is not surprising that the sector's productivity is low and the main activities are concentrated in trade. In spite of a higher potential for productive wage employment in services and manufacturing enterprises than in trade activities, the lack of skills, capital and experience required in the two sectors limits their growth. It is estimated that there is a gap of 15 years between a school leaver joins the labour market and the time he or she becomes a micro-entrepreneur in the services or manufacturing sector (*ILO/JASPA 1990*).

The informal sector is the second largest employer of female labour after agriculture. The economic crises of the late 1970s and the 1980s have led to 6 per cent average annual growth rate in female labour force employment in informal sector activities, mostly as own account workers or unpaid family labour (*ILO/JASPA 1990*). ILO has estimated that about 16 million women in Sub-Saharan Africa were engaged in the sector in 1990, representing about 35 per cent of the sector's total labour force. About 80 per cent of female labour force in the sector are found in trade related activities. This is proportionately more than is the case for the male labour force since women's trading activities are often closely tied to their agricultural activities. But it is also because women have even harder access to the capital and skills required in manufacturing and service activities than men.

The large retrenchments in the public sector and privatization have increased the already large pool of unemployed. Given the present rate of urbanization, estimated 2 per cent employment growth in the formal wage sector and about 6 per cent growth in the regional labour force annually, it means that over 90 per cent of all additional jobs in urban Africa will need to be created in the informal sector during the 1990s (*ILO/JASPA 1990*). This will challenge the absorption capacity of the informal sector. The signs of competition are already

evident. The problem of women in Ghana "is not simply one of how to encourage women to enter a wide range of fields, which may be important, but how to enable them to hold their own in the informal sector" (*Kane 1990*). The conditions for this sector to grow are often different from those for medium and large scale enterprises. Many of governments' incentives directed at promotion of industrial development have brought little, if any, benefits to this sector so far. To provide a suitable package of supportive measures for informal enterprises to become a part of the formal economy is one of the most difficult challenges facing African labour market.

Regional Integration and Cooperation

In the face of increasing world competition, fast changing technology and establishments of trading blocks, regional integration and cooperation will be a vital determinant of future industrial development in Africa. Past attempts at regional integration in Africa have not been very successful and have had little impact on the volume and composition of regional trade so far. The new impetus for regional economic integration has come from the realization that only if united can Africa respond to the challenges of fast advancing technology and increasing costs of investment and combat the trend of widening technological gap between the industrialized and developing countries. Thus the establishment of the African Economic Community (AEC) has become the ultimate goal of African governments. The major sub-regional groupings such as PTA, SADC, ECOWAS and ECCAS provide the building blocks for the foundation of the new economic community.

The implementation of the AEC treaty, signed by the heads of 51 African states in Abuja in June 1991, is envisaged in six stages over a total period of 34 years. During this period existing regional economic communities should be strengthened and new communities established where they do not exist, policies of these communities should be harmonized and coordinated in view to gradually remove all barriers to trade and to promote sectoral integration and cooperation including areas of human resources, education, science and technology, culture and environment. The existing women's groups and networks at the national, sub-regional and regional level could play an important part in this process. They have proved to be important agents in transferring technology, training, sharing cultural experiences and building information networks. Their efforts should be recognized and supported as an integral part of the institutional framework.

3.2. CHALLENGES FOR INDIVIDUAL GROUPS OF COUNTRIES

Cluster 1 Sub-Saharan African Countries with low female economic activity rate but high participation rate in Agriculture and the tertiary sector (Ghana, Guinea, Central African Republic, Comoros, Benin, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Togo, Liberia, Gambia)

Major Challenges : Increasing women's productivity in the agricultural sector; Increasing women's productivity in the informal sector; increasing women's literacy, numeracy, and other technical skills and know-how; Removing gender based obstacles to girls enrolment and educational attainment.

Women in countries of cluster 1 face numerous legal and economic obstacles which severely limit their productive economic participation. Denied access to productive sectors of the economy of these countries be it in cash cropping or wage employment, the majority of women are concentrated in those sectors of the economy which exert long hours of labour input but produce low returns. The deepening economic crisis has underscored the paramount importance of women's economic activities and its centrality to household maintenance and sustenance. Yet the social devaluation of women's work persists and in some instances, it might have intensified. The lack of gender aware public policy is a reflection of this process of social devaluation of women's work. The legal and political framework in countries of Cluster 1, has thus far, not given priority to and enlarged the space for reflection on the legal and political barriers to women's equal participation in the economy as well as decision making bodies of the countries. The allocation of public expenditure has not been informed by gender responsive investments and priorities.

In countries of Cluster 1, economic recovery is premised on agriculture-led strategy. Diversification of exports, revitalising industry, increasing intra-regional and sub-regional trade, creating an enabling environment for the informal sector and alleviation of poverty are prominent features of the economic recovery programme. The extent to which women will benefit from the changing policy environment will depend on targeted legislations, investments and incentives aimed at transforming the social and economic position of women. Given women's pivotal role in agriculture, and the currently available capital in countries of Cluster 1, to a large extent, increasing productivity will depend on increasing the productivity of the female labour force. This in turn will depend on the type of agrarian strategy. A strategy focused on smallholder agriculture but one that officially recognizes women as farmers on their own right, is likely to increase agriculture and be of benefit to women.

There is growing consensus concerning the need for an alternative industrial strategy which is strongly linked to agriculture and based on small-scale and labour intensive producers. Experiences in other regions have shown that agro-industries often provide job opportunities for a large pool of cheap female labour. In the case of countries of cluster 1, given the degree of unemployment and underemployment on the one hand and limited skill acquisitions by women on the other, without a gender aware employment policy, the mere existence of a new industrial strategy is not likely to create job opportunities for women in the near future. There are anecdotal evidences that ,in Nigeria for instance women have been employed by agri-business firms.

Although relatively few in number, in all countries of Cluster 1, there are highly successful women enterprenurs who are likely to benefit from measures to increase manufactured imports and liberalized trade regimes. However, the vast majority of women are located in the informal sector with no growth potential. If poor women are to benefit from the new strategy of enhancing the informal sector and contribute towards sustained economic growth, they will need to have access to services which address both their productive and reproductive roles. This include access to credit, training in employable skills and affordable child care centres and labour saving devices for household maintenance.

A common feature of countries of Cluster 1, since the early 1980s is the low level of expenditure towards the provision of social services. With the exception of Burkina Faso, expenditure on education declined in almost all the other countries. Out of the 14 countries in this Cluster, only two (Comoros, Togo), have female primary enrolment rate of 80 per cent. In two others, Nigeria and Ghana, the female primary enrolment rate is 67 and 63 per cent respectively. In the remaining ten countries, the rate is extremely low, as low as 17 per cent in Mali and 21 per cent in Guinea. The female literacy rate is extremely low for all countries. Health services have deteriorated in all countries. Not only does this trend has an impact on overall productivity but it increases women's workload as they have to care for sick members of the household.

Most countries of Cluster 1, have tended to neglect the development of human resources. Much less attention has been given to addressing the disadvantages faced by women as regards the provision of social services. Recent policy shifts indicate new possibilities. The extent to which poor women can benefit from the emergent focus on human resources development will depend on the extent to which the policies directly address gender specific constraints such as lack of time by women due to the labour intensive nature of household work as well as highly limited training opportunities. Women's increased workload and low income also has direct impact on educational enrolment and performance of school children especially girls.

In the political arena, women's participation as regards the issue of gender equity is negligible. The recent effort at democratization in counties like Benin, Mali and Niger, has not yet translated into significant presence of women in decision making bodies nor in formulation of policies that address gender disparities. However, in all countries of Cluster 1, a variety of Women's groups have begun to lobby for gender-aware development policies. Much more work need to be done if emergent development policies are to build on the rich and diverse experiences of women.

Cluster 2 Countries with a low female economic activity rate, especially in the more productive sectors of the economy, and low social and economic status (Chad, Sudan, Mauritania, Cameroon, Sao Tome & Principe, Cote d'Ivoire and Djibouti).

Major challenges: Increasing women's participation and visibility in the labour force; increasing women's productivity in agriculture and the informal sector activities; and increasing women's functional literacy, access to education and skill training.

Constraints to women's more productive economic participation in this cluster are representative of the situation which applies to the majority of women on the continent. The low level of female labour force participation is due more to the invisibility of women's economic activities rather than their lack of involvement. Agricultural activities, mainly subsistence farming, are women's domain but employment in more productive sectors of the economy is dominated by men. High fertility rates increase the burden to provide food and services for household consumption and restrict women's access to education and regular paid employment. There is a lack of technology and training inputs to ease women's work in the fields and in performing household work which is traditionally an exclusive women's responsibility. In the patriarchal society, if the choice has to be made, it is the boys who get sent to schools and girls are expected to help their mothers. Women's work is undervalued because most women are confined to unpaid work in the family enterprises, particularly in agriculture, and because of the cultural prejudices. Due to the lack of women's access to policy decision making, government intervention has done little to promote gender equity. The constraints to women's economic advancement on the labour market are thus spread over the whole spectrum of economic, social, demographic, political and cultural determinants.

Increasing women's participation in the labour force, particularly in paid employment, offers the potential to markedly improve the social status and economic position of women. However, the immediate prospects for this to happen are not that encouraging in most of the countries in this group. The economic crises of the 1980s, problems encountered with economic restructuring and political instability present a considerable challenge to the economic recovery of these countries. The general consensus about the importance of increasing agricultural and food production in the process of economy recovery brings the female labour force in agriculture into focus. It will depend on the government gender sensitive policies and measures to remove the present barriers impeding the full realization of women's potential in agriculture. The capacity of the industrial sector to offer new employment opportunities for women will depend on the industrial strategy adopted to revive the growth of the manufacturing sector in the more industrially advanced countries of this group and expanding the presently narrow industrial base in the other countries.

The lack of recognition of women's economic contribution made through their involvement in informal sector activities has obscured the possibilities for improvements in productivity of this sector. The proportion of women in the informal sector has been increasing as the result of the deteriorating economic conditions. It is important that women entrepreneurs receive the necessary institutional support and gain access to activities with higher value added to raise their income. Functional literacy, skills and management training as well as credit facilities tailored to the needs of women should be part of the package. However, these measures have to be accompanied by efforts to increase women's social welfare. Family planning aiming at lowering fertility rates should be an integral part of the social programmes.

Governments in this cluster devote a relatively low share of their expenditure to basic needs, particularly health and education. With the exception of Cameroon all countries in the group have female primary school enrolment rates below 50 per cent and the gender gap in literacy rates of this cluster is the highest among the seven clusters. There is a need for governments to address the serious gender disparities that exist in human resources development.

Particular attention should be paid to increasing rural women's access to primary and preventative health services, primary and adult education, as well as skill training.

The representation of women in decision making bodies at all levels is very low. This prevents gender issues to be openly discussed and addressed in formulation of economic and social policies. Gender sensitization campaigns could help to question the validity of deeply rooted cultural values and social norms in the light of present realities. Only when there is a genuine commitment to examine the causes of the present gender inequalities by the society at large, can government intervention be effective.

Cluster 3 Countries with a moderate economic activity rate of women, large gender disparities in sectoral distribution of labour, and high percentage of female headed households (Senegal, Gabon, Congo, Rwanda, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola, Mozambique and Swaziland).

Major challenges: Increasing women's participation in the industrial labour force; increasing access of women to secondary school education and training; and providing legal and social support to female headed households.

Economic contribution of the industrial sector is well above the regional average for most of the countries in this cluster. However, participation of women in the industrial labour force is much below the regional average while female participation rate in agriculture is among the highest. The long period of import-substitution oriented manufacturing production, the level of technology, traditional pattern of male labour force migration and population displacement as a result of civil wars are some of the reasons for the gender imbalances in the labour market. The economic crises of the 1980s has led to the adoption of the IMF/WB structural adjustment regimes which led to civil unrest and general strikes in a number of countries. The severe drought in Southern Africa in 1991/92 as well as on-going civil wars and the transformation to democratic rule add to the present economic problems facing countries in this group.

Assuming political stability, industrial rehabilitation and expansion in this cluster of countries will depend on making their manufacturing products competitive on domestic, regional and world markets. Devaluation of a number of currencies, particular the CFA franc, as well as structural changes involving privatization and technology upgrading with a heavy reliance on foreign direct investment and trade liberalization will create a more conducive macro-economic environment in which manufacturers can operate competitively. From the experience of other countries, both inside and outside the region, it is the export oriented light industries which have proved to be main employers of female labour force. Recent industrial developments in Madagascar which benefited from the extension of activities in the export processing zone sector in Mauritius are already showing signs of a similar trend. It could be expected that more liberal economic policies and the removal of protective barriers all countries in this cluster are likely to increase opportunities for labour-intensive industrial growth for domestic and export market which would offer new employment opportunities for both men and women.

However, the lack of previous exposure to industrial environment and technical skills as well as cultural prejudices about female occupations present major constraints to women's participation in the industrialization process. It will be thus important for women to progress in their education beyond the primary school level and gain access to technical skill training. In addition, the large number of women entrepreneurs in the informal sector, both in urban and rural areas, need gender sensitive institutional support to progress into more productive sectors of employment than offered by the trading sector at the present.

The high fertility rates and the large number of female headed households present major obstacles to women's participation in the labour force, particularly in paid employment. Child caring and rearing place additional and disproportionately larger burden on women than men. The lack of sincere commitment of the governments to deal with gender inequalities on economic, social and political levels of life has been, to some extent, compensated by actions of NGOs. It can be expected that results of the NGOs' work will have an impact on the political and institutional environment. However, pressures from these groups would be more effective in bringing substantial improvements in women's social and economic status if they worked in partnership with government initiatives.

Cluster 4 Sub-Saharan African Countries with extremely low levels of social development, high female activity rate. (Kenya, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Burundi, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Somalia)

Major Challenges: Improving women's productivity in Agriculture and income-earning activities; Increasing girls access to education; Increasing women's literacy, knowledge and technical skills.

The constraints faced by women in the cluster are similar those in Clusters 1 and 2. Women's economic activity is mostly in agriculture and the informal sector. Women who benefited from paid employment especially in the manufacturing sector are few. Lack of improved tools for subsistence production, poor rural and urban infrastructure, lack of labour saving technologies for household activities exerts a very high demand on women's energy and time. To date, government policies do not accord any importance to gender equity. Women had to bear disproportionately higher burdens of political instability. Given the socio-economic constraints faced by countries of Cluster 4, in the immediate future, the possibilities of increasing women's participation in paid employment are very limited. Here too, the present trajectory points to agriculture led recovery. Increasing food production and ensuring food security is a major challenge facing most countries in this cluster. During the last two decades, a vast literature has meticulously documented the relations between decline in agricultural production and women's lack of access to productive resources, i.e. land, credit, extension services, input subsidies and information. The success of the agricultural recovery programme will depend on broad policy issues related to social and physical infrastructure as well as technology. Increasing productivity of the female labour force requires a gender-aware policy in the provision of all these three types of services.

The provision of social infrastructure should include technologies designed to reduce the time and energy-consuming daily tasks particularly with respect to food, water and energy. Women will also need access to productivity-enhancing inputs. In brief, increasing female labour productivity requires legislations which remove institutional biases and give women

equal rights to land ownership and other productive resources. Such a legislation creates the space to challenge the existing gender division of labour, gendered patterns of income allocation and expenditure within households.

Presently the manufacturing sector of countries of Cluster 4 with the exception of Kenya, is small and mostly geared towards the domestic market. In the context of the Preferential Trade Agreement, Member countries in this cluster are exploring ways of expanding manufactured exports. The extent to which substantive numbers of women will benefit from this emergent strategy will depend on the types of export goods being produced for export and on gender-aware employment policies adopted by each country and sub-regional bodies. It will also depend on educational and training opportunities geared towards new skills acquisition by women.

The economic crisis of the 1980s has pushed a very large number of women into the informal sector. A few women with access to social capital have been able to undertake activities in manufacturing and intermediate services. However, the majority of economically active women are in subsistence agriculture or petty trade. In the recent past, credit programmes for women have been available in almost all countries of Cluster 4. Most of these programmes are for rural enterprises. However, not only are these programmes very narrow in scope, but fall outside the mainstream of current policy reflections on the role of the informal sector in a revived industrialization strategy. Considering women's lack of employment in the formal sector, measures to provide public support systems for informal sector entrepreneurs, should make special provisions for training women in skills related to manufacturing and managing of enterprises.

Public expenditure allocated to social services has declined drastically in most countries of Cluster 4. In relative terms, Kenya fares much better than other countries in the Cluster. In the 1970s the Tanzanian government simultaneously launched a Universal Primary Education and Mass Literacy Campaigns. Both campaigns were committed to gender equity in access to education. Both these programmes were highly successful. But the economic crisis led to substantive cuts in the share of expenditure allocated to education. Today, the literacy rates and female primary enrolment rates are low. In Ethiopia, the Mass Literacy Programme was successful in reducing the high levels of illiteracy both among men and women. But it was carried out through coercion and then abruptly abandoned. In Kenya, a steady progress in female enrolment at all levels is registered. Gender sensitive educational policies have been implemented in recent years. Countries of Cluster 4, have to face the challenge of not only increasing educational and training opportunities for women and girls but also devise strategies that will reduce the extremely high attrition rates, lack of motivation, gender-differentiated programmes and curricula in schools and training programmes. Cuts in health expenditure at a time when the demands on the health sector has vastly expanded due to the AIDS pandemic is most unfortunate. Public awareness campaigns on AIDS opens up further possibilities to discuss relations of power between men and women and its relationship to the ability to negotiate safer sex practices.

In the recent past, in some countries of Cluster 4, the number of women in decision making bodies has shown some increase. In the absence of wide ranging and continuous public debates on gender disparities resulting in concrete legislative measures and monitoring of the implementation of these measures, increase in the number of women in decision making

bodies will tend to serve as window dressing. The degree of change that women in decision making bodies can introduce will depend on their links and accountability to organized pressure groups who lobby for gender equity. For example, women in this Cluster have to increase their effort at lobbying for peace and stability. Based on this effort, women in decision making bodies will have to address issues related to reduction of defense expenditure and reallocating the resources to a gender sensitive social sector.

Cluster 5 Countries with high participation of women in manufacturing and tertiary sector (Morocco, Tunisia, Cape Verde, Egypt, Algeria, Libyan Arab Jamaheriya).

Major Challenges: Maintaining and enhancing women's position in the economy; Increasing the visibility of women's labour force participation; Increasing women's functional literacy, skills and knowledge; Increasing productivity of female labour in the informal sector.

Until recently, most countries in this Cluster have provided opportunities for a relatively high rate of employment for women in the tertiary and manufacturing sector. However, all these countries have been faced with severe problems of unemployment. Disproportionately more women than men are unemployed. Deepening economic crisis, growing youth unemployment have triggered a religious fundamentalism and a political climate which privileges the concept of the male breadwinner and men's greater right to employment. In this context women's increased economic activity suffers from a lack of visibility in most countries of Cluster 5.

The informal sector provides employment for a large share of the female labour force. Most women are concentrated in micro- enterprises in service occupations and petty trade. In Tunisia, Morocco and Egypt, sub-contracting and adoption of "putting out" systems and household based economic activity are on the increase. These strategies offer the option of flexible time use to women who are also responsible for child rearing and household maintenance. It also provides advantages to seasonal workers in the agricultural and food sectors who are unemployed for most of the year. In a socio-cultural context where leaving the house to earn an income conveys low social status, home-based economic activity provides a shelter from social sanctions. However this strategy conceals women's economic contribution and lends credence to attempts to push women back into the private sphere. Moreover household based economic activity is based on poor working condition, less access to welfare and pensions, isolation and weak bargaining position. In spite of its growing importance, inadequate attention has been given to increasing the productivity level of female labour in the informal sector. Women in this sector stand to gain from increased upgrading of skills, introduction of new skills and improving working conditions in the sub-contracting sector. Women in the agricultural sector need access to productive resources and information.

A tangible advancement of women in most countries of Cluster 5 has been a substantive expansion of an educated female population. However, the gender gap in school enrolment is still wide and the literacy rate is low even in Tunisia, a country with the most impressive record in the advancement of women. In all countries, there is a large discrepancy between educational levels in rural and urban areas. Girls tend to specialize in technical, nonscientific fields. There are inadequate number of vocational schools for girls and the few that exist concentrate on traditional fields of specialization.

Women's presence in political decision making bodies is low in all countries. However, a number of women's organizations particularly in Tunisia, Morocco and Egypt are lobbying against religious and cultural intolerance. A Comprehensive legal and institutional support towards women's economic participation prevails only in Tunisia. In the contest of a growing conservative climate and unrelenting economic crisis, the long term impact on the status of women is uncertain.

Cluster 6 Countries with high GDP and MVA per capita, low participation of women in agriculture but high participation rates in the tertiary sector (Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa).

Major challenges: Enabling women to cope with the shift to technology-intensive production and gaining access to higher positions of economic and political decision making.

Structural transformation of the economies in this cluster due to industrialization has resulted in decreasing importance of agriculture and the general movement of labour from agriculture to industry and services. The majority of the male labour force is in the industrial sector whereas female labour force is concentrated in the tertiary sector. Countries in this cluster together with countries in North Africa are rare examples in Africa where participation rates of men in agriculture are higher than those of women. This is because commercial agriculture is more predominant than subsistence farming. The evidence shows, that it is mostly men who are employed in commercialized agricultural production whereas women provide the majority of the labour in subsistence farming.

It is common that in the process of economic transition increasing volume of female labour is displaced from agriculture and the rural economy and are forced to seek employment in the urban industrial and service sectors. Growing monetization also increases the demands of families, particularly but not only poor families, for cash income. Women, as well as men, face increasing pressure to join the paid labour force to cover household expenses. Although this trend could be observed in this cluster of countries, the "natural" process of transformation from agrarian to industrial society has been influenced by a number of factors which had an impact on the pattern of women's participation in this process. In South Africa, under the segregation policies of the pre-independence regime, demand for large male labour force for the mining and manufacturing sectors was mainly supplied from "homelands" leaving women and children behind. Domestic services and commerce provided major wage employment opportunities for the majority of women. In Mauritius, the growth of the export oriented manufacturing sector in the 1980s stimulated large increases in female industrial employment in garment industries. In Seychelles, the growth of tourist industry and services was the main factor responsible for increasing female wage employment.

The three economies are now in a transitional period of economic growth. The major challenge to the revitalization of the economy in post-apartheid South Africa is the development of the largest part of its long neglected human resources. Industrial growth will depend on coping with the challenges posed by removal of protective barriers and facing increased competition from the outside world. Export processing industry will have to move towards higher value added products to compensate for the loss of wage cost advantage. Mauritius is in a similar situation. The already apparent shortages of skilled and semi-skilled labour is pushing up wages and increasing competition in the labour-intensive and low skilled

export manufactured products puts the economy at cross roads. The political instability in Seychelles, creates a great threat to the economy dependent on tourism, services and trade.

The future role of women in the economic development in the three countries will largely depend on the macro-economic management of the governments. There is no doubt, that changes in the manufacturing sector will lead to more skill and technology oriented production to ensure regional and world competitiveness. This means that for women to gain larger access to industrial employment in South Africa and Seychelles, and for women in Mauritius to maintained their position, women's access to technical education and training will be of great importance. The education background of women in this cluster is generally high and the demographic and social conditions are also favourable to women. However, there will be need to complement advancements made in the area of female welfare with political backing and institutional support. Women's concerns and gender equality need to be an integral part of government development policies. The strong presence and experience of NGOs could provide a valuable input into the formulation and implementation of policies directed at women's economic advancement. The evidence from Mauritius and South Africa of this actually happening should be encouraged and sustained.

Cluster 7 Southern African countries with a moderate female economic activity rate but relatively high representation of women in manufacturing wage employment, high male labour force migration, and high female school enrolments (Botswana, Namibia and Lesotho).

Major challenges: Improving women's access to high levels of policy decision making; changing legal and institutional framework in support of women's economic role and more efficient use of female educated manpower; and lowering urban-rural inequalities.

This group of countries is a clear example of the interaction between determinants of women's economic participation across the five systems. It shows that improvements in gender sensitive indicators in one system are not sufficient to guarantee an overall positive change in the economic role of women if these improvements are not accompanied by advancements in the other systems. Social and demographic indicators suggest that women in this cluster have a better access to education and health services compared to women in other clusters. However, their economic activity rate is below the regional average. Although women in Lesotho and Botswana has made inroads into the middle level of management, their are still absent from the upper levels of decision making. A large proportion of households is cared for by women but women are still treated as minors and as subordinates to men by law and custom. The economic recession of the 1980s has not effected these countries to the extent experienced in other countries. Namibia and Botswana are one of the few countries in Africa without government deficit problems necessitating stabilization and structural adjustment programmes supervised by the IMF and the WB. However, economic development has benefited only the urban population and there is a wide spread rural poverty especially amongst female headed households.

The economies of all three countries are heavily dependent on the mining sector both inside their countries and, in terms of employment, also in South Africa . The potential for substantial production increases in the agricultural sector, although not yet fully exploited,

CHAPTER IV. STRATEGIES

The system analysis in Chapter 1 identified the general determinants of women's participation in the African labour market, particularly in the industrial labour force. Cluster analysis in Chapter 2 facilitated a more detailed assessment of characteristics which differentiate seven broad groups of countries on the continent. In Chapter 3, present constraints to women's participation in manufacturing related activities were placed in the context of the expected economic trends in the region and cluster specific situations. The advantage of the methodology adopted in this study is that it allows formulation of strategies and plans of action relevant to the socio-, economic- and political environment identified for groups of countries sharing the same pattern of female economic and manufacturing participation. The following proposals of strategies and plans of action should be thus considered as integrated programme packages addressing the system constraints in the context of the challenges described in the preceding chapter.

4.1. STRATEGIES AND PROPOSALS FOR ACTION FOR INDIVIDUAL COUNTRY GROUPS

This section addresses strategies and plans for action specific to the seven groups of countries discussed in the previous two chapters. Due to the large number of similarities of constraints facing the advancement of female labour force in Africa, repetition of needed measures to deal with these bottlenecks is inevitable. In spite of the homogeneity of problems across the clusters, there are also differences among countries in each of the seven groups. Thus the cluster specific proposals are intended to draw attention to the most pressing problems and provide suggestions for possible solutions. Based upon these guidelines, more detailed programmes suited to individual countries can be worked out and incorporated into the countries' human resources development policies.

Cluster 1 Sub-Saharan African countries with low female economic activity rate, but high participation in the agricultural and tertiary sector (Ghana, Guinea, Central African Republic, Comoros, Benin, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Togo, Liberia, Gambia).

Major challenges:

- Increasing women's productivity in agricultural sector.
- Increasing women's productivity in the informal sector.
- Increasing women's literacy, numeracy, and other technical skills and know-how.
- Removing gender based obstacles to girls enrolment and educational attainment.

Major constraints:

- Women's economic activity is neither recorded nor recognized.
- Agricultural policies and policies related to the informal sector do not address the specific needs of women in these sectors, particularly those related to access to productive resources.

- Women's enrolment in elementary and secondary education is declining and women suffer from very high drop-out rates, thereby reducing their employment opportunities.
- Women have very low levels of literacy, numeracy, lack skills and access to technology, technical knowledge and training.
- Health, safety and promotional needs of women employed in formal sector is not considered as a high priority. Government agencies representing the interest of women suffer from lack of technical capacity and inadequate resources.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase women's visibility and productivity in agricultural production.	Ensure women's access to productive resource including land, credit and skills.	Ministry of Agriculture, Non-governmental organizations, women's organizations
Increase women's employment in non-farm employment.	Introduce programmes that enhance women's skills in emergent niches of the rural and urban markets. Undertake in-depth gender aware studies of structural transformation of the global, regional and local economies with a view to identifying skill enhancing employment potentials.	Governments, international agencies (ECA, UNIDO, ILO)
Increase public awareness of women's participation in the labour force.	Launch sustained public campaigns on women's contribution to economic development and ensure that this activity is fully and accurately recorded in all forms of data collection, international, national and local statistics.	Department of Labour, Central Statistical Office, the media, international organizations (ECA, ILO, UNESCO, World Bank, IMF)
Increasing primary school enrolment for girls, functional literacy and the level of technical and managerial skills among women.	Monitor the curriculum and other gender biases in the school environment through constant analysis of flow of education.	Women's organizations, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Industry
	Provide a functional literacy programme that enhances the capacities of trainees towards self-management of economic activities.	Non-governmental organizations, Ministry of Education, international agencies (ILO, UNIDO)
	Provide training in productivity enhancing programmes through identifications, dissemination and institutionalization of improved agricultural technologies and methods of planting, fertilizer application, harvesting, storage, evaluation of production activities.	Non-governmental organizations, Ministry of Agriculture, international agencies (FAO, UNIDO)

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Improve conditions of women working in factories.	Assist women in both rural and urban areas to join cooperatives as well as strengthening their mutual support networks at the community level.	Women's organizations, Non-governmental organizations, international organizations (ILO, ECA)
	Monitor the health and safety conditions of factories dominated by women as well as mixed industries, provide on-the-job training to enable the promotion of women factory workers to supervisory and better paid positions.	Labour Ministry, Trade Unions, women's organizations, Non-governmental organizations, international organizations (ILO, UNIDO)
Strengthen the capacity of women's national machineries.	Devise innovative training programmes for women's national machineries so as to render them more responsive to women's needs and be aware of emergent opportunities and constraints facing women so as to formulate relevant policies.	Specialized agencies, professional women's associations, women's national machineries

Cluster 2 Countries with a low female economic activity rate, especially in the more productive sectors of the economy, and low social and economic status (Chad, Sudan, Mauritania, Cameroon, Sao Tome & Principe, Cote d'Ivoire and Djibouti).

Major challenges:

- Increasing women's participation and visibility in the labour force;
- increasing women's productivity in agriculture and informal sector activities;
- increasing women's functional literacy, access to education and skill training.

Constraints on women's employment:

- Women's economic activities are unrecorded and unrecognized;
- low productivity of female labour force in subsistence farming and informal sector activities due to the lack of technology inputs, training and institutional support;
- stagnation of industrial growth;
- poor coverage of women's basic needs;
- frequent and early childbearing and family responsibilities, combined with social and cultural restrictions on women's employment, jeopardize women's chances to gain access to regular and paid employment;
- women's low levels of literacy and education puts them in great disadvantage on the labour market; and
- lack of political and legal framework to support the interests of female labour force.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase women's participation and visibility in the labour force	<p>Introduce labour-saving technology and access to water and fuel for reducing women's domestic workload which will give women more time to participate in more productive market oriented activities.</p> <p>Undertake campaigns to raise awareness about the extent of women's contribution to the household and national economy. Ensure that this contribution is fully reported and recorded in all forms of data collection.</p>	<p>Relevant government departments and research institutions, private sector, International agencies (UNIDO), NGOs, donor community.</p> <p>Department of Labour, National statistics agencies, media, NGOs, International agencies (UNSO, ECA, ILO, UNIDO, UNIFEM)</p>
Increase productivity of female labour force	<p>Promote access of women to means of production (technology, land, capital and information) through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - formation of production units (cooperatives) and networks; - introduction of appropriate/adapted technology for micro and small scale enterprises; - development of financial institutions and intermediaries for effective delivery of credits/loans to women - introduction of homestead economics programmes which include functional literacy, business and production skills and gender sensitization courses in rural areas; - changes in legal and customary land tenure system and laws constraining women's access to land use and ownership; 	<p>Relevant government departments and agencies, banking and financial institutions, NGOs, donors, International agencies (UNIDO, ECA, UNIFEM, WWB)</p>
Increase the coverage of women's basic needs	<p>Develop physical and social infrastructure in rural areas.</p> <p>Provide adequate and effective family health education for reducing fertility rates and teenage pregnancies.</p>	<p>Relevant government departments, private sector</p> <p>Departments of education, health and community development, media, International agencies (WHO, UNIFEM)</p>

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase educational levels of women	Enforce policies and legal instruments for compulsory primary school attendance for boys and girls.	Departments of education and legal affairs, media, NGOs, International agencies (UNESCO)
	Provide greater flexibility in the hours and location of schooling to allow girls who have domestic, child care and work responsibilities in the home to continue their education	
	Revise educational curricula to remove gender biases and introduce basic skill training in junior secondary schools level.	
	Review the policy on expulsion of pregnant teenagers from schools.	
	Provide specific work-related functional literacy and numeracy programmes for currently uneducated women.	
	Provide incentives and encouragement for girls to study science and technology subjects.	
Strengthen the institutional and legal framework dealing with gender issues	Introduce gender sensitization programmes at the community and national level to make man and women aware of existing gender inequalities and special problems facing women.	Specialized government and private agencies, NGOs, trade unions, International agencies
	Support the operations of NGOs addressing issues of human rights and democratic governance.	
	Introduce affirmative action/policies to increase participation of women at all levels of decision making.	

Cluster 3 Countries with a moderate economic activity rate of women, large gender disparities in sectoral distribution of labour, and high percentage of female headed households (Senegal, Gabon, Congo, Rwanda, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola, Mozambique and Swaziland).

Major challenges:

- Increasing women's sectoral mobility especially their participation in the industrial labour force;
- increasing access of women to secondary school education and training; and
- providing legal and social support to female headed households.

Constraints on women's employment:

- Invisibility of women in statistics due to the unrecorded contribution they make outside the recognized market operations;
- large gender disparities in sectoral distribution of labour;
- low productivity of female labour force in subsistence farming and informal sector activities due to the lack of access to productive resources and land ownership;
- stagnation of industrial growth;
- political instability and civil wars causing population displacement;
- high fertility rate and large proportion of female headed households restrict women's educational/training and employment opportunities
- limited participation in technical education and vocational training;
- lack of government commitment and policies to change gender discriminating practices based upon traditional views and customs about women's social and economic role.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase women's labour force participation, particularly in paid industrial employment.	Introduce labour and time saving technologies to reduce women's domestic workload and involvement in subsistence farming.	Relevant government departments and agencies, NGOs, trade unions, International Agencies (ECA, UNIDO, ITC, ILO)
	Provide basic training in book-keeping, time management, and in relevant production skills to women in household-based and non-formal enterprises targeted to the various industry sub-sectors such as food processing, leather industries and textile and garment manufacture.	
	Assist women in both rural and urban areas to form community based cooperatives and association.	

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase access of female students to technical education and vocational training	<p>Review and adapt credit schemes, mechanisms accessible to women entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Improve women's access to information about job opportunities through the creation of recruiting networks, counseling at schools, work information centres, and job placement programmes for women.</p> <p>Undertake in-depth studies on the impact on women of industrial restructuring, industrial relocation and trade agreements.</p>	Financial institutions, International Agencies, (UNIDO, UNDP, UNIFEM, ILO, ECA, WWB)
Strengthen the institutional and technical capacity of government and NGOs to represent the interests of women	<p>Provide incentives for girls to take up non-traditional women's studies and training which are connected to possible job opportunities.</p> <p>Use role models of women in non-traditional occupations.</p> <p>Sensitize employers and provide special incentives to increase women's access to in-service training.</p> <p>Reduce fertility rates and teenage pregnancies through sex education in schools and family and community oriented programmes.</p> <p>Devise and implement gender training programmes for government and NGOs officials to mainstream gender issues into development plans and projects formulation and implementation.</p> <p>Introduce affirmative action to increase women's participation at all levels of decision making them with the problems of women workers</p>	Specialized agencies, government departments, NGOs, media

Cluster 4 Sub-Saharan African countries with extremely low levels of social developments, relatively high female economic activity rate (Kenya, Zaire, Equatorial Guinea, Burundi, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Somalia).

Major challenges:

- Improving women's productivity in agriculture and income-earning activities.
- Increasing girls' access to education.
- Increasing women's literacy, knowledge and technical skills.

Major constraints:

- Political instability.
- Lack of gender-sensitive development strategy.
- Coping with absolute poverty.
- Women's lack of access to and control of productive resources.
- Women's lack of education and training in marketable skills.
- Lack of employment opportunities.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Devise gender-sensitive poverty alleviation policy.	Conduct an in-depth study of women's coping mechanism and identify factors which enhance women's capabilities.	Women's organizations, Ministry of Social Welfare, Non-governmental organizations
Increase women's potential for food self-sufficiency.	Provide on site training in the use of improved agricultural tools, fertilizer use and improved seeds and eliminate post harvest losses through improved storage facilities.	Ministry of Agriculture, Non-governmental organizations, international organizations (FAO, WFP, UNIDO)
Enhance women's education and training.	Identify factors that limit or enhance girls attendance, retention rates continuation, completion and specialization and target programmes that alleviate or eliminate constraints.	Women's organizations, Ministry of Education, international organizations (UNESCO, UNIDO, ILO)
	Devise a sustained public campaign on the importance of education for women by showing country specific links between education, employment, occupational mobility, income and household welfare.	Women's organizations, the media, Non-governmental organizations

Cluster 5 Countries with high rates of economic participation in tertiary and manufacturing sector (Morocco, Tunisia, Cape Verde, Egypt, Algeria, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya).

Major challenges:

- Maintaining and enhancing women's position in the economy.
- Increasing the visibility of women's labour force participation.
- Increasing women's functional literacy, skills and knowledge.

Major constraints:

- Invisibility of women's work due to socio-cultural factors and home based production processes.
- Most women in the formal sector are employed as casual workers.
- Low rates of female literacy, low female enrolment in technical education and training.
- High rates of female unemployment.
- Lack of access to decision making networks.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Increase visibility of women's participation in the labour force.	Ensure that all national economic and social statistics are desegregated by gender so as to increase visibility of the full extent of women's participation in economic and social life and their actual status in terms of income, health and education.	National Statistical Department of Labour
	Launch a sustained public awareness campaign using gender desegregated data to highlight women's actual status.	Media, women's organizations, Non-governmental organizations
Increase efficiency in the informal sector.	Provide training programmes in high technology skills, organization management, finance and marketing.	Vocational training institutes, UN agencies (ILO, ECA, UNIDO)
	Promote association of women entrepreneurs, a mutual support networks of information sharing and lobbying for legislation and improvement in employment condition. Devise credit schemes and make it easily accessible to women entrepreneurs.	Women's organizations, Non-governmental organizations, financial institutions

Increasing women's access to technical education, training and employment.

Encourage more women to attend technical education and training programmes. Facilitate the entry of more women to traditionally male dominated occupations as well as senior management positions.

Ministry of Education, educational institutions, employers training institutions, media

Cluster 6 Countries with high GDP and MVA per capita, low participation of women in agriculture but high participation rates in the tertiary sector (Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa).

Major challenges:

- Enabling women to cope with the shift to technology-intensive production and
- gaining access to higher positions of economic and political decision making.

Constraints on women's employment:

- High male-female occupational disparity;
- high male-female disparity in technology oriented education and training;
- cultural factors affecting employment and occupational mobility; and
- lack of access to decision making network.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Change employers' recruitment and training attitudes towards women employees to enhance occupational mobility	<p>Undertake gender sensitization of employers.</p> <p>Develop awareness campaigns to inform employers of the impact of changing market conditions on production technology and quality of labour force and benefits from investing in training of female industrial labour force within that context</p> <p>Develop and use role models of women in technical and managerial posts in industry</p> <p>Ratify and implement ILO and UN conventions to legally eliminate employment and occupational discrimination</p>	Department of industry, chambers of commerce and industry, trade unions, women's professional organizations, media, International agencies (UNIDO, ILO)
Reduce gender imbalances in technical education and training	Design and schedule training courses tailored to female workers' needs and provide necessary welfare support for women to attend	Departments of education, industry and women's affairs, employers, International organizations (UNIDO, ILO)

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Mainstreaming women's concerns in economic policies and planning	Provide counselling/career guidance in secondary schools about employment opportunities for women in higher industrial occupations	Departments of women's affairs, labour, industry and women's affairs, trade unions, NGOs, International and donor agencies
	Introduce affirmative action programmes in technical education and training	
	Create ministerial and inter-ministerial committees dealing with policy issues affecting female industrial labour force	
	Gender sensitization of staff in ministries and government organizations dealing with economic and industrial development issues	
	Increase active participation of women in trade unions	
	Affirmative action to increase women's access to all levels of decision making	

Cluster 7 Southern African countries with a moderate female economic activity rate but relatively high representation of women in manufacturing wage employment, high male labour force migration, and high female school enrolments (Botswana, Namibia and Lesotho).

Major challenges:

- Improving women's access to high levels of policy decision making;
- changing legal and institutional framework in support of women's economic role and more efficient use of female educated manpower; and
- lowering urban-rural inequalities.

Constraints on women's employment:

- gender based occupational segregation due to cultural stereotypes of appropriate gender roles;
- high male labour force migration restricts female labour force mobility;
- high fertility rates and young teenage pregnancies are obstacles to women's education/training and employment possibilities;
- large rural-urban disparities in female education achievements and job opportunities;

- legal and customary barriers to women's ownership rights and access to credit facilities; and
- lack of access to policy decision making.

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Reduce cultural and other barriers to occupational mobility and career advancement of female labour force	<p>Undertake campaigns to change cultural perceptions of gender stereotypes of work and family roles for women</p> <p>Promote and encourage women to enter traditionally male-dominated occupations, particularly in the trades and technical occupations</p> <p>Provide gender awareness programmes for women and men in the private sector, particularly employers and senior managers</p> <p>Develop networks among women in middle and senior levels of management and professional organizations</p> <p>Promote female role models working in non-traditional occupations</p>	Media, employers associations, women's affairs department, women's professional organizations, trade unions, schools and educational institutions
Reduce fertility rates and teenage pregnancies	<p>Introduce public campaigns about the implications of high and increasing teenage pregnancies and challenge the traditional views about female fertility</p> <p>Introduce sex education in schools and promote family counselling</p> <p>Introduce appropriate legislation protecting single mothers</p>	Departments of health, education, legal affairs, community development, and women's affairs, media, NGOs, International organizations (UNFPA, WHO, UNICEF)
Increase educational and employment opportunities for women in rural areas	<p>Introduce homestead economics programme including work-related skill training, organizational and financial support, health education, targeting teenage girls and school drop-outs</p> <p>Provide tailor-made training programmes in skill and entrepreneurial development and enhance women's access to credit facilities</p>	Departments of industry, education, health and women's affairs, training institutions, banks and financial intermediaries, NGOs, International organizations

Strategy	Proposals for Action	Actors
Reduce legal and institutional barriers to women's economic advancement	<p>Eliminate gender discrimination in the existing legislations influencing women's social and economic status</p> <p>Strengthen the capacity of government and non-government organizations dealing with women's issues</p> <p>Introduce gender sensitization programmes for officials in government and NGOs agencies</p> <p>Introduce affirmative action programmes to increase participation of women at all levels of decision making.</p>	Departments of legal and women's affairs, NGOs, donors

4.2 COMMON STRATEGIES AND ACTIONS AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL

With a few exceptions, all African countries are experiencing similar sets of fundamental developmental problems with varying degrees of gravity. In terms of social indicators, Africa, as a continent, scores very poorly. It has also one of the lowest levels of industrialization compared to other regions of the world. As a whole, it retains a comparatively high share of agriculture in GDP. The overwhelming importance of informal sector activities is another critical factor, because the market value of these activities is difficult to apprehend and because a considerable number of women producers are to be found in this sector. Therefore, compared to social-oriented actions, per se, such as raising education levels, health standards, providing community services, etc., the issues linked with the participation and role of women in manufacturing related activities take on a de facto "relative" importance. Nevertheless, a long-term view is being adopted by this study, i.e. economic prosperity and growth leading to a fairer re-distribution and distribution of revenues and incomes and a higher employment rate for both men and women. Women in Africa have already amply demonstrated their importance as the main food providers of the continent. They should also be at the central stage of the future development progresses of the continent.

A number of strategies have been identified at the level of the region as a whole, meaning that these strategies should be developed and implemented by regional or multi-national organizations and institutions. Some other types of strategies which appear to be common for all or for most of the clusters, such as in the area of human resource development, have not been retained as regional strategies; *stricto sensu*, in view of the fact that their application/implementation requires to meet the specific needs and requirements of a given specific situation, such as target group or sub-sectors concerned.

The paucity and non-reliability of data surrounding women's work is of particular concern in Africa. It is thus recommended that a number of further studies be carried out to fill in the gaps:

1. Identification of employment potential and skills enhancement needed in the light of global, regional and national transformation of the economy;
2. Integration in all forms of data collection, of indicators that record women's contribution to the economic and social life and their actual status in terms of income, health, education.
3. Identification of factors which enhance women's capabilities and mechanisms to cope with poverty in order to design gender-sensitive poverty alleviation policies and social integration measures through income generating activities;
4. The impact of AIDS on female human resource development, particularly related to re-training

In terms of the legislative framework, a regional review of legislation and policies should be undertaken to ensure women's access to productive resources including land, credit and skills in order to increase their productivity and visibility in agricultural and non-agricultural production.

A number of actions are also required at the regional level to generally increase the level of sensitization of the society and the entrepreneurial sector in particular. To this end, the following measures are identified:

- 1.Reduce teenage pregnancies through sex education in schools and family and community oriented programmes
- 2.Devise sustained public campaigns on the importance of education for women by showing country specific links between income, education, women's participation in the productive sector and the advancement of socio-economic status of the population
3. Promote gender sensitization of employers
 - use role models of women in technical and managerial posts in industry
 - role of women and benefits from training under changing market conditions, technology and quality of labour force
- 4.Design networks of services to improve women's access to information opportunities in industrial paid employment: Information centres, job placement programmes, recruitment networks, school counselling

Support mechanisms at the regional or sub-regional level should also be strengthened in such fields as:

1. Assist women in rural and urban areas to join cooperatives and to strengthen their mutual support networks at the community level
2. Review and adapt credit schemes and mechanisms to make them more accessible to women entrepreneurs in the formal and informal sectors
3. Support the creation and functioning of women's business and professional associations through capacity building programmes to reduce barriers to occupational mobility
4. Devise most efficient mechanisms for providing integral technical assistance to the informal sector, including whenever necessary, high technology skills, organizational management, finance and marketing, linked to credit

In the area of human resource development, the production of model training manuals for women enterprises could be further developed for selected sub-sectors, following the UNIDO manual for the training of women entrepreneurs in the field of food processing. These manuals should then be adapted to the conditions of the countries where those training programmes would be implemented.

Finally, in terms of industrial infrastructure support and technical assistance for productive activities, it would be important to design and implement gender training activities and programmes to mainstream gender into development plans, industrial policies, project formulation and implementation.

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Techniques of statistical analysis applied

Cluster analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that groups an observed sample population into relatively homogeneous classes, thus producing a classification. Objects are partitioned in such a way that they are similar to each other within one group but different from objects contained in another cluster¹. Different clustering techniques exist, each with specific characteristics. Two of the methods occurring most frequently in the cluster analysis literature were employed: Ward's Minimum Variance Method and the Average Linkage Method. Both belong to the hierarchical methods in which one cluster may be entirely contained within another (larger) cluster, but which permit no other kind of overlap. The number of clusters to be distinguished depends on the requirements of the analysis, and is determined deliberately (or according to the required level of aggregation).

Results presented here are based on Ward's method, which proved to yield consistently satisfactory results. In successive steps, this method joins together (or considers to be most similar) objects that add least to the sum of squared distances between all objects in a group.

Cluster analysis can be used to identify groups of countries and their main characteristics with regard to women's status. But it is essentially a descriptive tool which does not provide information on how and to what extent the different variables have a (statistical) relationship such as correlation analysis with the status of women; nor does it indicate the statistical relationships which may exist between the variables. For this purpose, other statistical analyses and principal analysis were used.

Factor analysis, another tool of multivariate analysis, identifies latent variables or influences which explain the correlations or covariations occurring within a set of variables. The factors are hypothetical constructs which cannot actually be observed, but are represented in and underlay the original variables². In this study, factor analysis helped to identify major influences on the status of women which are represented in the data set and can be assumed to have a significant impact on the observed clustering pattern.

The factor pattern resulting from an analysis (see Section 2 of this Annex) indicates the variables which are most strongly reflected in these factors. These are the variables with the highest *loadings* - a concept similar to the correlation of the variables with the factor. The *eigenvalue* indicates how much of the variance in the original set of variables is accounted for and explained by one factor. Factors with eigenvalues below 1 are generally eliminated from the analysis.

Principal component analysis is based on similar principles as factor analysis. It proved particularly valuable in exploratory data review, and was used to reduce the number of variables for regression, clustering and other types of analysis.

¹ See Everitt, 1980, for a review of the methods and limitations of cluster analysis

² See Berlage/Terweduwe 1988.

Regression analysis is another method of measuring relationships between variables, in this case between a dependent or response variable and one or more independent or predictor variables. This statistical method is mainly used for purposes of prediction, model specification and parameter estimation (Gunst/Mason, 1980). It can also be applied in an exploratory fashion to look for empirical relationships between variables, and to assess the extent to which one variable can be predicted on the basis of knowledge about another variable.

The value of a dependent variable can be derived from knowledge of the score of one independent variable by *simple linear regression*. The degree of linear relationship between these variables can thus be examined. *Multiple regression analysis* measures the extent to which one dependent or response variable can be predicted on the basis of more than one independent variable. In the present study, regression analysis was only used to a very limited extent.

Correlation analysis measures the extent to which two variables covary together, i.e. to which one variable can be predicted from the other. It is used to identify the mutual relationship or similarity of two variables. In the present study, it was applied to identify relationships between indicators across and within the sub-systems and was particularly useful in reducing the original number of indicators for the final cluster analysis.

A value of the coefficient of correlation r close to 1 indicates a high positive correlation between two variables, if it is close to -1, the correlation is high and negative. If the value of r is 0 or close to 0, no relationship exists. While a correlation of 0.7 is generally regarded as high, interpretation of the extent of correlation depends to a large extent on the "typical" relationship between two variables, and thus on judgement³. Correlation analysis does not indicate the type of relationship between two variables, or whether there is a direct or indirect relationship between two variables. Variables can also have a curvilinear association which must be measured by expressing the variables in linear terms. The extent of the relationship between two variables can also be expressed through the *coefficient of determination* equal to r square. If the correlation co-efficient r is above 0.7 or below -0.7, then r square is more than 0.5 (in fact 0.49). That means that around 50 per cent or more of the variance of one variable can be predicted through the other variable, and vice versa.

³ Jaeger 1990, p. 66.

Number	Name	Sources	Reasons for non-inclusion in cluster analysis
I. LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS			
Variable 1.1 Size and distribution of EAP			
1.1.1	Women's economic activity rate *	SESCA (1), ILO (3)	
1.1.2	Gender gap in economic activity rate*	SESCA, ILO	
1.1.5	Women's participation rate in the agricultural sector*	ASEI (1), ILO	
1.1.6	Gender gap in agricultural activities *	ASEI, ILO	
1.1.7	Women's participation rate in the tertiary sector*	ASEI, WISTAT (2)	
1.1.8	Gender gap in tertiary activities *	ASEI, WISTAT	
1.1.10	Women's share in total EAP	SESCA, ILO	Inconsistency in sources
1.2.1	Women's employment rate	WISTAT, ILO, ECA	poor coverage
1.2.2	Gender gap in employment	WISTAT, ILO, ECA	poor coverage
1.2.3	Women's employment rate in non-agricultural activity		no coverage
1.2.4	Gender gap in non-agricultural activities		no coverage
1.2.5	Women's employment ratio in tertiary sector	ILO	poor coverage
1.2.9	Women's share in employment	WISTAT, ILO, ECA	poor coverage
II. INDUSTRIAL LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS			
Variable 2.1 Size and distribution			
2.1.1.	Participation rate of women in manufacturing *	ASEI, ILO	
2.1.2	Gender gap in industrial (manufacturing) activities *	ASEI, ILO	
2.1.3	Participation rate of women in manufacturing employment	ILO, ECA	poor coverage
2.1.4	Gender gap in manufacturing employment	ILO, ECA	poor coverage
2.1.11	Women's share in manufacturing employment	ILO, ECA	poor coverage
III. ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL ENVIRONMENT			
Variable 3.1 Level of economic development			
3.1.1.	Logarithm of GDP/capita *	SESCA, UNIDO	
3.1.2	Share of the agricultural sector in GDP*	SESCA, UNIDO	
3.1.3	Share of the tertiary sector in GDP*	SESCA, UNIDO	
3.1.4	Share of MVA in GDP*	SESCA, UNIDO	
3.1.5	Share of exports in GDP	UNIDO (4)	not meaningful for analysis
3.1.6	F/M wage ratio in agriculture	IFAD (5), ILO	inadequate coverage
3.1.7	Inflation rate	UNIDO	data unreliable
3.1.8	Share of government expenditure in GDP*	SESCA, WB (6), UNDP (7)	
3.1.9	GDP / capita	UNIDO	used in cluster tables
3.1.12	Average index of food production per capita	SESCA	inadequate coverage
3.1.13	Debt service ratio*	UNIDO, Estimates	
3.1.14	Food imports as percentage of total imports	SESCA	inadequate coverage
Variable 3.2 Level of industrial development			
3.2.1	Logarithm of MVA/capita*	UNIDO	
3.2.2	Share of manufactured goods in total exports *	UNIDO, ECA	
3.2.4	Share of metal, machinery and equipment products (38) in total MVA	UNIDO	inadequate coverage
3.2.9	Share of the food and beverages sub-sector (31) in total MVA	UNIDO	inadequate coverage
3.2.10	Share of the textile and leather sub-sector (32) in total MVA	UNIDO	inadequate coverage
Variable 3.3 Infrastructure			
3.3.1	Length of railways per 1000 square kilometres	SESCA, ASEI	not meaningful for analysis
3.3.2	Length of road per 1000 square kilometres	SESCA, ASEI	not meaningful for analysis
3.3.3	Number of radio receivers per 1000 inhabitants	ASEI	not meaningful for analysis
3.3.5	Government expenditure on education	SESCA	covered by 3.1.8
3.3.6	Basic needs index	IFAD	inadequate coverage
3.3.7	Government expenditure on health	ASEI	covered by 3.1.8
IV. SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS			
Variable 4.1 Size and distribution of population			
4.1.1	Urbanization *	SESCA, WISTAT	
4.1.3	Gender gap of life expectancy*	WISTAT	
4.1.4	Total fertility (births per woman)*	ECA, WB	
4.1.5	Mean age at first marriage for women	WISTAT, ECA	used in cluster tables
4.1.6	Gender gap in legal marriage age	WISTAT	inadequate coverage
4.1.8	Female headed households*	IFAD, ECA, Estimates	
4.1.9	Dependency ratio	ASEI	inadequate coverage
4.1.10	Women's status index	IFAD	inadequate coverage

Variable 4.2 Access to education			
4.2.1	Gender gap in literacy rate*	ASEI, ECA, Estimates	used in cluster tables
4.2.2	Female primary enrolment rate *	ASEI, WISTAT, ECA, Estimates	
4.2.3	Gender gap in primary school enrolment	ASEI, WISTAT	
4.2.4	Female secondary enrolment ratio *	WISTAT, WB	
4.2.5	Gender gap in secondary school enrolment *	ECA, WISTAT	
4.2.6	Female tertiary enrolment ratio	WISTAT, WB	
4.2.7	Gender gap in tertiary enrolment	WISTAT, ESCWA	
V. POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT			
Variable 5.1 Distribution of power			
5.1.1	Parliamentary representation	WISTAT, IPU (8), Bowker-Saur (9)	inadequate coverage
5.1.2	Cabinet representation	WISTAT	inadequate coverage
VI. LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK (qualitative = dummy variables)			
Variable 6.1 Legal protection 0 = not ratified; 1 = ratified			
6.1.1	Ratification of ILO Convention 100*	ILO	
6.1.2	Ratification of ILO Convention 111*	ILO-1993 (10)	
6.1.3	Ratification to CEDAW*	ILO-1993	
* included in cluster analysis			
<p>(1) Database of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) supplemented by the following publications: Economic Commission for Africa. (1993): Survey of Economic and Social Conditions in Africa, 1992-1991. Addis Ababa: UNECA. Economic Commission for Africa (1992): African Socio-economic Indicators. Addis Ababa: UNECA.</p> <p>(2) Database of the United Nations on Women's Indicators and Statistics (WISTAT)</p> <p>(3) Database of the International Labour Organisation, Geneva</p> <p>(4) Database of the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (Industrial Statistics Branch IRD/STAT and Industrial Development Review Informations Base)</p> <p>(5) Database of the International Fund for Agricultural Development</p> <p>(6) The World Bank 1993: World Development Report. New York: Oxford University Press.</p> <p>(7) United Nations Development Programme (1993): Human Development Report 1993. New York: Oxford University Press.</p> <p>(8) International Parliamentary Union (1993): Les femmes au Parlement au Juin 1993. Geneva. (Wall chart)</p> <p>(9) Bowker-Saur (1991): Who's Who of Women in World Politics. First Edition. London.</p> <p>(10) International Labour Organisation (1993) : Lists of Ratifications by Convention and by Country (as at 31 December 1992). International Labour Conference. 80th Session. Geneva.</p>			

Annex C**Results of Multiple Correlation Analysis**

OBS	RC	CC	COUNTRY
1	1	12	Algeria
2	1	24	Angola
3	1	72	Botswana
4	1	108	Burundi
5	1	120	Cameroon
6	1	132	Cape Verde
7	1	140	Central African Republic
8	1	148	Chad
9	1	174	Comoros
10	1	178	Congo
11	1	180	Zaire
12	1	204	Benin
13	1	226	Equatorial Guinea
14	1	230	Ethiopia (Former)
15	1	262	Djibouti
16	1	266	Gabon
17	1	270	Gambia
18	1	288	Ghana
19	1	324	Guinea
20	1	384	Cote d'Ivoire
21	1	404	Kenya
22	1	426	Lesotho
23	1	430	Liberia
24	1	434	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
25	1	450	Madagascar
26	1	454	Malawi
27	1	466	Mali
28	1	478	Mauritania
29	1	480	Mauritius
30	1	504	Morocco
31	1	508	Mozambique
32	1	516	Namibia
33	1	562	Niger
34	1	566	Nigeria
35	1	624	Guinea-Bissau
36	1	646	Rwanda
37	1	678	Sao Tome and Principe
38	1	686	Senegal
39	1	690	Seychelles
40	1	694	Sierra Leone
41	1	706	Somalia
42	1	710	South Africa
43	1	716	Zimbabwe
44	1	736	Sudan
45	1	748	Swaziland
46	1	768	Togo
47	1	788	Tunisia
48	1	800	Uganda
49	1	818	Egypt
50	1	834	United Republic of Tanzania
51	1	854	Burkina Faso
52	1	894	Zambia

Correlation Analysis

27 'VAR' Variables:

11X1X1	11X1X2	11X1X5	11X1X6	11X1X7	11X1X8	12X1X1	12X1X2	13X1X1	13X1X2	13X1X3	13X1X4
13X1X8	13X1X13	13X2X1	13X2X2	14X1X1	14X1X3	14X1X4	14X1X8	14X2X1	14X2X2	14X2X4	14X2X5
16X1X1	16X1X2	16X1X3									

Simple Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Sum	Minimum	Maximum
11X1X1	52	0.300482	0.120942	15.825041	0.041700	0.555469
11X1X2	52	0.423556	0.218744	22.024887	0.068314	0.904366
11X1X5	52	0.686482	0.263043	35.697043	0.050000	0.978000
11X1X6	52	-0.158065	0.407501	-8.219401	-1.386972	0.808429
11X1X7	52	0.233563	0.187479	12.145251	0.011000	0.719000
11X1X8	52	0.083479	0.524147	4.340932	-1.910995	0.881720
12X1X1	52	0.077115	0.099929	4.009976	0.002000	0.530000
12X1X2	52	0.578119	0.330516	30.062204	-0.481481	0.957447
13X1X1	52	6.243828	0.997027	324.679077	4.406719	8.534050
13X1X2	52	0.296438	0.159081	15.414762	0.033100	0.688771
13X1X3	52	0.440371	0.108611	22.899293	0.165415	0.796000
13X1X4	52	0.110340	0.078537	5.737660	0.008000	0.400400
13X1X8	52	0.277621	0.146212	14.436278	0.040000	0.890000
13X1X13	52	0.177735	0.163842	9.242235	0.010000	0.871429
13X2X1	52	3.708355	1.616757	192.834474	-0.562119	6.494827
13X2X2	52	0.255177	0.257859	13.269200	0.000600	0.896400
14X1X1	52	0.352975	0.159958	18.354698	0.058000	0.815000
14X1X3	52	-0.066674	0.023631	-3.467044	-0.133231	-0.018692
14X1X4	52	6.153654	1.161325	319.890000	1.900000	8.000000
14X1X8	52	0.262019	0.127826	13.625000	0.050000	0.600000
14X2X1	52	0.293751	0.212544	15.275071	-0.354167	0.776596
14X2X2	52	0.695938	0.354852	36.188797	0.100000	1.530000
14X2X4	52	0.208561	0.191987	10.845168	0.010000	0.861978
14X2X5	52	0.352494	0.253333	18.329712	-0.428571	0.900000
16X1X1	52	0.634615	0.486236	33.000000	0	1.000000
16X1X2	52	0.692308	0.466041	36.000000	0	1.000000
16X1X3	52	0.634615	0.486236	33.000000	0	1.000000

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

11X1X7

13X1X2	11X1X1	14X1X1	11X1X6	12X1X2	14X2X5	14X2X2	13X1X3	14X2X1
-0.52705	-0.51712	0.51463	0.45440	-0.39966	-0.39688	0.39308	0.33575	-0.28401
0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0007	0.0033	0.0036	0.0039	0.0150	0.0413
13X1X4	16X1X2	13X2X2	14X1X3	13X1X8	14X1X8	16X1X3	13X1X13	16X1X1
0.16524	-0.09050	0.08533	-0.08518	-0.07776	-0.06900	-0.04400	-0.03322	0.00934
0.2417	0.5235	0.5475	0.5482	0.5838	0.6270	0.7568	0.8152	0.9476

11X1X8

11X1X8	11X1X7	11X1X5	11X1X6	12X1X2	12X1X1	11X1X2	11X1X1	14X1X4
1.00000	-0.68670	0.64433	-0.56526	0.48551	-0.41021	-0.38947	0.38101	0.32258
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.0025	0.0043	0.0053	0.0197
14X2X4	13X1X8	13X1X1	13X1X2	14X2X2	13X2X1	14X1X8	14X1X1	14X2X5
-0.30753	0.27956	-0.25157	0.22988	-0.21709	-0.20831	0.15675	-0.15291	0.14860
0.0266	0.0447	0.0720	0.1011	0.1221	0.1384	0.2671	0.2792	0.2931
13X1X3	14X1X3	14X2X1	16X1X1	16X1X2	13X1X13	16X1X3	13X2X2	13X1X4
-0.14703	-0.13463	0.12585	-0.12462	-0.07890	0.06941	-0.06663	-0.04468	-0.00261
0.2983	0.3413	0.3740	0.3787	0.5782	0.6249	0.6388	0.7531	0.9853

12X1X1

12X1X1	11X1X5	12X1X2	14X1X4	11X1X7	11X1X2	11X1X1	14X2X4	13X2X1
1.00000	-0.78631	-0.73436	-0.64433	0.57070	0.56762	-0.51299	0.50413	0.43633
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0012
13X1X1	14X1X1	11X1X8	11X1X6	13X1X2	14X2X2	14X2X5	14X1X8	13X1X3
0.43226	0.42455	-0.41021	0.39877	-0.38489	0.28326	-0.24435	-0.23827	0.23712
0.0014	0.0017	0.0025	0.0034	0.0048	0.0419	0.0609	0.0889	0.0905
14X1X3	16X1X3	13X1X4	14X2X1	16X1X2	13X1X13	13X2X2	16X1X1	13X1X8
0.23525	0.20508	0.19175	-0.17374	0.17004	0.15105	0.13139	0.06414	-0.00571
0.0932	0.1447	0.1733	0.2180	0.2281	0.2851	0.3532	0.6515	0.9680

12X1X2

12X1X2	12X1X1	11X1X5	11X1X6	11X1X2	11X1X8	11X1X7	11X1X1	14X1X4
1.00000	-0.73436	0.56447	-0.51939	-0.49368	0.48551	-0.39966	0.38784	0.38486
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002	0.0003	0.0033	0.0045	0.0048
14X1X8	14X2X4	13X2X1	16X1X3	16X1X2	13X1X1	13X1X8	13X1X4	13X1X13
0.37283	-0.27151	-0.22570	-0.22575	-0.16471	-0.14717	0.13979	-0.13801	-0.13736
0.0065	0.0515	0.0669	0.1076	0.2433	0.2978	0.3230	0.3292	0.3315
16X1X1	14X1X3	13X1X2	14X1X1	13X1X3	14X2X5	14X2X2	14X2X1	13X2X2
-0.13585	-0.13458	0.12926	-0.08283	-0.07115	0.05304	-0.03423	0.03288	-0.02060
0.3369	0.3415	0.3611	0.5594	0.6162	0.7088	0.8096	0.8170	0.8848

13X1X1

13X1X1	13X2X1	13X1X2	11X1X5	11X1X7	14X2X4	14X1X1	14X2X2	14X1X4
1.00000	0.80333	-0.73657	-0.61735	0.61604	0.60311	0.58515	0.51660	-0.50087
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002
11X1X1	11X1X2	12X1X1	13X1X3	14X2X5	11X1X8	13X1X4	13X1X8	13X2X2
-0.47179	0.46530	0.43226	0.36544	-0.32336	-0.25157	0.22209	0.21671	0.19740
0.0004	0.0005	0.0014	0.0077	0.0194	0.0720	0.1136	0.1248	0.1607

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

13X1X1	14X2X1	13X1X13	12X1X2	16X1X1	14X1X3	16X1X2	11X1X6	14X1X8	16X1X3
-0.17632	-0.15953	-0.14717	-0.10102	-0.09451	-0.09308	0.08167	0.08167	-0.03065	-0.01472
0.2112	0.2586	0.2978	0.4761	0.5051	0.5116	0.5649	0.5649	0.8292	0.9175
13X1X2	13X2X1	14X2X4	13X1X3	14X1X1	14X2X2	11X1X5	14X2X2	11X1X5	11X1X7
1.00000	-0.73657	-0.63629	-0.58780	-0.56694	-0.54991	0.53610	0.53610	0.53610	-0.52705
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
14X2X5	11X1X4	11X1X1	13X1X4	12X1X1	11X1X8	13X1X8	13X2X2	13X2X2	13X2X2
0.52450	0.48649	0.41769	-0.39910	-0.38489	0.22988	-0.22476	-0.20903	-0.20903	-0.20903
0.0001	0.0003	0.0013	0.0034	0.0048	0.1011	0.1100	0.1370	0.1370	0.1370
14X2X1	16X1X3	16X1X1	13X1X13	11X1X6	14X1X8	14X1X3	16X1X2	16X1X2	16X1X2
0.19384	0.14460	0.12926	0.10163	-0.09556	-0.04506	0.03399	0.01432	0.01432	0.01432
0.1685	0.3064	0.3611	0.4734	0.5004	0.7511	0.8109	0.8197	0.8197	0.8197
13X1X3	13X1X2	13X2X1	14X2X5	14X1X4	13X1X1	11X1X7	13X1X1	11X1X7	11X1X5
1.00000	-0.58780	0.40016	-0.38335	-0.37621	0.36544	0.33575	0.33575	0.33575	-0.32810
0.0	0.0001	0.0005	0.0050	0.0060	0.0077	0.0150	0.0150	0.0150	0.0176
14X2X4	11X1X2	12X1X1	11X1X1	13X1X8	14X2X2	16X1X3	11X1X8	11X1X8	11X1X8
0.31919	0.24883	0.23712	-0.22201	0.18485	0.17473	-0.16053	-0.14703	-0.14703	-0.14703
0.0211	0.0777	0.0905	0.1137	0.1896	0.2154	0.2556	0.2983	0.2983	0.2983
13X1X13	14X2X1	14X1X3	12X1X2	11X1X6	16X1X1	13X1X4	16X1X2	16X1X2	16X1X2
-0.11115	0.08215	-0.07261	-0.07115	0.06831	-0.06732	0.02394	-0.00180	-0.00180	-0.00180
0.4328	0.5626	0.6045	0.6182	0.6304	0.6354	0.8662	0.9899	0.9899	0.9899
13X1X4	13X2X1	14X2X4	14X2X5	14X2X2	14X1X4	14X1X8	14X2X1	14X2X1	14X2X1
1.00000	0.49711	0.33235	-0.32389	0.30779	-0.27543	0.26807	0.25918	0.25918	0.25918
0.0	0.0002	0.0034	0.0161	0.0264	0.0481	0.0547	0.0635	0.0635	0.0635
11X1X6	13X1X1	12X1X1	11X1X7	12X1X2	14X1X1	11X1X2	16X1X2	16X1X2	16X1X2
0.22437	0.22209	0.19175	0.16524	-0.13801	0.13712	0.11095	0.09553	0.09553	0.09553
0.1098	0.1136	0.1423	0.1733	0.3292	0.3324	0.4336	0.5005	0.5005	0.5005
16X1X3	11X1X1	14X1X3	13X1X3	13X1X8	13X2X2	16X1X1	11X1X8	11X1X8	11X1X8
0.09363	-0.06791	0.04501	0.02394	0.01473	0.01394	-0.01204	-0.00261	-0.00261	-0.00261
0.5091	0.6324	0.7514	0.8662	0.9174	0.9219	0.9325	0.9853	0.9853	0.9853
13X1X8	11X1X8	13X1X1	14X2X5	14X1X3	11X1X6	13X1X3	13X2X1	13X2X1	13X2X1
1.00000	0.27956	0.21671	-0.21450	-0.21154	-0.20213	0.18485	0.18253	0.18253	0.18253
0.0	0.0447	0.1100	0.1228	0.1322	0.1507	0.1896	0.1953	0.1953	0.1953
12X1X2	16X1X2	14X2X2	11X1X7	13X2X2	16X1X3	14X1X1	13X1X13	13X1X13	13X1X13
0.13979	-0.10024	0.08190	-0.07776	0.07370	-0.07322	0.06882	-0.06689	-0.06689	-0.06689
0.3230	0.4795	0.5638	0.5838	0.6036	0.6059	0.6278	0.6375	0.6375	0.6375
11X1X5	11X1X1	14X2X1	16X1X1	14X1X8	13X1X4	12X1X1	14X2X4	14X2X4	14X2X4
0.06656	0.06564	-0.04939	0.02880	0.02440	0.01473	-0.00571	-0.00216	-0.00216	-0.00216
0.6392	0.6439	0.7281	0.8394	0.8637	0.9174	0.9680	0.9878	0.9878	0.9878

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

13X1X13

13X1X13 1.00000 0.0	13X2X2 -0.30595 0.0274	14X1X3 0.21492 0.1260	13X2X1 -0.16028 0.2563	13X1X1 -0.15953 0.2586	12X1X1 0.15105 0.2851	12X1X2 -0.13736 0.3315	11X1X6 0.13278 0.3480	16X1X2 0.12676 0.3705
13X1X3 -0.11115 0.4328	16X1X3 0.10401 0.4631	13X1X2 0.10163 0.4734	14X1X1 -0.10005 0.4803	16X1X1 0.09953 0.4827	14X1X8 -0.07816 0.5818	11X1X8 0.06941 0.6249	13X1X8 -0.06689 0.6375	13X1X4 0.06332 0.6557
14X2X2 -0.05611 0.6928	11X1X1 -0.03802 0.7890	11X1X7 -0.03322 0.8152	14X2X5 0.03278 0.8175	14X2X4 -0.02468 0.8621	11X1X5 -0.02249 0.8742	11X1X2 0.01856 0.8961	14X1X4 -0.00718 0.9597	14X2X1 0.00158 0.9911

13X2X1

13X2X1 1.00000 0.0	13X1X1 0.80333 0.0001	13X1X2 -0.70462 0.0001	11X1X5 -0.56221 0.0001	14X2X4 0.53461 0.0001	11X1X7 0.53424 0.0001	14X1X1 0.51969 0.0001	13X1X4 0.49711 0.0002	14X1X4 -0.47297 0.0004
11X1X2 0.45393 0.0007	12X1X1 0.43633 0.0012	11X1X1 -0.41404 0.0023	13X1X3 0.40016 0.0033	14X2X5 -0.36215 0.0083	14X2X2 0.35057 0.0108	12X1X2 -0.25610 0.0669	11X1X8 -0.20831 0.1384	11X1X6 0.19458 0.1669
16X1X3 0.18983 0.1777	13X1X8 0.18253 0.1953	16X1X1 -0.16674 0.2374	13X1X13 -0.16028 0.2583	13X2X2 0.14574 0.3026	14X2X1 -0.13989 0.3226	14X1X8 -0.12547 0.3754	16X1X2 0.06636 0.6402	14X1X3 -0.05486 0.6993

13X2X2

13X2X2 1.00000 0.0	13X1X13 -0.30595 0.0274	14X1X4 -0.25762 0.0652	16X1X2 -0.24213 0.0837	13X1X2 -0.20903 0.1370	13X1X1 0.19740 0.1607	14X2X1 -0.18638 0.1859	16X1X3 -0.14595 0.3019	13X2X1 0.14574 0.3026
14X2X5 -0.14132 0.3176	12X1X1 0.13139 0.3532	11X1X5 -0.11321 0.4242	14X2X4 0.09439 0.5057	11X1X7 0.08533 0.5475	16X1X1 -0.08508 0.5487	13X1X8 0.07370 0.6036	13X1X3 0.07351 0.6045	11X1X2 0.05623 0.6921
14X1X3 -0.04650 0.7434	11X1X8 -0.04468 0.7531	11X1X1 -0.04429 0.7552	11X1X6 0.04220 0.7864	14X1X1 0.02757 0.8462	12X1X2 -0.02060 0.8848	14X2X2 0.02039 0.8859	14X1X8 -0.01810 0.8987	13X1X4 0.01394 0.9219

14X1X1

14X1X1 1.00000 0.0	13X1X1 0.58515 0.0001	13X1X2 -0.56694 0.0001	11X1X5 -0.53405 0.0001	13X2X1 0.51969 0.0001	11X1X7 0.51463 0.0001	11X1X1 -0.47897 0.0003	11X1X2 0.46894 0.0005	13X1X3 0.46706 0.0005
14X2X4 0.44992 0.0008	12X1X1 0.42455 0.0017	14X1X4 -0.41016 0.0025	14X2X2 0.18573 0.1874	16X1X1 -0.17611 0.2117	11X1X8 -0.15291 0.2792	14X2X1 -0.13997 0.3225	13X1X4 0.13712 0.3324	14X2X5 -0.13101 0.3546
13X1X13 -0.10005 0.4803	16X1X2 0.08467 0.5507	12X1X2 -0.08283 0.5594	14X1X8 -0.08269 0.5600	13X1X8 0.06882 0.6278	16X1X3 0.06878 0.6280	11X1X6 -0.05512 0.6979	14X1X3 -0.03794 0.7895	13X2X2 0.02757 0.8462

14X1X3

14X1X3 1.00000 0.0	16X1X2 0.42657 0.0016	16X1X3 0.36926 0.0071	11X1X2 0.24018 0.0863	12X1X1 0.23525 0.0932	13X1X13 0.21492 0.1260	13X1X8 -0.21154 0.1322	11X1X1 -0.20915 0.1367	14X1X4 0.18775 0.1826
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Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

14X1X3

14X2X1	11X1X8	12X1X2	14X2X2	13X1X1	14X1X8	11X1X7	13X1X3	14X2X4
0.14915	-0.13463	-0.13458	-0.12215	-0.09451	-0.08535	-0.08518	-0.07261	0.05668
0.2913	0.3413	0.3415	0.3883	0.5051	0.5474	0.5482	0.6089	0.6898
13X2X1	13X2X2	13X1X4	14X1X1	13X1X2	16X1X1	11X1X6	14X2X5	11X1X5
-0.05486	-0.04650	0.04501	-0.03794	0.03399	0.03363	0.02769	0.01570	-0.01330
0.6993	0.7434	0.7514	0.7895	0.8109	0.8129	0.8455	0.9120	0.9255

14X1X4

14X1X4	11X1X5	12X1X1	11X1X7	14X2X4	13X1X1	13X1X2	13X2X1	11X1X2
1.00000	0.70477	-0.64433	-0.63980	-0.53065	-0.50087	0.48649	-0.47297	-0.45671
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002	0.0003	0.0004	0.0007
14X2X5	14X1X1	12X1X2	11X1X1	11X1X6	14X2X2	13X1X3	14X2X1	11X1X8
0.41785	-0.41016	0.38486	0.38399	-0.38113	-0.38028	-0.37821	0.33060	0.32258
0.0021	0.0025	0.0048	0.0049	0.0053	0.0054	0.0060	0.0167	0.0197
13X1X4	13X2X2	14X1X3	16X1X3	16X1X2	16X1X1	14X1X8	13X1X8	13X1X13
-0.27543	-0.25782	0.18775	0.14339	0.11117	-0.08579	0.06353	-0.02911	-0.00718
0.0481	0.0652	0.1826	0.3105	0.4327	0.5454	0.6546	0.8377	0.9597

14X1X8

14X1X8	12X1X2	14X2X2	13X1X4	13X1X3	12X1X1	14X2X1	14X2X5	11X1X2
1.00000	0.37283	0.31855	0.26807	-0.26190	-0.23827	-0.22050	-0.20101	-0.18439
0.0	0.0065	0.0214	0.0547	0.0807	0.0889	0.1162	0.1530	0.1907
11X1X6	11X1X8	16X1X2	16X1X3	11X1X5	13X2X1	11X1X1	14X1X3	14X1X1
-0.16366	0.15675	-0.14900	-0.14406	0.12574	-0.12547	0.09380	-0.08535	-0.08269
0.2463	0.2671	0.2918	0.3083	0.3744	0.3754	0.5092	0.5474	0.5600
13X1X13	11X1X7	16X1X1	14X1X4	13X1X2	14X2X4	13X1X1	13X1X8	13X2X2
-0.07816	-0.06900	0.06573	0.06353	-0.04506	0.04257	-0.03065	0.02440	-0.01810
0.5818	0.6270	0.6434	0.6546	0.7511	0.7644	0.8292	0.8637	0.8987

14X2X1

14X2X1	14X2X5	14X2X2	16X1X2	14X2X4	14X1X4	11X1X7	11X1X5	16X1X3
1.00000	0.55341	-0.40810	0.40617	-0.37036	0.33060	-0.28401	0.27928	0.26531
0.0	0.0001	0.0027	0.0028	0.0069	0.0167	0.0413	0.0450	0.0573
13X1X4	14X1X8	13X1X2	13X2X2	13X1X1	11X1X1	12X1X1	14X1X3	14X1X1
-0.25918	-0.22050	0.19384	-0.18638	-0.17632	0.17583	-0.17374	0.14915	-0.13997
0.0635	0.1162	0.1685	0.1859	0.2112	0.2124	0.2180	0.2913	0.3223
13X2X1	11X1X6	11X1X8	11X1X2	13X1X3	16X1X1	13X1X8	12X1X2	13X1X13
-0.13989	-0.13609	0.12585	-0.11579	0.08215	0.05596	-0.04939	0.03288	0.00158
0.3226	0.3361	0.3740	0.4137	0.5626	0.6936	0.7281	0.8170	0.9911

14X2X2

14X2X2	14X2X4	13X1X2	14X2X5	13X1X1	14X2X1	16X1X3	11X1X5	11X1X7
1.00000	0.64102	-0.54991	-0.52341	0.51660	-0.40810	-0.39663	-0.39564	0.39308
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0027	0.0036	0.0037	0.0039
14X1X4	13X2X1	14X1X8	13X1X4	12X1X1	11X1X1	11X1X8	11X1X2	16X1X1
-0.38028	0.35057	0.31855	0.30779	0.28326	-0.25216	-0.21709	0.21286	0.20729
0.0054	0.0108	0.0214	0.0264	0.0419	0.0713	0.1221	0.1298	0.1403

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

14X2X2

16X1X2	14X1X1	13X1X3	14X1X3	13X1X8	13X1X13	12X1X2	11X1X6	13X2X2
-0.20215	0.18573	0.17473	-0.12215	0.08190	-0.05611	-0.03423	0.03273	0.02039
0.1507	0.1874	0.2154	0.3883	0.5638	0.6928	0.8096	0.8178	0.8859

14X2X4

14X2X4	11X1X5	11X1X7	14X2X2	13X1X2	13X1X1	14X2X5	13X2X1	14X1X4
1.00000	-0.68390	0.67359	0.64102	-0.63629	0.80311	-0.59439	0.53461	-0.53065
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
11X1X2	12X1X1	11X1X1	14X1X1	14X2X1	13X1X4	13X1X3	11X1X8	12X1X2
0.50678	0.50413	-0.45210	0.44992	-0.37036	0.33235	0.31919	-0.30753	-0.27151
0.0001	0.0001	0.0008	0.0008	0.0069	0.0161	0.0211	0.0266	0.0515
16X1X3	13X2X2	11X1X6	16X1X1	14X1X3	16X1X2	14X1X8	13X1X13	13X1X8
-0.13874	0.09439	0.07712	0.05727	0.05668	-0.04738	0.04257	-0.02468	-0.00216
0.3266	0.5057	0.5869	0.6867	0.6898	0.7387	0.7644	0.8621	0.9878

14X2X5

14X2X5	14X2X4	14X2X1	13X1X2	14X2X2	14X1X4	11X1X7	11X1X5	13X1X3
1.00000	-0.59439	0.55341	0.52450	-0.52341	0.41785	-0.39688	0.38772	-0.38335
0.0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0021	0.0036	0.0045	0.0050
13X2X1	13X1X4	13X1X1	16X1X3	16X1X2	12X1X1	13X1X8	14X1X8	11X1X6
-0.36215	-0.32389	-0.32336	0.29553	0.26958	-0.24435	-0.21450	-0.20101	-0.16234
0.0083	0.0192	0.0194	0.0334	0.0533	0.0809	0.1267	0.1530	0.2502
11X1X8	13X2X2	14X1X1	11X1X2	11X1X1	12X1X2	16X1X1	13X1X13	14X1X3
0.14860	-0.14132	-0.13101	-0.11292	0.08637	0.05304	0.04154	0.03278	0.01570
0.2931	0.3176	0.3546	0.4254	0.5427	0.7088	0.7700	0.8175	0.9120

16X1X1

16X1X1	14X2X2	14X1X1	13X2X1	12X1X2	11X1X8	13X1X2	13X1X1	13X1X13
1.00000	0.20729	-0.17611	-0.16674	-0.13585	-0.12462	0.11650	-0.10102	0.09953
0.0	0.1403	0.2117	0.2374	0.3369	0.3787	0.4108	0.4761	0.4827
14X1X4	13X2X2	16X1X3	13X1X3	14X1X8	12X1X1	14X2X4	14X2X1	14X2X5
-0.08579	-0.08508	-0.07815	-0.06732	0.06573	0.06414	0.05727	0.05596	0.04154
0.5454	0.5487	0.5818	0.6354	0.6434	0.6515	0.6867	0.6936	0.7700
14X1X3	11X1X1	13X1X8	11X1X5	16X1X2	13X1X4	11X1X7	11X1X2	11X1X6
0.03363	0.03223	0.02880	-0.01890	0.01331	-0.01204	0.00934	-0.00755	0.00585
0.8129	0.8205	0.8394	0.8942	0.9254	0.9325	0.9476	0.9576	0.9672

16X1X2

16X1X2	16X1X3	14X1X3	14X2X1	14X2X5	13X2X2	14X2X2	12X1X1	12X1X2
1.00000	0.61901	0.42657	0.40617	0.26958	-0.24213	-0.20215	0.17004	-0.16471
0.0	0.0001	0.0016	0.0028	0.0533	0.0837	0.1507	0.2281	0.2433
14X1X8	13X1X13	14X1X4	13X1X8	13X1X4	13X1X1	11X1X6	11X1X7	14X1X1
-0.14900	0.12676	0.11117	-0.10024	0.09553	-0.09308	-0.09052	-0.09050	0.08467
0.2918	0.3705	0.4327	0.4795	0.5005	0.5116	0.5233	0.5235	0.5507
11X1X1	11X1X8	13X2X1	11X1X2	14X2X4	11X1X5	13X1X2	16X1X1	13X1X3
-0.08309	-0.07890	0.06636	0.06432	-0.04738	0.01658	0.01432	0.01331	-0.00180
0.5581	0.5782	0.6402	0.6505	0.7387	0.9071	0.9197	0.9254	0.9899

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / N = 52

16X1X3

16X1X3	16X1X2	14X2X2	14X1X3	14X2X5	14X2X1	12X1X2	12X1X1	13X2X1
1.00000	0.61901	-0.39663	0.36926	0.29553	0.26531	-0.22575	0.20508	0.18983
0.0	0.0001	0.0036	0.0071	0.0334	0.0573	0.1076	0.1447	0.1777
11X1X1	11X1X2	13X1X3	13X2X2	13X1X2	14X1X8	14X1X4	14X2X4	13X1X13
-0.17398	0.16372	-0.16053	-0.14595	0.14460	-0.14406	0.14339	-0.13874	0.10401
0.2174	0.2462	0.2556	0.3019	0.3064	0.3083	0.3105	0.3266	0.4631
13X1X4	16X1X1	13X1X8	14X1X1	11X1X8	11X1X7	11X1X5	13X1X1	11X1X6
0.09363	-0.07815	-0.07322	0.06878	-0.06663	-0.04400	-0.03156	-0.01472	-0.00910
0.5091	0.5818	0.6059	0.6280	0.6388	0.7568	0.8242	0.9175	0.9490

GLOSSARY

Administrative and managerial workers (major group 2)

According to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-1968), major group 2 includes administrative and managerial workers, such as legislative officials and government administrators, as well as managers.

Economically active population

As defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO), the economically active population comprises all persons of either sex who furnish labour for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations systems of national accounts and balances, during a specified time period. This includes all production, whether for the market, for barter or for own consumption, and whether consisting of goods or services. Two useful measures for the economically active population are the usually active population measured in relation to a long reference period such as a year, and the currently active population, or its equivalent, the labour force, measured in relation to a short reference period such as a day or a week.

Employee

Employee, according to the classification by status, in the present document defines a person who receives a remuneration (in money or in kind) for working for a public or private employer. In general, it refers to someone working in the formal or modern sector.

Employment

Employment is used in the present document to describe that part of the economically active population which has employee status.

Formal sector

The division between the formal and informal sector is not clear-cut, although it has been a subject of much debate, in which the ILO has played a prominent part. For the purpose of the present analysis, the formal - or modern - sector has been defined as activities outside agriculture and taking place in registered enterprises. The labour force in formal sector enterprises would normally consist of employees.

Formal manufacturing sector

The formal or modern manufacturing sector has been defined as comprising registered firms; usually, the labour force in these firms would have employee status.

Industrial sector

This sector is often defined as comprising - apart from the manufacturing sector - energy production, mining and construction. In most countries, manufacturing is by far the most important activity in this sector, and in the present document "industrial" is used as a synonym for manufacturing.

Informal sector

The question of how to define and enumerate employment in the informal sector has attracted considerable attention in recent years. Although it is widely understood that the informal sector in many developing countries absorbs vast numbers of workers, especially during periods of economic crisis, there is as yet no generally agreed upon definition of where the informal sector ends and the formal sector begins. The lack of clear demarcation is not surprising because the formal/informal classification is continuous, not dichotomous. Informal sector employment comprises activities which are not included in the official data collection systems and are outside the reach of legal and institutional sphere of influence. It generally refers to workers in small-scale, family based enterprises that operate outside the formal system of labour laws, taxation, and other business regulations. The production of goods and services does not constitute a separate legal entity of the household or household members that own them and there is no clear distinction of the production activities from other activities of the owners. (ILO - Bulletin of Labor statistics, 1993-2, Annex II, resolution concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector). In the study, the informal sector also includes the casualized labour force.

Indicator

In the present document, the term indicator is applied to statistically measurable variables of women's role. An example of an indicator would be gross domestic product per capita which is one measure of overall economic development.

Labour force

The currently active population, see under economically active population. In the present context, the terms economically active population and labour force are used synonymously.

Manufacturing sector

Manufacturing is defined as the mechanical or chemical transformation of inorganic or organic substances into new products, by machines or by hand, in a factory or in the worker's home. The definition usually includes assembly of component parts of manufactured products.

Modern sector

Like the other sectors, the modern sector is not clearly defined. For the present purpose, it was measured through indicators reflecting women's participation in non-agricultural activities as well as measures of women's share among salaried and wage earners. The term is thus used synonymously to formal sector.

Modern manufacturing sector

For the present purpose, this is synonymous to the formal manufacturing sector.

Part-time work

According to the ILO this is work on a regular or voluntary basis for a daily or weekly period of substantially shorter duration than current or normal statutory hours of work.

Professional and technical workers (major group 0/1)

According to ISCO-1968, major group 0/1 includes professional, technical and related workers, e.g., physical scientists, architects, medical and dental workers, statisticians, economists, jurists, teachers, authors, artists and sportsmen.

Segregation

Women's participation in the economy, it is assumed, takes place on unequal terms, and is characterized by patterns of "vertical" and "horizontal" segregation. For example, "Vertical" or industrial segregation refers to the tendency for female participation to concentrate in a limited number of manufacturing branches, mainly light industries characterized by assembly-type production which requires a large amount of cheap unskilled labour. "Horizontal" or occupational segregation describes the tendency for women to be over-proportionately represented in low-skilled production jobs at the lower end of the occupational hierarchy.

Status (employment)

"The status of an economically active individual with respect to his or her employment, that is, whether the person is (or was, if unemployed) an employer, own-account worker, employee, unpaid family worker, or a member of a producers' co-operative" (ILO Year Book).

Tertiary sector

According to the International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities (ISIC-1968) this sector comprises wholesale and retail trade and restaurants and hotels; transport, storage and communications; financing, insurance, real estate and business services; and community, social and personal services.

Variable

In the context of the present study, the term variable is applied to describe a factor influencing the social position and economic role of women (in the terminology of sectoral typologies, the term is 'component'). Variables are statistically measured through indicators, and thus describe a larger entity than these.