

# African Statistical Journal

## Journal statistique africain

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### A Special Issue on Gender

*Time Poverty: A Contributor to Women's Poverty?*

Omar Ismael Abdourahman

*Poverty in Nigeria: A Gendered Analysis*

John C. Anyanwu

*Socialization Patterns and Boys' Underperformance  
in Seychellois Schools*

Gisela Geisler and Mahrookh Pardiwalla

*Factors Influencing Female Labor Force Participation  
in South Africa in 2008*

Yakubu A. Yakubu

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Volume 11 – November / novembre 2010

**African Development Bank Group**

**Groupe de la Banque africaine de développement**

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# **African Statistical Journal** **Journal statistique africain**

**Volume 11**  
**November / novembre 2010**

**A SPECIAL ISSUE ON GENDER**

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# Editorial

This volume of the Journal focuses on gender statistics, consistent with the priority that pan-African institutions are attaching to the development and use of gender statistics to inform policy and monitor progress toward gender equality and attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The new focus on gender in national policy and development in pursuit of equality and women's empowerment has been constrained by a lack of gender statistics in much of Africa. Indeed, Africa has lagged behind other regions of the world in the development and use of gender statistics, with attendant consequences. Realizing the need to urgently address this issue, the pan-African institutions have in recent years scaled up efforts to create greater awareness among African statisticians about gender issues and concerns and the need to mainstream them into national statistical systems, programs, and activities. In this connection, the African Development Bank (AfDB) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) organized a high-level policy dialogue on gender statistics in Uganda in June 2008, followed by a first regional workshop on gender statistics in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in December 2008. This was subsequently followed by a global forum on gender statistics in Accra, Ghana, in January 2009. The Kampala City Group on Gender Statistics was launched in October 2009 to provide a forum where African stakeholders and partners could discuss issues related to the development of gender statistics, Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), and the monitoring of the MDGs. In addition, the ECA has been working on engendering population and housing censuses and is finalizing an *African Gender Handbook for Censuses and Surveys*. Moreover, a Gender Statistics Network (GESTNET) has been set up to promote the exchange of information among stakeholders in the area of gender statistics. Furthermore, subregional workshops on gender statistics have been organized mainly by ECA, some of which have been followed up by national workshops. So the theme of this volume of the *African Statistical Journal* is very much in line with the broader efforts being made to improve the production and use of gender statistics in Africa.

This volume sees the publication of four highly topical articles. The first deals with the gendered allocation of time in the household and in the wider economy, as a major issue in the evolving discourse on time poverty. In analyzing the allocation of social roles between men and women, the article shows first how this allocation leads to time poverty among women; second, how this impacts progress toward the achievement of the MDGs; and third, how by using time-use survey methodologies and tools, it is possible to collect sex-disaggregated time-use data to help policymakers incorporate time poverty analysis as one of the components of overall

poverty reduction strategies and MDGs assessment and monitoring. The second article presents a profile of gendered poverty in Nigeria for the period 1980–1996. It examines the determinants of gendered poverty and specific measures that can be taken to reduce it, using the 1996 National Consumer Survey dataset. The third paper presents results from an empirical study conducted in 2009, which focuses on boys' underperformance in school in the Seychelles, while broadly examining their home socialization patterns. The article establishes that while boys have more freedom to roam around, they also have very narrowly defined gender roles, which places them at a disadvantage to girls, who tend to develop more rounded personalities and closeness to their mothers, whereas many Seychellois men have little say in the lives of their children. The fourth and final article argues that female labor force participation (FLFP) is the prime indication of the extent to which females participate in the economic activities of society. It shows that despite the advances in female educational attainment and the expansion of the market economy, female labor force participation rates are still low in comparison to those of their male counterparts. Using data from the 2008 Quarterly Labor Force Survey of Statistics South Africa, the paper studies the dynamics of the South African labor force. The results reveal an association between the level of educational status and female labor force participation.

Since the last volume of the Journal appeared in May 2010, several events have been organized with the aim of boosting statistical capacity in Africa. We highlight the main ones. First, the 2011 round of the International Comparison Program for Africa (ICP-Africa) was launched in Nairobi, Kenya, in June 2010. In addition to collecting data on prices and compiling national accounts to compute Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs), the new program, like its predecessor 2005 round, will go beyond data collection to build the sustainable capacity of African countries in these areas.

Second, the First Conference for African Ministers responsible for Civil Registration was successfully held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, from August 13–14, 2010. This was the first time that statisticians in Africa had organized a ministerial conference focusing entirely on statistics. We would like to congratulate them on this feat and to encourage them to continue to scale up advocacy for statistics at such high level. Civil registration is the conventional data source for the generation of continuous and complete vital statistics that provide key health and demographic statistics, including many of the MDGs indicators. Furthermore, civil registration produces various legal and administrative information that forms the basis for safeguarding basic human rights, including children's and women's rights; it also furnishes critical information for the decentralization and democratization processes

currently progressing in most African countries. Nonetheless, nearly all African countries lack adequate civil registration and vital statistics systems and this has been largely attributed to a lack of political commitment. The conference was, therefore, organized to help bolster such commitment and to raise the profile of the importance of such civil registration systems.

Third, Africa has taken the lead in the implementation of the Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural Statistics. As mentioned in the previous issue of the Journal, this Strategy was endorsed by the United Nations Statistical Commission in February 2010. It was developed in response to the declining quantity and quality of agricultural statistics and the need to provide data to support emerging data requirements and to integrate agriculture in national statistical systems. A five-year implementation plan of the Strategy in Africa has been developed and was presented at the 5th International Conference on Agricultural Statistics, held in Kampala, Uganda in October 2010. The conference made useful inputs into the African implementation plan of the Strategy.

We trust that you will find this volume of the journal interesting and informative.

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# Éditorial

Le présent volume du Journal met l'accent sur les statistiques en matière de genre, compte tenu de l'importance que les institutions panafricaines attachent au développement et à l'utilisation des statistiques sexospécifiques dans la formulation de politiques, ainsi que le suivi des progrès vers l'égalité des genres et la réalisation des Objectifs du millénaire pour le développement (OMD).

La nouvelle importance accordée au genre dans les politiques nationales et dans le développement, en vue de promouvoir l'égalité et l'autonomisation des femmes, s'est heurtée au manque de statistiques en la matière dans une bonne partie de l'Afrique. En effet, l'Afrique accuse un retard par rapport à d'autres régions du monde pour ce qui est du développement et de l'utilisation de statistiques sexospécifiques, ce qui n'est pas sans conséquences. Ayant compris la nécessité de remédier à ce problème de toute urgence, les institutions panafricaines ont redoublé d'efforts, ces dernières années, pour amplifier la prise de conscience des statisticiens africains sur les questions et les préoccupations liées au genre et sur la nécessité de les intégrer dans les systèmes, programmes et activités statistiques nationaux. À cet égard, la Banque africaine de développement (BAD) et la Commission économique des Nations Unies pour l'Afrique (CEA) ont organisé un dialogue stratégique de haut niveau sur les statistiques sexospécifiques en juin 2008, en Ouganda, suivi d'un premier atelier régional sur le même thème, en décembre 2008, à Addis-Abeba en Éthiopie. Ensuite, le forum mondial sur les statistiques sexospécifiques s'est tenu en janvier 2009 à Accra, au Ghana. Le *Kampala City Group on Gender Statistics* (groupe de Kampala sur les statistiques sexospécifiques) a été créé en octobre 2009. Il a pour objectif d'offrir aux intervenants africains et à leurs partenaires un cadre de réflexion sur le développement des statistiques sexospécifiques, les stratégies de réduction de la pauvreté (DSRP) et le suivi des OMD. En outre, la CEA œuvre pour la réalisation de recensements de la population et du logement et se prépare à publier un manuel sur les recensements et les enquêtes liées à la question de genre en Afrique (*African Gender Handbook for Censuses and Surveys*). Un Réseau sur les statistiques sexospécifiques (GESTNET) a été créé dans le but de promouvoir l'échange d'informations entre les intervenants dans ce domaine. Des ateliers sous-régionaux sur les statistiques sexospécifiques se sont tenus, en majorité à l'initiative de la CEA, et certains d'entre eux ont été suivis d'ateliers nationaux. Ainsi, la décision de consacrer le présent volume du Journal statistique africain aux statistiques sexospécifiques s'inscrit dans le droit fil des efforts plus généraux déployés en vue d'améliorer la production et l'utilisation de telles statistiques en Afrique.

Le présent volume présente quatre articles très spécialisés. Le premier porte sur la répartition du temps entre les femmes et les hommes dans les ménages et dans l'économie, une question importante dans l'évolution de la réflexion sur le manque de temps. En analysant la répartition des responsabilités sociales entre les hommes et les femmes, cet article montre d'abord comment ladite répartition aboutit au manque de temps chez les femmes. Ensuite, il analyse les effets de cette situation sur la réalisation des OMD. Enfin, il démontre comment, en ayant recours aux méthodes et outils d'enquêtes sur l'utilisation du temps, il est possible d'obtenir des données désagrégées selon le genre, afin d'aider les décideurs à intégrer l'analyse du manque de temps dans les stratégies globales de réduction de la pauvreté et dans le suivi et l'évaluation des OMD. Le deuxième article trace un profil de la pauvreté sexospécifique au Nigeria pour la période 1980-1996. Il examine les déterminants de la pauvreté selon le genre et les mesures pouvant contribuer à sa réduction, en se fondant sur les données de l'enquête nationale auprès des consommateurs de 1996. Le troisième document présente les résultats d'une étude empirique de 2009 sur les performances scolaires inférieures des garçons et leurs modes de socialisation aux Seychelles. L'article démontre que, même s'ils ont une plus grande liberté de mouvement, les garçons, dont les rôles sexospécifiques sont définis de manière très limitée, sont défavorisés par rapport aux filles qui, elles, ont tendance à développer une personnalité plus épanouie et des liens plus étroits avec leur mère, tandis que les pères ont très peu à dire sur la vie de leurs enfants. Le quatrième et dernier article soutient que la présence féminine dans la population active est le principal indicateur de la participation des femmes aux activités économiques de la société. Il constate que, malgré les progrès en matière de scolarisation des femmes et l'essor de l'économie de marché, les taux d'activité des femmes demeurent faibles par rapport à ceux des hommes. En s'appuyant sur les données de la revue statistique sud-africaine *Quarterly Labor Force Survey*, il étudie la dynamique de la main-d'œuvre sud-africaine. Les résultats montrent qu'il existe un lien entre le niveau d'éducation et le taux d'activité des femmes.

Depuis la publication du précédent numéro (mai 2010), plusieurs activités se sont tenues en vue de renforcer les capacités statistiques en Afrique. Nous énumérons les plus importantes. Premièrement, le coup d'envoi de l'édition 2011 du Programme de comparaison internationale pour l'Afrique (PCI-Afrique) a été donné en juin 2010 à Nairobi, au Kenya. Outre la collecte de données sur les prix et la compilation des comptes nationaux en vue du calcul de la parité du pouvoir d'achat (PPA), ce nouveau programme, comme l'édition précédente de 2005, contribuera à renforcer durablement les capacités des pays africains dans ces domaines.

Deuxièmement, une conférence régionale des ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil s'est tenue avec succès, les 13 et 14 août 2010, à Addis-Abeba. Il s'agissait de la première conférence ministérielle entièrement consacrée aux statistiques. Nous tenons à féliciter les organisateurs pour cet exploit et les encourageons à poursuivre la promotion des statistiques à un niveau aussi élevé. L'enregistrement à l'état civil constitue la source traditionnelle de statistiques permanentes et complètes sur la santé et la démographie, y compris pour bon nombre d'indicateurs des OMD. Par ailleurs, l'état civil permet d'obtenir diverses informations juridiques et administratives essentielles pour la protection des droits fondamentaux de la personne, y compris ceux des enfants et des femmes. Il fournit également des informations déterminantes pour le bon déroulement des processus de décentralisation et de démocratisation actuellement en cours en Afrique. Cependant, la quasi-totalité des pays africains ne dispose pas de systèmes adéquats d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil. Le manque de volonté politique est considéré comme un des obstacles majeurs à la résolution de ce problème. La conférence visait donc à susciter un engagement fort dans le domaine aussi important que les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits d'état civil.

Troisièmement, l'Afrique s'est faite le chef de file de l'exécution de la Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales. Comme annoncé dans la précédente édition du journal, cette stratégie a été adoptée par la Commission statistique de l'ONU en février 2010. Elle a été conçue pour faire face au déclin de la quantité et de la qualité des statistiques agricoles, répondre aux nouveaux besoins de données et intégrer l'agriculture dans les systèmes statistiques nationaux. Un plan de mise en œuvre de la Stratégie en Afrique sur cinq ans a été préparé et présenté à la cinquième Conférence internationale sur les statistiques agricoles, qui s'est tenue en octobre 2010 en Ouganda. La conférence a apporté des contributions utiles au plan de mise en œuvre de la Stratégie en Afrique.

Nous espérons que vous trouverez le présent volume du journal intéressant et instructif.

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The Editorial Board would like to inform our readers about some changes that have taken place in the production team of the Journal. Dr. Alice Nabalamba has replaced Mr. Adalbert Nshimyumuremyi as the Production Editor and team leader at AfDB. We welcome her to the team and would like to thank Mr. Nshimyumuremyi for the excellent job he has performed over the years. We would also like to congratulate one of the members of the Editorial Board of the Journal, Dr. Dimitri Sanga, on his appointment as the Director of the African Centre for Statistical Development at the UN Economic Commission for Africa, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

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Le comité de rédaction voudrait informer les lecteurs de certains des changements survenus au sein de l'équipe de production du Journal. Alice Nabalamba a remplacé Adalbert Nshimyumuremyi aux postes de directeur de la production et chef d'équipe à la BAD. Nous lui souhaitons la bienvenue et tenons à remercier M. Nshimyumuremyi pour avoir fait un excellent travail au sein de l'équipe pendant toutes ces années. Nous félicitons également l'un des membres du comité de rédaction, M. Dimitri Sanga, pour sa nomination au poste de directeur du Centre africain pour la statistique de la Commission économique des Nations Unies pour l'Afrique (CEA) à Addis-Abeba, en Éthiopie.

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# 1. Time Poverty: A Contributor to Women's Poverty?

---

Omar Ismael Abdourahman<sup>1</sup>

## **Abstract**

*Inequality is a major challenge to development and an obstacle to achieving the MDGs. It takes many different forms, including income inequality, unequal access to and control over property and resources, unequal access to civil and political rights, and unequal access to social, cultural, and economic rights. All these forms of inequality possess inherent gender dimensions. One form of inequality that has received much less analysis but which has major adverse implications for accessing economic rights relates to gender-differentiated time-use. The allocation of time between women and men in the household and in the economy is a major gender issue in the evolving discourse on time poverty. This article, in analyzing the allocation of social roles between men and women, shows first how this allocation leads to time poverty among women; second, how this has an impact on achievement of the MDGs; and third, how by using time-use survey methodologies and tools, it is possible to collect sex-disaggregated time-use data. Such data will help policymakers to incorporate time poverty analysis as one of the component of the overall poverty reduction strategies and MDGs assessment and monitoring.*

**Key words:** Poverty reduction, time poverty, gender inequality, time-use survey methodology, MDGs assessment and monitoring

## **Résumé**

*L'inégalité constitue un défi de développement majeur et un obstacle à la réalisation des OMD. Elle se présente sous une multitude de formes, dont les disparités de revenus, les inégalités en matière d'accès et de contrôle des propriétés et des ressources, l'accès inégal aux droits civiques et politiques, ainsi qu'aux droits sociaux, culturels et économiques. Toutes ces formes de disparités ont une dimension sexospécifique intrinsèque. L'une d'elles a été beaucoup moins étudiée que les autres, et pourtant elle a de graves répercussions sur l'accès aux droits économiques. Il s'agit de l'inégalité du temps disponible. La répartition du temps disponible entre les hommes et les femmes dans les ménages et dans l'économie est une importante question de genre dans l'évolution de la réflexion sur la pauvreté en temps. En analysant la répartition des responsabilités sociales entre les hommes et les femmes, cet article montre d'abord comment la différence de temps disponible cause la pauvreté en temps chez les femmes. Ensuite, il analyse les effets de cette situation sur la réalisation des OMD. Enfin, il démontre comment, en ayant recours aux méthodes et outils d'enquêtes sur l'utilisation du temps, il est*

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*possible d'obtenir des données désagrégées selon le genre. Ces données permettront aux décideurs d'intégrer l'analyse de la pauvreté en temps dans l'évaluation et le suivi des stratégies de réduction de la pauvreté et des OMD.*

**Mots clés :** *réduction de la pauvreté, pauvreté en temps, inégalités entre les genres, méthodologie d'enquête sur l'utilisation du temps, évaluation et suivi des OMD.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Inequality is a major challenge to development and an obstacle to achieving the MDGs. It takes many different forms, including income inequality, unequal access to and control over property, civil and political rights, and social, cultural, and economic rights. All these forms of inequality possess inherent gender dimensions. One form of inequality that has received much less analysis but has adverse implications for accessing economic rights is that relating to time. The allocation of time between women and men in the household and in the economy is a major gender issue in the evolving discourse on time poverty. This article, in analyzing the allocation of social roles between men and women, shows first how this allocation leads to time poverty among women, and second, how this impacts the achievement of the MDGs.

Women's time does not belong to them. It is well known that patriarchal systems still prevail in many regions of the world, including Africa, and that these have defined and perpetuated gender roles that allow men to control women's time and labor. In most African societies, women and girls are allocated critically important and time-consuming responsibilities, which overburden them with work in the reproduction, production, household, and community spheres.

An analysis of "who does what and when" within the normal African household shows that women and girls are responsible for collecting water and firewood, cooking, cleaning, taking care of the children, the infirm and the sick, producing food, and marketing any surpluses. They also dedicate a lot of their time to maintaining social cohesion within the community. All these tasks are considered to be low-status activities, unremunerated and unrecognized in the national statistics. Women who spend all their time performing these tasks are often considered as "not working."

The 1995 *Human Development Report* used time-use data from 31 countries to highlight women's status in the world and to measure their contribution

to economies. The main finding of this report is that if both paid and unpaid work are considered, women perform a larger share of work than men in both developing and developed countries. This women's work, which is important for human well-being, is to a large extent unpaid and not considered in national accounting systems. The conclusion of the report was that "much of women's work remains unrecognized and unvalued. This has an impact on the status of women in society, their opportunities in public life and the gender blindness of development policy" (UNDP, 1995).

## 2. PROMOTING TIME POVERTY ANALYSIS

A promising way to re-enforce women's economic rights and increase accountability for various international development initiatives such as MDGs is to include time poverty analysis into poverty reduction strategies and MDGs assessment and monitoring. This approach, using time-use data to analyze gender inequality in the allocation of unremunerated work, is a field of research that is still nascent and insufficiently explored, especially within Africa. In an attempt to remedy this situation, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) has launched a program to promote the generation of time-use data in all African countries. In 2009 Ghana and Djibouti were selected as the pilot countries to undertake time-use surveys.

The entry point of this approach is the widespread recognition that time is the ultimate resource, which should, in principle, be equally shared by everyone. Time can be converted into money, goods, and services through work. Additionally, time is also required for the consumption of goods and services, for community work, and for leisure activities. That is why time-use analysis can offer an overview of all human activities (market and non-market work, consumption, community and leisure activities).

### 2.1 Time-use analysis and its role in assessing the MDGs

Existing data in relation to gender inequality (including the *Morocco Time Use Report, 1999*; *South Africa Time Use Report 2000*; and the *Madagascar Time Use Report 2002*) show that time itself is an essential resource in allowing people to free themselves from poverty.

**Millennium Development Goal (MDG) number 1** aims to halve the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day by 2015, targeting eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. Since income is the ultimate resource that most governments take into account when measuring poverty

and national poverty levels, governments have to consider the amount of income people should generate in order to acquire basic food items sufficient to feed families of different sizes. In measuring poverty rates, it is necessary to consider the incomes of families and the number of people in them. However, governments must also recognize that escaping poverty first requires expenditure of time toward remunerated or income-generating activities. It goes without saying that if a poor person devotes time only to unremunerated activities; it is very unlikely that s/he will be able to escape the cycle of poverty without substantial assistance.

In countries where time-use studies have been conducted, it has been shown that women work significantly longer hours per day than men. In rural areas especially, most of women's time is spent on household and subsistence activities. Little time is left for market-related and remunerated activities. Compared to men, women have very heavy time loads due to the need to balance the demands of their multiple roles: productive, reproductive, social, and community. The patriarchal foundation of the distribution of roles by gender is the major cause of gender inequality, the heavy time-burden on women and girls, and ultimately, the feminization of poverty.

In South Africa, women's contribution in non-market production to the national economy was found to be almost double that of men. Consequently, women there had 30–40% less time for personal care and leisure than men at the household level. According to the South African 2000 time-use survey, males between the ages of 15 and 65 years spend on average only 84 minutes per day on unpaid work, while for females, this increases to 215 minutes.

To illustrate the above, several analyses of the importance of time-saving technologies and activities have highlighted their positive impact on female labor force participation. Ralph Oropesa (1993) illustrated this in his report "Female Labour Force Participation and Time Saving Household Technologies: A Case Study of the Microwave." A study by Barrett and Browne (1994) investigated the results of the introduction of village cereal mills in Gambia on the lives of women and their communities. The study concentrated on women's access to technology, the time and energy this saved, its sustainability, and women's level of control. It was found that the energy saved was of great significance to rural women, enabling them to contribute more effectively to village life. A field study on Bangladeshi villages by Biswas *et al.* (2001) tested the contextual relevance of applying renewable energy technologies. Cooking was found to be the major activity where the transfer of a time-saving technology offered practical opportunities for major lifestyle improvements. The time saved could be spent on

income-generation activities, without affecting the time allocated for other daily activities, including resting hours.

Further research of this type in Africa would be useful in further documenting and addressing the impact of women's time burden, both on the household economy and the market and public service economies. The analysis should particularly examine the linkage between time poverty, monetary poverty, and gender equity; further, it should address the adverse impact of unduly heavy time burdens on the lives of women as human beings.

**MDGs 2 and 3** target the promotion of gender equality through girls' education, that is, ensuring that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling, thereby eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels by 2015. Time poverty is again a major factor and is again a gender issue. One of the main barriers to girls' education, especially in rural areas, is the social assumption and practices that girls rather than boys should assist their mothers in performing household chores (UNICEF, 2003). That is why around the world, especially in Africa, girls face multiple social and economic barriers to enrolling and staying in school.

In fact, many studies have also revealed the impact of gender differences in education and employment on growth (Ellis *et al.*, 2006). Between 1960 and 1992, the limited education and employment opportunities in Sub-Saharan Africa reduced annual per capita growth for women by 0.8%. This is significant, as a boost of 0.8% a year would have doubled economic growth over the past 30 years! The analysis suggests that gender inequality appears to account for about 15–20% of the difference in growth performance between Sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia. This lends credence to the argument that one important element in Africa's low growth may be the high level of gender inequality in education and employment. Gender inequality is an important element in accounting for the region's poor economic performance. Although growth regressions should be interpreted with caution, these results are striking and suggest that economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa could increase significantly if gender-based obstacles to growth were eliminated, a point made forcefully in the report *Can Africa Claim the 21st Century?* (World Bank, 2000).

In many African societies, parents see limited economic benefits to educating their daughters, compared to the convenience of the unremunerated labor they provide. One of the main barriers that girls face is the lack of time to attend school regularly. The priority is elsewhere, as they are more

urgently needed for domestic work at home or on the farm during school hours. This lack of time is a serious root cause of girl's lower enrollment and high dropout rates. More systematic research through time-use data analysis should be encouraged on the specific linkages between girls' time poverty, their enrollment in school and success rates in various personal, household, and community activities in later life.

**MDGs 4 and 5** target reduced child mortality and improved maternal health. In these areas also, time-use analysis is an entry point to inform policies and programs. Child and maternal health present very distinct challenges that are inextricably linked to time use. Research has proven that the extreme fatigue and weakness that women suffer due to work overload (lack of time devoted to resting and /or leisure activities), especially while they are pregnant, aggravated by difficult access to healthcare services, are among the factors that cause maternal and neonatal mortality. Several studies have also found a positive correlation between education, lower fertility, and lower infant mortality. This means that where girls are given the chance to use their time to receive an education, it translates into gains for their future families, reducing fertility and leading to a healthier family.

**MDG 6** targets HIV/AIDS and it is important to incorporate the gender dimension and the time-use aspect in designing, planning, and implementing support programs. While it is widely recognized that Africa is severely affected by this pandemic, and that women and young girls are the ones who carry the heavy burden of looking after the children as well as those family members who are HIV-infected, most HIV/AIDS support programs have not taken the time-use dimension into consideration.

**MDG 7** aims at ensuring environmental sustainability, as the survival of communities depends on access to natural resources: land, water, and forests. Women and girls spend a lot of time walking long distances to bring water, wood, and fuel to their families. Women are the primary collectors and transporters of these utilities, and have developed in-depth knowledge of how to manage them to ensure their preservation for future use and future generations. One way to improve women's access to and control over natural resources is to reduce the time spent and distance traveled to obtain these resources.

### 3. DEFINITION AND THE ROLE OF TIME-USE SURVEYS

Time-use surveys are designed to account for the nature, duration, and location of all activities carried out by the population during a reference period. The time-use survey was first used at the beginning of the 20th century, by researchers interested in understanding how people allocated time to various daily activities. The focus of these surveys was to understand human behavior and the lifestyle of people, especially for the portion of their life for which no information was available from traditional data sources.

The time-use survey later came to acquire an additional and more interesting focus because it gives a complete picture of the society, by providing detailed information about how people use their time on different market and non-market activities, on a daily and weekly basis.

Time-use surveys now play an essential role in shedding more light on the current vision of the economy and of the statistical system. Three factors account for this:

- They show a more complete presentation of the economy and society by providing vital information on those areas that are presently invisible in national accounts;
- They contribute better information on informal sectors in order to improve the estimation of economic activities (SNA work) in national accounts;
- They highlight the importance of the non-market (unpaid) work, for maintaining the labor force and the human capital. The time-use survey allows also an estimation of its contribution to the economy and long-term growth.

In practice, the concept of the time-use survey is predicated on the fact that time is the ultimate resource, which is shared equally by everyone. There are 24 hours in everyone's day, which allows a comparative analysis of time spent by everybody. This time can be converted into money, goods, and services through work. Additionally, time is required for the consumption of goods and services, for community work, and even for leisure activities. An analysis of time use therefore offers a comprehensive overview of all human activities (market and nonmarket work, consumption, community, and leisure activities).



#### 4. A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TIME-USE METHODOLOGIES IN EUROPE AND AFRICA

The basic methodological issues are common to almost all time-use surveys, and they can be addressed through the different themes and questions listed below. As the various subjects are raised, it will be interesting to proceed to a comparison between (i) the *Guidelines on Harmonized European Time-Use Surveys* – hereafter referred to as the *Guidelines* (Eurostat, 2004), which promulgate the basic methodologies for European countries and (ii) those methodologies used by African countries.

##### 4.1 Sample design

###### *Methods for the sample design – Europe*

The “sample design” refers to the choice of the population covered by the survey. The survey sample should be representative of the country's population. Some countries have adopted the household as a unit of study: that is, all individuals in the households are included in the survey. Other countries have used the individual as the sampling unit: that is, some individuals in each sampled household would be covered by the survey.

The main questions are:

- Which population is concerned? (Resident or/and nonresident population? Urban or/and rural population? Individual or/and collective households?)
- How to choose the sample population? Which households? Which members within the households?

Time-use surveys have been conducted in most European countries, but due to national variants in the survey design, the international comparability of the results has been very low. To rectify this situation, the European countries advocated for an increase in comparability between national time-use surveys. To this end, they gave Eurostat a mandate to develop recommendations for harmonized methodologies, to ensure comparability in the results, both in time and between countries. However, the European countries did not rigorously adhere to these harmonized guidelines. Major and minor deviations were noticed from the harmonized method, which was finalized in 2000.

For the sample design, the *Guidelines* (Eurostat, 2004) make the following main recommendations:

- To consider, as the reference population, the persons resident at domestic addresses and to exclude from the survey any persons living in institutions (military service, hospitals, prisons, etc.);
- The sampled households must be representative of the whole population in its diversity;
- The household approach is the unit of study, meaning that all individuals (ten years and older) of the sampled households will be included in the survey;
- To use the population registers for drawing samples of individuals. And then to achieve the sample of the population, the households of the sampled individuals are included the survey.

Some European countries did not follow these recommendations and introduced modifications. In Sweden and Norway, for example, individuals were chosen from the population register. Portugal did not use the household as the sample unit either and decided to choose one or two members of the household to be interviewed. Concerning the minimum age, there was considerable variation. The lowest age was in Portugal, where all persons aged 6 and above were surveyed. In France the minimum age was 15 and in Sweden, persons 20 years old and above were interviewed.

### *Methods for the sample design – African countries*

In the absence of guiding recommendations, African countries have followed very divergent methods for choosing the sample population. In **South Africa** the sample population was chosen from all the nine provinces constituting the Republic, and within a province from four different types of settlement areas (formal urban settlement; informal urban settlement; commercial farming areas; and other rural areas). Persons living in institutions like prisons, hospitals, hotels, and boarding schools were excluded from the survey. The survey adopted the approach based on household individuals: in other words, information was collected from two respondents aged 10 years and above from each selected household.

In **Benin** a two-stage sample design was used where every household member aged between 6 and 65 years old was interviewed. But owing to the fact that there were two independent samples (urban and rural), the findings were not aggregated at a national level, but presented only by residence area (rural or urban). The sample population was identical to the ones used in the semester household surveys on labor, income, and social indicators conducted in urban and rural areas. The framework was, for the urban area, the five principal towns of the country, which represent more than 55% of the urban population. The sample was selected from 100 zones from the

5 towns; and 20 households were then selected from each zone. The same procedure was used for the rural area, where 135 villages were selected for the first stage and 15 households in each zone for the second stage.

**Morocco's** time-use survey was applied to a "reference woman," meaning one woman aged from 15 to 70 years old per family. This therefore has the characteristic of focusing only on female activities, which precludes a comparison of the time spent differentially by women and men in Morocco.

**Nigeria's** time-use survey was applied on a very small sample of 100 private households selected from the General Household Survey's sample. The survey was conducted in only five states (four states and Lagos) of the Federation, where survey organizations with permanent field staff were available. It covered all members aged above 10 years of the sampled households, which corresponds to 243 respondents.

In **Madagascar** the sample population was based on the frame prepared for the 2001 Household Survey. It was chosen from the urban and rural areas of each province constituting the country. The survey adopted the household approach, in that information was collected from all respondents aged from 6 to 65 years of age, from each selected household.

#### 4.2 The time-diary approach

The "time diary" is the most frequently used method of data collection, because the range of information collected in the diary and associated instruments is able to provide contextual dimensions to the data. This information is important for time-use analysis in order to understand the complexity of people's daily activities.

As examples of the kind of vital information needed, the survey should provide information on the:

- Primary activity (the main thing being done at any one time);
- Secondary activities (others things being done simultaneously);
- Time of activity (the time at which different activities occur);
- Activity sequence (how different activities relate to one another);
- Activity duration (the time spent on each main activity);
- Activity location (where the respondent was);
- Social contacts (who else was present at the time).
- For whom the activity is performed (for household members or other persons; how many persons).

To collect this information, the time-diary approach uses several methods:

- (i) **Self-completed diary:** The respondents are asked to fill in a diary, reporting their daily activities for a number of selected days. The two ways of recording are the *simultaneous collection*, where activities are recorded just after they have been performed, and the *recall method*, where daily activities are recorded once, from memory.
- (ii) **Face-to-face or telephone interview:** The respondents' daily activities are observed and recorded by a third party, namely the interviewer.
- (iii) **Selection of diary days and coverage of the year:** The general rule is that the more diary days there are for data collection, the more accurate it will be. But considering the problems related to the resources and to non-responses, the choice of two or three days is seen as reasonable. If respondents are, for example, asked to report on two days' activities, it is important to assign specific days for the different respondents, in order to get information on each day of the week. It is also important to spread the survey over the different periods of the year in order to take into account the seasonal differences in activities.

### *The time-diary approach – Europe*

On this time-diary issue, the *Guidelines* (Eurostat, 2004) make the following recommendations:

- To use the self-completed diary to record the daily activities;
- To use at least two diary days, one during the working week (Monday to Friday) and one at the weekend (Saturday or Sunday);
- To use a separate diary for an adult and for a child;
- To use fixed 10-minute time slots;
- To record the secondary activities;
- To mention for whom and with whom the activity is performed;
- To spread the survey fieldwork over a full 12-month period in order to take into account the effect of seasonal variations on various activities;
- To allocate the diary days and dates to households and individuals by a controlled random procedure, in order to minimize the postponement and non-response rate.

In Denmark, respondents were asked to complete two diaries, one on a weekday, and one at the weekend. Diaries covered full 24-hour periods and were divided into 10-minute time slots. Sampled respondents and the respondent's spouse or partner were asked to complete diaries.

For this method of data collection also, some European countries deviated from the harmonized recommendations. For example, instead of using two diary days, countries like Belgium, France, and Portugal adopted a one-day diary. Romania, Denmark, and Portugal did not cover a full 12-month period, as was recommended, but undertook the survey over just two or three months.

### *The time-diary approach – African countries*

In Africa, the respondents' daily activities were recorded through the face-to-face interviews, rather than asking them to fill in a diary. This methodology was used because of the high level of illiteracy in the continent. Only Nigeria used a combined method; in this case, data was collected through the self-completed diary for literate persons and through recall interview for illiterate persons.

The use of at least two diary days with fixed 10-minute time slots was found to be very problematic in the African context. This was due, first, to budgetary limitations and second, to a general lack of adherence to rigid time schedules by African people, particularly in rural areas. As a result, most of the surveyed African countries used a one-day diary with a half-hour or one-hour time slot. **South Africa** used the one-day 24-hour diary, which was divided into half-hour slots, and in each slot, a maximum of three activities could be recorded. **Benin** and **Madagascar** also used the one-day 24-hour diary, but divided it into 15-minute slots. In each slot, respondents were asked to report if they performed more than one activity; however there were no specifications on whether to classify the simultaneous activities as primary or secondary.

In **Morocco**, instead of using a fixed interval time, every observed activity was recorded the moment it was started and finished, as well as the time spent on it. In **Nigeria**, the entire seven days of the week were covered for all eligible household members rather than just one day as in other African countries. Initially it was planned to fix the time diary in intervals of 30 minutes. However, in consideration of the fact that the population does not keep strict time schedules, coupled with the use of the recall method in collecting the data, it was agreed that the open format diary should be used. The respondents were asked to recall major activities and the approximate time taken to complete these activities.

In addition, instead of covering a whole year, some African surveys were carried out over three or four months at different periods of the year (South Africa, Madagascar) in order to catch seasonal variations. In other countries,

the survey was carried out just one time (Benin, Nigeria). Only Morocco collected data over a whole year period.

### 4.3 The survey forms

The term “survey forms” refers to a number of different instruments that permit the collection of information about the household members. The three main tools are: (i) the *household questionnaire*, which provides information about the household, viz. its composition, housing and living conditions, and income; (ii) the *individual questionnaire*, which provides demographic information about the sampled individuals, e.g. status in employment, level of education, etc.; and (iii) the *diary*, which records information on the individual’s main and secondary activities, the duration and the location of these activities.

#### *Survey forms – Europe*

Concerning these tools, the *Guidelines* make the following recommendations:

- The Directions for the Survey Forms to be used as guidance for the design of household and individual questionnaires and also for the diary;
- The household questionnaire to provide valuable information about the household stocks of capital (domestic appliances, etc.) and about the consumption of market services that substitute for the household’s own labor (maids, childcare centers, nursing, etc.). In many European countries, inventories of domestic appliances have formed part of this questionnaire.
- the household and the individual questionnaires are used in face-to-face or telephone interview;
- the diary is left behind, to be filled in by household members.

#### *Survey forms – African countries*

Each country has built its own survey instruments (questionnaires), which are largely based on those developed by the European countries and on its own experience related to other surveys, such as the household or labor force surveys. However, most of the African questionnaires (South Africa excepted) do not contain adequate and pertinent questions to measure the non-market economy work. The social and cultural context of women’s behaviors or work related, for example, to ethnic or religious origin are not taken into account in those questionnaires. Let us look at the individual countries in turn.

In **Morocco** four types of questionnaires were developed:

- (i) The first questionnaire collects data from every household member and selects the woman eligible for the individual questions (the “reference woman”). This questionnaire deals with the place of the reference woman in her family context, taking into account the characteristics of the household in order to understand the woman’s behavior by socioeconomic and sociodemographic type.
- (ii) The second questionnaire is meant for the reference woman and deals with her sociodemographic characteristics, access to healthcare, active life-cycle, participation in decision-making, and the nature of her skills.
- (iii) The third questionnaire deals with the time-use of a proportion (2/3) of reference women and is focused on a detailed list of all activities and time spent in the performance of each activity during a whole day.
- (iv) The fourth questionnaire is used to collect data about the rural communities, insofar as this has an effect on the rural woman’s behavior, her active integration into community life, and the value given to her skills when used in income-generating activities. It also deals with the nature of existing services in the community, their quality, proximity and the degree in which rural women use them.

In **South Africa** the questionnaire used to collect information comprised three sections. The first covered details of the household, such as its composition, housing and living conditions, and income. The second section covered demographic details (status in employment, level of education) of the first person selected in each household. These two sections contained many standard questions from other surveys, such as household or labor surveys. The third section consisted of a diary, which permitted the interviewer to record the activities performed by the first person selected.

**Nigeria** also used a three-part questionnaire as follows: (i) the *household questionnaire* was used to record information on demographic characteristics of household members; (ii) the *household diary* (simplified time diary) provided a diary of activities on which household members spent time during the reference period; and (iii) the use of a *time summary schedule*, provided a short summary, on a daily basis, of time spent by household members aged 10 years and above.

In **Benin** information was collected through a single questionnaire describing a list of economic, domestic, and social activities, together with other occupations.

#### 4.4 The activity classification system

In a time-use survey, the *activity* is a basic unit of analysis, thus the nomenclature and classification of activities will be an important part of the planning, collection, and analysis of time-use data. The data can be easily compared between countries, providing there is a standard system of activity classification in place, which must cover all aspects of human activity.

In order to understand the variety and the range of all activities undertaken by the individuals, the time-use activity classification system seeks to organize those activities into groups according to their similarities: paid work activities (contacted); unpaid but productive activities (committed); personal care activities (necessary); or leisure activities (free). The basic two criteria of activity classification are (i) type of activity and (ii) the time spent on it.

##### *Activity classification system – Europe*

The Eurostat classification system used by more than 18 European countries proposes a coding scheme at one- and two-digit levels, while maintaining the opportunity for country-specific adaptations at the third-digit level. The first level contains 10 categories, and at the third level there are more than 100 activity categories. Variables in the diary that were coded were main activity, secondary activity, and location.

The main activities (first level of 10 categories) are:

- 0 Personal care
- 1 Employment
- 2 Study
- 3 Household and family care
- 4 Volunteer work and meetings
- 5 Social life and entertainment
- 6 Sport and outdoor activities
- 7 Hobbies and games
- 8 Mass media
- 9 Travel and unspecified time use.

##### *The UN's trial classification system*

The United Nations has proposed an international trial classification system, which differs from the Eurostat classification in three principal ways:

- The basic framework for distinguishing the economic nature of activities is the system of national accounts (SNA);



- All non-market production is brought together into a single, one-digit category and further specified at the two-digit and three-digit levels;
- Paid work activities which are undefined at the two- and three-digit level are given a more detailed breakdown.

This classification emphasizes productive activities, not only in the formal sector but also in the household and informal sectors. These distinctions are essential in understanding and recording the full range of work, both in developed and developing countries. In this classification system, activities that represent production within the SNA production boundary are classified in groups 1 to 3. Activities that fall predominantly within the general production boundary but outside the SNA, are classified in groups 4 to 6. Groups 7 to 10 cover nonproductive activities.

#### **UNITED NATIONS TRIAL CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM**

##### **SNA production (in the National Accounts)**

1. Employment for establishments
2. Primary production, not for establishments
3. Other production of goods and services not for establishments.

##### **Non-SNA production (considered as productive but not included in National Accounts)**

4. Household maintenance
5. Care of persons in the household
6. Community service to non-household members.

##### **Nonproductive (not included in National Accounts)**

7. Learning
8. Social and cultural includes activities
9. Mass media
10. Personal care.

#### ***Activity classification systems – African countries***

The concrete content of daily activities varies from country to country. The classification system developed by the European countries is not well suited to reflect the situation in African countries. Most existing systems fail to take into account the specific case of Africa – in particular, women's unpaid work for the household and in the informal sector.

The UN, in response, has developed the above-mentioned trial of a more detailed classification, which seeks to incorporate the developing countries' needs concerning the informal and household sectors. But still there is more work required in order to reach a common understanding of which classification is best suited to the African context, in particular to record the nonmarket (unpaid) work. **South Africa, Madagascar, and Nigeria** have adopted the UN classification system, while others such as Morocco and Benin have built their own classification systems.

The coding system in **Morocco** contained more than 600 activities carried out by women, and classified them into 9 categories:

1. Professional work includes the main professional occupation or economic activity;
2. Learning includes education and training, both formal and informal studies;
3. Household maintenance includes activities such as food preparation, water supply, and cleaning the dwelling;
4. Care for children includes activities such as playing and education, and medical care for children;
5. Travel not considered elsewhere;
6. Meals taken inside or outside the household;
7. Personal care includes medical care and other private activities;
8. Leisure includes activities such as participation in sport, festivals, and religious practices;
9. Other leisure includes activities, for example, attending a spectacle and dancing.

**Benin** has also elaborated its own classification system, according to the kinds of activities undertaken by the population, but also according to the logical and possible order of development of these activities during the day. The diverse activities number 63, classified in 9 categories as follows:

1. Economic activities for the market;
2. Nonmarket economic activities;
3. Domestic activities;
4. Social activities;
5. Social activities of ceremonial type, and other social activities;
6. Transport, traveling;
7. Leisure;
8. Studying and education;
9. Other activities.

Benin and Morocco's classification systems are different from the one formulated by the United Nations and used by countries like South Africa, and they are not compatible with the conceptual framework of the SNA. These differences raise the issue of comparability between the different systems of classification used in Africa; indeed, the findings from the different countries would be difficult to compare.

#### **4.5 Methods for undertaking the fieldwork**

How to undertake the fieldwork depends on different factors, such as the tools used for the data collection, the survey objectives, the level of literacy of the population, and available resources. Some developed countries, such as Denmark and Canada, conduct their time-use surveys by telephone. According to these countries, telephone interviewing has the advantage of reasonable cost (less than face-to-face interviewing) and a high response rate (higher than self-completed mail-back questionnaires). However, this form of data collection has the major limitation of excluding the households without phones, which are likely to be concentrated in certain population groups (such as the poor), thereby excluding them from the survey. This is likely to have an impact on the representativeness of the results. Another problem connected to the telephone interview is that it seems to have a lower response rate than the face-to-face interview, because it is easier for respondents to refuse to participate in the survey, than when the interviewer is actually in front of them.

### ***Fieldwork methodologies – Europe***

Eurostat's *Guidelines* also make recommendations in connection with time-use survey fieldwork. These recommendations concern all aspects related to the fieldwork such as the recruitment and training of the interviewers, the planning and supervision of interviews, the keeping of diaries, the training of coders, and the supervision of coding work. The *Guidelines* are very useful in order to reach a common understanding of the different steps, activities, and procedures needed for the fieldwork.

The *Guidelines* recommend that the household and the individual questionnaires be administered in face-to-face or telephone interviews. The diary is left behind, to be completed by household members. The instructions on diary keeping must be given to the respondents in person.

### ***Fieldwork methodologies – African countries***

Eurostat's *Guidelines* and other manuals from developed countries on how to conduct the field operations are not adapted for African countries, insofar as the methods and tools used to collect information are not the same. For example, the face-to-face interview method has to take account of the African-specific context, which relates to the variety of languages spoken, the cultural diversities, the rate of illiteracy, and the importance of simultaneous activities. It calls for a specific "Manual for Fieldworkers," including practical instructions on the recruitment and training of the interviewers, and on the planning and the supervision of field activities.

In **South Africa**, a manual of procedures and guidelines was made available for the fieldwork, which was conducted over three periods (February, June, and October 2000) so as to cover seasonal variations in the various activities. Over 100 temporary fieldworkers were employed for each of the three periods of the survey. These South African fieldworkers received a one-week training session. Similarly, in **Nigeria** the fieldworkers had a one-day training session on how to complete the questionnaire, and how to use the schedule of the trial International Classification of Time-Use Activities. This one-day training was inadequate to properly cover all the tasks. It is also noted that there was no field practice during the training.

## **4.6 Methods for data processing**

The data entry and processing from the three different survey forms (the household questionnaire, the individual questionnaires, and the diary) need specific computer applications and skills, which guarantee efficient data collection and timely processing for use in tabulations. Eurostat has

chosen the Blaise III version software for the development of the time-use data entry application. Blaise is a powerful computer-assisted interviewing or telephone instrument and survey data-processing tool. It was developed by Statistics Netherlands and is used for a variety of household survey data collection and processing, such as time-use surveys.

In Africa, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the methodology and skills needed to process and analyze the data from time-use surveys, especially for examining the multisectoral linkage between market and nonmarket work. The purpose of this exercise is not only to illustrate differences in activities in market and nonmarket spheres. The aim is also to plug this information into a macroeconomic and mutisectoral framework as the Social Accounting Matrices (SAM), in order to build a new economic system that will allow the incorporation of the nonmarket work into the national accounting system through satellite accounts.

The issue of capacity building to process and analyze data from time-use surveys is therefore highly critical for the African countries.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has questioned the enduring patriarchal allocation of gender roles by recognizing that alleviating women's time poverty not only benefits women and their communities, but also contributes to the achievement of the MDGs. Reducing women's workload of household activities among others, can save time that may then be allocated to other productive, remunerated work. This should contribute to reducing poverty, improve girls' chances to receive an education at all levels, and lead to a reduction in maternal and child mortality. It should also empower women and enable them to better claim their rights, and to take an active role in decision-making and in the management of natural resources.

Women's and girls' access to a good education, to productive and remunerated activities, as a route out of poverty, is often limited by their responsibility for everyday, unpaid household and care activities. For poor women and girls, this burden is even greater because of the underinvestment in public infrastructure and the effect of wars and conflicts on infrastructure. The time women and girls spend on routine tasks could be reduced dramatically if the appropriate infrastructure were put in place, whereby efficient sources of energy (especially new forms of fuel for cooking and heating), transport systems, and water and sanitation systems were more readily accessible to

women (UNECA, 2004). Investments in such infrastructure to relieve women's time burdens are therefore essential to maximize the impact of poverty reduction strategies, gender equality strategies, and achievement of the MDGs. Providing infrastructure in both rural and urban areas benefits poor men and women alike. However, lack of adequate physical facilities (such as roads, utility supply systems, communication systems, water and waste disposal systems) and the under-provision of services flowing from those facilities, typically results in a far greater time burden for women than for men because of a gender-based household division of labor.

The increased participation of women in economic activities due to reduced workloads would greatly boost overall achievement of the MDGs. Time-use data are an efficient means to provide valuable information for mainstreaming gender into poverty alleviation strategies and achievement of MDGs.

In this respect, the time-use survey is an innovative approach for integrating a gender perspective and particularly women's non-market work (unpaid work) into national accounting systems and national budgets. Many more countries in Africa need to be encouraged to undertake such surveys through strengthening the capacity of their National Statistical Offices to produce and analyze time-use survey data. Such data will be used to design and implement policies and programs for the enforcement of women's economic and social rights, thereby preventing the increasing feminization of poverty across the continent.

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## 2. Poverty in Nigeria: A Gendered Analysis

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### **Abstract**

*This paper presents a profile of gendered poverty in Nigeria for the period 1980–1996. It examines the determinants of gendered poverty and specific measures that can be taken to reduce it, using the 1996 National Consumer Survey dataset. The results show that by 1996, the proportion of the rural population living below the poverty line stood at 72%, up from 46% in 1992. All the indices of poverty (headcount, depth, and severity) show that poverty was more pronounced in female-headed households in 1980. However, this picture changed in 1985, when male-headed households demonstrated a higher incidence of poverty up until 1996 – the only exception being for the year 1992. Our empirical analysis shows that an increase in the female household head's age significantly reduces poverty, although this relationship is nonlinear, with further increases in age leading to less than proportionate decreases in rural poverty. Household size is positively and significantly related to poverty for both male- and female-headed households. Also, having primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education (in increasing order of magnitude) significantly decreases the level of poverty in both male- and female-headed households, but with greater magnitude for the latter. The analysis shows that the variable “no occupation” significantly reduces gendered poverty in Nigeria, though it increases poverty for male-headed households, while production and “other” occupations in particular appear to significantly increase poverty in female-headed households. Location is also a factor in explaining gendered poverty in Nigeria. Residence in the Central, South-east, and South-south zones of Nigeria has a statistically significant negative effect on the probability of being poor in male-headed households, while rural location statistically increases it. Contrariwise, the results with respect to the female-headed households show that location in the Central and South-west zones and in the rural areas increases the probability of being poor. Based on these results, we suggested a number of policy interventions necessary to reduce gendered poverty in Nigeria.*

**Key words:** *Feminized poverty, gendered poverty, poverty profile, poverty headcount, poverty depth, poverty severity*

### **Résumé**

*Cet article présente un profil de la pauvreté sexospécifique au Nigeria pour la période 1980-1996. Il examine les déterminants de la pauvreté selon le genre et les mesures pouvant contribuer à sa réduction, en se fondant sur les données de l'enquête nationale auprès des consommateurs de 1996. Les résultats montrent*

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*qu'en 1996, le pourcentage de la population rurale vivant sous le seuil de pauvreté était de 72 %, contre 46 % en 1992. Tous les indices de la pauvreté (incidence dans la population, portée et gravité) révèlent qu'en 1980, elle était plus prononcée dans les ménages dirigés par une femme. Mais en 1985, la situation a changé, les ménages dirigés par des hommes affichant une plus grande incidence de pauvreté jusqu'en 1996, à la seule exception de l'année 1992. D'après notre analyse empirique, l'augmentation de l'âge des femmes chefs de ménage réduit considérablement la pauvreté, bien que cette relation soit non linéaire. En fait, au-delà d'un certain niveau, l'augmentation de l'âge entraîne une baisse moins proportionnelle de la pauvreté rurale. La taille des ménages est positivement et considérablement liée à la pauvreté des ménages, qu'ils soient dirigés par un homme ou par une femme. En plus, le fait d'avoir reçu une éducation primaire, secondaire ou post secondaire (dans un ordre croissant) réduit de beaucoup le niveau de pauvreté dans les familles ayant à leur tête un homme ou une femme, l'ordre de grandeur étant plus élevé dans ce dernier cas. L'analyse montre que la variable « aucune occupation » réduit énormément la pauvreté sexospécifique au Nigeria, bien qu'elle augmente plus dans les familles monoparentales dirigées par un homme ; alors que la production et d'« autres » occupations semblent particulièrement aggraver la pauvreté dans celles dirigées par une femme. Le lieu de résidence est également l'un des facteurs qui expliquent la pauvreté sexospécifique au Nigeria. Statistiquement, le fait de résider dans le centre, le sud-est et l'extrême sud du pays a un effet très négatif sur la probabilité pour un ménage dirigé par un homme d'être pauvre, tandis que la résidence en milieu rural accroît statistiquement cette probabilité. Au contraire, les résultats en ce qui concerne les familles dirigées par une femme montrent que le fait de résider dans le centre, le sud-ouest ou les zones rurales du pays augmente la probabilité de pauvreté. Au regard de ces résultats, nous avons proposé des actions à entreprendre pour réduire la pauvreté sexospécifique au Nigeria.*

**Mots clés :** *pauvreté féminisée, pauvreté sexospécifique, profil de pauvreté, incidence de la pauvreté, portée de la pauvreté, gravité de la pauvreté.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The feminization of poverty – a phenomenon that is said to exist if poverty is more prevalent among female-headed households than among male-headed households – has been the focus of many recent studies. Reasons advanced for the existence of feminized poverty include discrimination against women in the labor market; or that women tend to have lower education than men and therefore are paid lower salaries. However, at a time when markets and states are undergoing dramatic and rapid changes,

“feminized poverty” may deepen and strengthen gender inequalities. As Bastos *et al.* (2009) have noted, poverty is not a gender-neutral condition, as its incidence is greater among women than men; furthermore, women and men experience poverty in distinctive ways.

In most countries, women constitute half of the population. Therefore, any development process that ignores the life-chances of half the population cannot address the problem of poverty and the crisis of sustainability. This is why at this critical juncture of global change, it is a necessity for the development process to fully incorporate an agenda for women’s empowerment by including women’s realities in the fullest sense. Thus, an understanding of gendered poverty is a precondition for effective pro-poor development strategies. The determinants of gendered poverty are not only complex but also multidimensional, involving, among other things, age, location, education, and occupation. To understand gendered poverty and to be able to delineate policy options, we need to study these dimensions. Thus, this paper analyzes the incidence of poverty in Nigeria by gender, its causes, and what specific measures can be taken to reduce it.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the methodological issues in Nigeria. Section 3 presents the results, discusses the profile of poverty in Nigeria by gender using the 1980–96 nationwide survey results, and presents the empirical estimates of the determinants of gendered poverty. Section 4 concludes with the policy implications.

## 2. METHODS

### 2.1 Data sources

The data used in this study derive from the National Integrated Survey of Households (NISH) of Nigeria. Under the NISH, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS formerly the Federal Bureau of Statistics (FOS)) conducted four Consumer Expenditure Surveys in 1980, 1985, 1992, and 1996 respectively. These surveys provide data that can be used to address in some detail issues of household and individual welfare. The National Consumer Surveys (NCSs), which are supplemental modules of the NISH, have been part of NBS activities for a number of decades, the first taking place in 1953. Surveys were conducted on an ad hoc basis until 1980, when the first NCS was conducted as part of NISH. In 1985, an enlarged survey was carried out, while others followed in 1992 and 1996.

The NISH program is run in line with the United Nations Household Survey Capability Program. The design of the NCSs follows the general NISH design. Each NCS covers all the states in the Federation, including the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja). In each state, 120 Enumeration Areas (EAs) are covered annually, with 10 EAs randomly allocated to each month of the survey. From the selected EAs, a sample of households (10) is covered each month for the General Household Survey (GHS), with five households subsampled for the NCS. A national household sample of 10,000 is aimed at. However, by 1996, with the number of states increasing to 30, the sample size was increased (see Okojie *et al.*, 2001; World Bank, 1998). The actual figures for data sizes used for this paper are provided in Table 1.

**Table 1: Sample sizes for NCS datasets**

Year	Sample Design	Urban		Rural		Total
		No.	%	No.	%	
1980	Three Stages – towns, EAs, HHs	5,582	54.3	4,698	45.7	10,280
1985	Two Stages – EAs, HHs	5,273	56.6	4,044	43.4	9,317
1992	Two Stages – EAs, HHs	3,978	41.0	5,719	59.0	9,697
1996	Two Stages – EAs, HHs	3,037	21.1	11,358	78.9	14,395

Notes: HHs = Households; EAs = Enumeration Areas

Source: Federal Office of Statistics (now National Bureau of Statistics), 1999, data files.

## 2.2 Poverty Indices

The  $P\alpha$  index measures proposed by Foster *et al.* (1984), which can be used to generate the headcount ratio ( $\alpha=0$ ), as well as the depth ( $\alpha=1$ ), and severity ( $\alpha=2$ ) of poverty, were used in this paper. The simplest and most common measure of poverty is the headcount ratio or the “incidence of poverty.” The poverty headcount is the number of people in a population who are poor, while the poverty headcount ratio (H) is the fraction who are poor. That is:

$$H = (q/n) \quad (1)$$

Where:

q = the number below the poverty line;  
n = the population size

The poverty headcount and the headcount ratio are only concerned with the number of people below the poverty line. They are insensitive to the depth or severity of poverty and to changes below the poverty line. That is, they do not satisfy the axioms of “strong monotonicity” or “distributional sensitivity.” However, the headcount ratio is the most commonly used measure of poverty because of its simplicity and ease of calculation (Fields, 1997).

The  $P\alpha$  index proposed by Foster *et al.* (1984) incorporates some degree of concern about poverty through a “poverty aversion” parameter  $\alpha$ .

The  $P\alpha$  class measure can be written as:

$$P\alpha = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \frac{(Z - Y_i)^\alpha}{Z}. \quad (2)$$

Where:

Z = poverty line  
q = number of persons/households below the poverty line  
Y = income of the person/household  
 $\alpha$  = the FGT parameter which takes the value 0, 1, 2 depending on the degree of concern about poverty  
Z - Y = is the proportionate shortfall below the poverty line

This figure is raised to power  $\alpha$ . By increasing the value of  $\alpha$ , the “aversion” to poverty is measured. When there is no aversion to poverty, that is  $\alpha = 0$ , the index is simply:

$$P\alpha = \frac{1}{n}(q) = q/n = H. \quad (3)$$

H is the headcount ratio, which measures the incidence of poverty. When  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $P\alpha$  measures the depth of poverty; when  $\alpha = 2$ ,  $P\alpha$  measures the severity of poverty.

The  $P\alpha$  index satisfies the Sen transfer axiom, which requires that when income is transferred from a poor to a richer household, measured poverty increases. Another advantage of the  $P\alpha$  measure is that it is decomposable by population subgroups. Thus, the overall measure of poverty can be expressed as the sum of group measures weighted by the population share of each group. That is,

$$P\alpha = \sum_{j=1} K_j P\alpha_j. \quad (4)$$

Where:

- $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots m$  groups,
- $K_j =$  population share of each group,
- $P\alpha_j =$  the poverty measure of each group.

From this, the contribution of each group  $C_j$  to overall poverty can be calculated as follows:

$$C_j = \frac{K_j P\alpha_j}{P\alpha}. \quad (5)$$

This property of the index implies that when any group becomes poorer, aggregate poverty will increase. In this paper, the  $P\alpha$  index is used:  $P_0$  (the headcount or poverty incidence),  $P_1$  (the depth of poverty), and  $P_2$  (the severity of poverty) were calculated. The contributions of various subgroups in the population to overall rural poverty were also calculated.

### 2.3 Analysis

In the paper, the nationally defined poverty line is used. Total real per capita expenditure was used as a proxy for the standard of living of households interviewed. Households were classified as poor or nonpoor in relation to their level of total expenditure (food or nonfood). To do this, two lines were set relative to the standard of living in the country: a moderate poverty line equal to two-thirds of the mean per capita expenditure, and a core poverty

line equal to one-third of the mean per capita expenditure. Households were then classified into one of three groups – core (extreme) poor, moderately poor, and non-poor – as determined by these poverty lines. To derive poverty lines for 1996, a raising factor equal to the ratio of CPI (Consumer Price Index) – 28.56 – for the year relative to that for 1985 was used.

Multivariate analysis, using a logistic regression in accordance with the basic principles of discrete choice models on the 1996 dataset were used. In order to explore the correlates of poverty by gender with the variables thought to be important in explaining poverty, a logistic regression model was estimated, with the dependent variable being the dichotomous variable of whether the Nigerian household is poor (1) or not poor (0). The explanatory variables considered important in the analysis of poverty by gender (household is male- or female-headed) were: personal characteristic (age and its square), demographic characteristic (household size and its square), educational attainment (primary, secondary, and post-secondary), occupation (professional, administrative, clerical, sales, services, agriculture/farming, production, manufacturing, and “other”), geographical residence (the zones being: north-east, north-west, central, south-east, south-west, and south-south), and location (urban or rural).

Indeed, it is argued that poverty increases with old age as the productivity of the individual decreases, whereas the individual has few savings to compensate for this loss of productivity and income. This position is consistent with those of Gang *et al.* (2002), Datt and Jolliffe (1999), and Rodriguez (2002).

The literature is also replete with evidence that large households are associated with poverty (World Bank, 1991a, 1991b, 1996; Lanjouw and Ravallion, 1994; Cortes, 1997; Székely, 1998; Anyanwu, 1997, 1998a; and Gang *et al.*, 2002). The absence of well-developed social security systems and low savings in developing countries (especially those in Africa) tends to increase fertility rates, particularly among the poor. This is one of the rationales for parents to increase their number of children, to safeguard support from them when they grow old. Also, as Schultz (1981) indicated, high infant mortality rates among the poor tends to provoke excess replacement births or births to insure against high infant and child mortality, which will increase household size.

In addition, the literature shows that education increases the stock of human capital, which in turn increases labor productivity and wages. Since labor is by far the most important asset of the poor, increasing the education of the poor will tend to reduce poverty. In fact, there appears to be a vicious

cycle of poverty, in that low education leads to poverty and poverty leads to low education (see also Bastos *et al.*, 2009). The poor are unable to afford education, even if it is provided publicly, because of the high opportunity cost that they face. All too often the poor cannot attend school because they have to work to survive. Indeed, Palmer-Jones and Sen (2003) found that rural households in India, where the primary wage-earner has received no formal education or only up to primary level, are more likely to be poor than households whose earning members have attended secondary school and beyond.

It is hypothesized that occupation has a high correlation with poverty because occupations that require low amounts of capital, either human or physical, will be associated with low earnings and therefore with higher poverty rates. Location of residence also matters. In particular, due to more job opportunities in urban areas, poverty tends to be lower in urban than rural areas.

Thus, in the model, the response variable is binary, taking only two values, 1 if the Nigerian household is poor, 0 if not. The probability of being poor depends on a set of variables listed above and denoted as  $x$  so that:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(Y = 1) &= F(\beta'x) \\ \text{Prob}(Y = 0) &= 1 - F(\beta'x) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Using the logistic distribution we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(Y = 1) &= \frac{e^{\beta'x}}{1 + e^{\beta'x}} \\ &= \Lambda(\beta'x) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where  $\Lambda$  represents the logistic cumulative distribution function. Then, the probability model is the regression:

$$\begin{aligned} E[y/x] &= 0[1 - F(\beta'x)] + 1[F(\beta'x)] \\ &= F(\beta'x). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The results are meant to strengthen and clarify the descriptive analysis. To gauge the determinants of gendered poverty in Nigeria, a separate estimation was made by gender of household head. The dependent variable is defined as 1 if average per capita household expenditure is below the poverty line and 0 if it is above the poverty line (see also Anyanwu, 1997, 1998b, 2005; Anyanwu and Erhijakpor, 2010; Rodriguez, 2002; Ghazouani and Goaid, 2001; and Gang *et al.*, 2002).

Since the logistic model is not linear, the marginal effects of each independent variable on the dependent variable are not constant but are dependent on the values of the independent variables (Greene, 2003). Thus, to analyze the effects of the independent variables upon the probability of being poor, we looked at the change of odds ratio as the dependent variables change. The odds ratio is defined as the ratio of the probability of being poor divided by the probability of not being poor. This is computed as the exponent of the logit coefficients ( $e^{\beta}$ ) and can be expressed in percentage as  $[100(e^{\beta}-1)]$ .

### 3. RESULTS

#### 3.1 Poverty profile in Nigeria by gender

The indices of poverty used in this section are headcount index (incidence), poverty gap index, and poverty severity index. Table 2 shows the distribution of headcount poverty by rural–urban residence, zone, and gender of household head. In 1980, the incidence of poverty was higher in female-headed households. Since 1985, however, poverty has been lower in female-headed households than in male-headed households. The incidence of poverty by rural–urban residence follows national trends. Poverty is higher in rural households, whether headed by a male or female. In 1996, the incidence of poverty was about the same in both male and female-headed households in urban areas. The incidence of poverty varies widely between zones. In 1980, poverty was higher in female-headed households in all the six zones. The incidence of poverty was generally higher in the Northern zones in both male and female-headed households.



**Table 2: Poverty headcount by gender of household head and zone**

Region	1980		1985		1992		1996	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	%		%		%		%	
All Nigeria	26.9	29.1	47.4	38.6	43.1	39.9	62.7	59.9
Urban	17.2	17.2	38.7	30.6	37.8	34.8	59.4	59.7
Rural	28.1	30.5	52.6	42.9	46.2	44.1	72.6	60.4
<b>ZONE:</b>								
North-East	34.9	40.6	56.3	45.2	54.5	39.1	68.4	53.1
North-West	37.6	39.1	52.3	46.7	37.0	21.6	68.6	62.3
Central	31.6	43.9	51.2	47.1	45.8	49.4	66.8	60.3
South-East	9.1	26.4	31.8	23.2	41.5	38.4	68.3	61.6
South-West	12.9	16.9	39.9	32.4	47.8	44.6	67.8	59.9
South-South	13.3	13.9	45.8	54.9	42.1	35.5	66.9	63.3

Source: National Consumer Surveys 1980, 1985, 1992 and 1996.

Table 3 shows the poverty headcount by gender and characteristics of household heads.

**Table 3: Poverty headcount by gender and characteristics of household head**

Region	1980		1985		1992		1996	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
<b>Education:</b>								
None	29.2	33.6	52.7	42.5	52.7	39.2	75.3	63.8
Primary	25.7	16.9	49.8	49.8	56.9	45.4	61.3	55.3
Secondary	16.8	32.1	41.4	33.0	70.3	36.6	53.3	56.0
Post-secondary	20.7	26.1	27.7	13.5	74.0	22.8	47.9	44.7

.../cont.

**Table 3 (cont.)**

Region	1980		1985		1992		1996	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
<b>Occupation:</b>								
Prof.-Technical	12.0	52.1	47.2	33.4	35.8	33.4	53.4	47.8
Administrative	1.1	0.0	73.4	30.9	23.9	0.0	24.2	0.0
Clerical	8.5	31.1	42.9	36.9	35.0	25.5	62.3	58.3
Sales	15.7	12.2	48.8	41.7	31.5	39.0	57.7	60.4
Services	21.0	24.7	49.7	42.2	37.4	41.1	76.7	42.6
Agriculture	31.7	29.0	47.3	34.2	48.4	40.4	73.1	61.1
Transport	15.4	70.2	41.4	38.1	38.3	55.6	65.1	69.8
Manufacturing	8.6	86.8	46.6	76.4	33.1	58.6	50.8	0.0
Others	1.6	100.0	47.9	76.6	42.1	45.6	62.7	62.8
Apprentice/Student	13.6	55.1	47.8	40.1	41.6	46.6	53.3	45.3
<b>Household Size</b>								
1	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.9	2.7	3.3	9.1	17.8
2-4	8.5	10.7	19.3	19.3	17.1	29.7	50.9	54.4
5-9	29.2	37.9	50.6	49.5	44.8	52.2	74.7	81.2
10-20	50.6	60.2	70.9	76.4	65.5	79.9	88.9	78.3
20+	73.2	100.0	74.0	100.0	93.4	39.9	95.1	-

Source: National Consumer Surveys, 1980, 1985, 1992, 1996.

**Education:** In 1980, poverty was lower in households of female heads with primary education; otherwise, poverty was higher in female-headed households. In other years, female-headed households recorded lower levels of poverty, although female-headed households with secondary education recorded a higher incidence of poverty than their male counterparts in 1996. In general, poverty declined the higher the level of education of the household head.

**Occupation:** The two occupational areas in which women are to be found in substantial numbers are agriculture (rural women) and sales activities.

Women are found in fewer numbers in clerical and professional-technical occupations. Table 3 shows that while only 12.2% of women in sales occupations were poor in 1980, this had risen to 60.4% by 1996. The majority of urban women in Nigeria are engaged in sales activities. Similarly, the incidence of poverty among women in agricultural occupations increased from 29.0% in 1980 to 61.1% in 1996. Over the same period, the incidence of poverty among female heads in professional-technical occupations declined from 52.1% in 1980 to 47.4% in 1996, probably because by then women had access to better jobs because of higher educational attainment.

**Household Size:** For all survey periods, poverty increased with household size in both male and female-headed households, but more so in the latter. The incidence of poverty was very high in households with more than nine members.

Our analysis of national levels of poverty using these three indices of poverty showed that the incidence of poverty increased sharply between 1980 and 1985, declined slightly between 1985 and 1992, but increased sharply between 1992 and 1996 (see Table 4). The proportion of the population living in poverty based on the headcount index rose from 27% in 1980 to 46% in 1985, it declined slightly to 42% in 1992 and increased sharply to 67% in 1996. The gap and severity indices reflected a similar trend during this period. For example, the depth of poverty increased between 1980 and 1985, and hardly changed from 1985 to 1992. However, a spike in this index can be noticed between 1992 and 1996, when it increased from 16.3% to 30.4%, which implies that the average shortfall (gap) between the poor households' expenditure levels and the poverty line nearly doubled between 1992 and 1996. Similarly, the average poverty gap became more unequally distributed among the poor in 1996 compared to the other years. For example, it rose from 4.3% in 1980 to 17.4% in 1996.

In terms of gender distribution of poverty, all the indices showed that poverty was more pronounced in the female-headed household in 1980. For example, the headcount, gap and severity indices in 1980 were 29.1%, 11.1%, and 6.6% respectively as against 26.9%, 8.8%, and 4.1% respectively for the male-headed households (Table 4). However, this picture changed from 1985–96, when male-headed households demonstrated a higher incidence of poverty. The only exception was in 1992, when the female-headed households marginally demonstrated more depth of poverty (16.9% as against 16.4%) than the male-headed households. Tables 5 to 7 show the gendered distribution and distribution of poverty from 1980 to 1996.

Table 4: Headcount, depth and severity of poverty by sector and household head characteristics

Variable	1980			1985			1992			1996		
	Head Count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity
National	0.271	0.090	0.043	0.463	0.163	0.078	0.427	0.164	0.086	0.669	0.304	0.174
Urban	0.172	0.052	0.023	0.378	0.121	0.054	0.375	0.135	0.067	0.593	0.263	0.150
Rural	0.283	0.095	0.046	0.514	0.189	0.093	0.460	0.183	0.098	0.717	0.330	0.189
Male-Headed	0.269	0.088	0.041	0.473	0.167	0.080	0.431	0.164	0.086	0.677	0.308	0.177
Female Headed	0.291	0.110	0.066	0.386	0.135	0.065	0.399	0.169	0.095	0.599	0.267	0.150
<i>Household size</i>												
1 person	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.001	0.000	0.028	0.017	0.014	0.120	0.034	0.015
2-4 persons	0.088	0.019	0.007	0.193	0.046	0.017	0.194	0.057	0.026	0.515	0.197	0.100
5-9 persons	0.300	0.089	0.039	0.504	0.167	0.075	0.453	0.161	0.080	0.750	0.348	0.200
10-20 persons	0.510	0.186	0.089	0.713	0.291	0.153	0.661	0.292	0.163	0.885	0.472	0.301
20+ persons	0.809	0.605	0.481	0.748	0.474	0.344	0.933	0.605	0.420	0.950	0.664	0.489
<i>Educ. Level</i>												
No education	0.296	0.099	0.048	0.513	0.187	0.091	0.464	0.181	0.097	0.741	0.349	0.203
Primary	0.248	0.081	0.037	0.497	0.177	0.086	0.433	0.165	0.084	0.605	0.262	0.145
Secondary	0.185	0.064	0.035	0.406	0.132	0.060	0.303	0.112	0.058	0.535	0.225	0.123
Post Secondary	0.214	0.059	0.021	0.263	0.077	0.034	0.257	0.084	0.042	0.478	0.181	0.096

.../cont.

Table 4 (cont.)

Variable	1980			1985			1992			1996		
	Head Count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity	Head count	Depth	Severity
<i>Age group</i>												
15- 24	0.162	0.071	0.039	0.253	0.099	0.050	0.286	0.103	0.052	0.389	0.184	0.112
22- 34	0.177	0.048	0.021	0.334	0.101	0.044	0.285	0.103	0.052	0.533	0.217	0.115
35- 44	0.266	0.103	0.056	0.459	0.154	0.070	0.421	0.156	0.082	0.655	0.293	0.166
45- 54	0.272	0.083	0.035	0.496	0.177	0.084	0.457	0.181	0.095	0.721	0.338	0.196
55- 64	0.396	0.128	0.056	0.557	0.209	0.106	0.482	0.190	0.104	0.714	0.327	0.189
65+	0.287	0.077	0.033	0.491	0.195	0.101	0.494	0.189	0.098	0.704	0.334	0.198

Source: National Consumer Surveys 1980, 1985, 1992, and 1996.

Table 5: Distribution of poverty by sector and household head: Head Count Index (%)

Variable	1980			1985			1992			1996		
	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.
Urban	10.4	17.2	6.6	37.5	37.8	30.6	38.3	37.5	33.5	38.9	59.4	34.6
Rural	89.6	28.3	93.4	62.5	51.4	69.4	61.7	46	66.5	61.1	71.7	65.4
Male-Headed	89.9	26.9	89.2	88.0	47.3	90.0	89.6	43.0	90.3	89.9	67.7	91.0
Female Headed	10.1	29.1	10.8	12.0	38.6	10.0	10.4	39.9	9.7	10.1	60.0	9.0

Notes: Dist. = Weighted population share

Cont. = Contribution to total poverty

Source: National Consumer Surveys 1980, 1985, 1992 and 1996.

**Table 6: Distribution of poverty by sector and household head: Gap Index (%)**

Variable	1980			1985			1992			1996		
	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.
Urban	10.4	5.2	6.0	37.5	12.1	27.7	38.3	13.5	31.3	38.9	26.4	33.8
Rural	89.6	9.5	94.0	62.5	18.9	72.3	61.7	18.3	68.7	61.1	33.0	66.2
Male-Headed	89.9	8.8	87.7	88.0	16.7	90.0	89.6	16.4	89.3	89.9	30.9	91.1
Female Headed	10.1	11.1	12.3	12.0	13.5	10.0	10.4	17.0	10.7	10.1	26.8	8.9

Notes: Dist = Weighted population share

Cont. = Contribution to total poverty

Source: National Consumer Surveys 1980, 1985, 1992 and 1996.

**Table 7: Distribution of poverty by sector and household head: Severity Index (%)**

Variable	1980			1985			1992			1996		
	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.	Dist.	Index	Cont.
Urban	10.4	2.3	5.5	37.5	5.4	26.0	38.3	6.7	29.8	38.9	15.1	33.7
Rural	89.6	4.6	94.5	62.5	9.3	74.0	61.7	9.8	70.2	61.1	18.9	66.3
Male-Headed	89.9	4.1	84.6	88.0	8.0	90.1	89.6	8.6	88.6	89.9	17.7	91.3
Female Headed	10.1	6.6	15.4	12.0	6.5	9.9	10.4	9.5	11.4	10.1	15.0	8.7

Notes: Dist = Weighted population share

Cont = Contribution to total poverty

Source: National Consumer Surveys 1980, 1985, 1992, and 1996.

### **3.2 Multivariate Analysis: determinants of gendered poverty in Nigeria**

Our empirical results are summarized in Table 8. These results provide strong support for earlier descriptive analysis.

The results for male-headed households show that the coefficients of household size; possessing primary, secondary and post-secondary levels of education; working in professional, clerical, sales, services, agricultural, production, manufacturing, and “other” occupations; and dwelling in Central, South-east and South-south zones are significantly different from zero at different confidence levels. The variables that are positively correlated with the probability of being poor in male-headed households in Nigeria are: size of the household; working in professional, clerical, sales, services, agricultural, production, manufacturing, and “other” occupations; and living in the rural areas. The variables that are negatively correlated with the probability of being poor in male-headed households are: possessing primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education (coefficients are in increasing order), and living in the Central, South-east and South-south zones of the country.

On the other hand, for female-headed households, the coefficients of age (and squared); household size; possessing primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education; being in production and “other” occupations; and dwelling in the Central and South-west zones are significantly different from zero at different confidence levels. The variables that are positively correlated with the probability of being poor in female-headed households in Nigeria are: quadratic of age; size of the household; working in production and “other” occupations; and living in the Central and South-west zones of the country. The variables that are negatively correlated with the probability of being poor are: age; and attaining primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education.

**Table 8: Determinants of poverty in Nigeria by gender, 1996**

Variables	Male-headed Household		Female-headed Household	
	(1) Coefficient	z-value	(2) Coefficient	z-value
<i>Age</i>				
Age	-0.657	-0.43	-10.288	-2.70*
Age squared	0.097	0.48	1.367	2.72*
<i>Household size</i>				
HH size	2.043	14.17**	1.938	7.13**
HH size squared	-0.084	-1.53	-0.012	-0.08
<i>Education</i>				
Primary	-0.214	3.30*	-0.413	-2.93*
Secondary	-0.397	5.04**	-0.854	-4.24**
Post Secondary	-0.838	7.19**	-1.372	-3.72*
<i>Occupation</i>				
Professional	2.150	2.72*	0.645	1.12
Admin /Clerical	2.246	2.85*	0.171	0.28
Sales	1.864	2.37*	0.564	1.21
Services	2.506	3.09*	...	...
Agriculture	2.052	2.61*	0.252	0.53
Production	2.349	2.90*	...	...
Manufacturing	1.904	2.38*	1.294	2.24*
Others	2.444	3.07*	1.248	2.42*
<i>Zones</i>				
North-east	-0.131	-1.43	0.315	-0.54
North-west	0.044	0.46	...	...
Central	-0.550	-6.52**	1.273	2.31*
South-east	-0.899	-9.22**	0.114	0.21
South-west	...	...	0.936	1.70
South-south	-0.582	-6.32**	0.167	0.30

.../cont.



**Table 8 (cont.)**

Variables	Male-headed Household		Female-headed Household	
	(1) Coefficient	z-value	(2) Coefficient	z-value
<i>Location</i>				
Urban	...	...	...	...
Rural	0.419	6.03**	0.434	3.07*
<i>Constant</i>	-3.141	-1.06	16.298	2.27*
	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup> = 0.2015 LR chi2(21) = 3283.99 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000 Log likelihood = -6508.1152 N = 11940		Pseudo R <sup>2</sup> = 0.2200 LR chi2(19) = 605.28 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000 Log likelihood = -1073.1524 N = 1989	

\*\* Significant at 1% level; \* Significant at 5% level;

... Variable not included because it was not found to be statistically significant at the univariate analysis stage or because its effect on poverty in female- and male-headed households was similar.

Source: National Consumer Survey data of 1996.

### 3.3 Marginal effects and odds ratios

Table 9 shows the odds ratios for each independent variable for the gendered results reported in Table 8.

**Table 9: Odds ratio estimates of the determinants of poverty in Nigeria by gender, 1996**

Variables	Male-headed Household	Female-headed Household
<i>Age</i>		
Age	0.518	0.00003*
Age squared	1.101	1.924*

.../cont.

**Table 9 (cont.)**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Male-headed Household</b>	<b>Female-headed Household</b>
<i>Household size</i>		
HH size	7.714**	6.945**
HH size squared	0.919	0.988
<i>Education</i>		
Primary	0.807**	0.662*
Secondary	1.487**	0.426**
Post Secondary	2.312**	0.254*
<i>Occupation</i>		
Professional	8.585*	1.906
Admin/ Clerical	9.450*	1.187
Sales	6.449*	1.758
Services	12.256*	...
Agriculture	7.783*	1.287
Production	10.475*	3.647*
Manufacturing	6.713*	...
Others	11.519*	3.483*
<i>Zones</i>		
North-east	0.877	1.370
North-west	0.957	...
Central	0.577**	3.572*
South-east	0.407**	1.121
South-west	...	2.550
South-south	0.559**	1.182
<i>Location</i>		
Urban	...	...
Rural	1.520**	1.543*

\*\* Significant at 1% level; \* Significant at 5% level.

... Variable not included because it was not found to be statistically significant at the univariate analysis stage or because its effect on poverty in female- and male-headed households was similar.

Source: Estimations from National Consumer Survey data of 1996.

As can be seen from Table 9, the quadratic age of male and female household head; household size (for all estimations); secondary and post-secondary education for male-headed households; professional, clerical sales, services, agricultural, production and “other” occupations for male-headed households; professional, clerical, sales, agricultural, production and “other” occupations for female-headed households; dwelling in rural areas (for both estimations); and dwelling in the North-east, Central, South-east, South-west, and South-south in female-headed households have odds ratios greater than one, which means that these variables are positively correlated with the probability of being poor. Those with odds ratios lower than one are negatively correlated with the probability of being poor.

Thus, from the gendered results, increases in the age of the female household head significantly reduce poverty, though this relationship is nonlinear, with further increases in age leading to less than proportionate decreases in rural poverty. We also find that household size is positively and significantly related to poverty, for both male- and female-headed households. Our results indicate that having primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education (in increasing order of magnitude) significantly decreases the level of poverty in both male- and female-headed households, but with greater magnitude for the latter. Our results show that no occupation significantly reduces gendered poverty in Nigeria though most increase it for male-headed households, while production and “other” occupations in particular appear to significantly increase poverty in female-headed households. Further, our results indicate that location matters in explaining gendered poverty in Nigeria. Location in the Central, South-east, and South-south zones of Nigeria has a statistically significant negative effect on the probability of being poor in male-headed households, while a rural location statistically increases it. Contrariwise, the results with respect to the female-headed households show that location in the Central and South-west zones and in the rural areas increases the probability of being poor.

#### 4. DISCUSSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Our results and analyses above suggest that policy interventions are necessary to reduce poverty in Nigeria. First, there is a need to focus on gender-based poverty interventions (World Bank, 1995; UNDP, 2005), especially among female-headed households in Nigeria. Thus, in Nigeria, “headship” is a useful criterion for targeting anti-poverty interventions.

Second, given that poverty increases with the number of household members (or family size) in both male- and female-headed households, there is an urgent need to intensify family planning services and related activities in Nigeria, so as to improve knowledge, acceptance, and practice (KAP) of family planning. This will involve not only increased financial outlay but also research on fertility determinants as well as decentralized planning, delivery, and supervision of family planning services (Anyanwu *et al.*, 1998b, 1998c).

Third, given the finding that incremental education reduces poverty in Nigeria for both male- and female-headed households, policymakers need to tackle this challenge head on. The literature has identified a number of possible policy instruments to deal with poverty, including conditional cash transfers, guaranteed employment schemes, labor market training, greater access to health, nutrition and education through increased social investments, affirmative action, and land and property rights reforms, especially to benefit rural dwellers (particularly women). Evidence has shown that conditional cash transfers and expenditures (for education, for example) are effective levers of poverty reduction and redistribution (see Levy, 2006; Kanbur, 2008; Anyanwu and Erhijakpor, 2010). Improving access to education, for example, can reduce poverty both by increasing individual productivity and by facilitating the movement of poor people from low-paid jobs in agriculture to higher-paid jobs in industry and services. More importantly, public spending on education, when targeted toward the poor, can produce a double dividend, reducing poverty in the short run and increasing the chances for poor children to access formal jobs and thus break free from the intergenerational poverty trap. Increasing educational levels (and its quality) should be accompanied by a strong investment climate to ensure that productive jobs are created for the newly educated.

Fourth, the above policy interventions have become imperative, given that occupations overall are poverty accelerating, especially in male-headed household. This can be explained by the vicious cycle of poverty given low capital, inadequate inputs, and lack of access to modern techniques both in the farms and other nonfarm occupations. Investing in the agricultural sector to reduce poverty should be a matter of great priority. There is also need to encourage productivity and access in both farm and nonfarm occupations through direct input supply, strengthening and expanding of agricultural research and extension services, adapting agricultural technology and extension services to poor farmers, and by improving physical infrastructure such as electricity and other forms of energy supply, roads, railroads, airports, ICT, and irrigation. At the same time, a diversification of income sources should be encouraged. In the same vein, the government

should design socioeconomic policies to promote long-term employment. Government can assist households through increased and broadened support to National Agricultural and Rural Development Banks, Community Banks and Employment Creation Funds, for onlending to small-scale enterprises. Further, school curricula should be oriented towards skills acquisition, among other measures.

Lastly, since poverty in Nigeria does have important spatial implications, geographic targeting (especially in the Central and South-west zones for female-headed households) can play an important role in government anti-poverty efforts. Targeting is also necessary in rural areas, given that residence in these areas is positively related to high poverty for both male- and female-headed households. Moreover, geographically targeted programs are attractive, partly because they are more cost-effective than untargeted programs. Thus, making financial capital, physical infrastructure (especially roads, electricity, and ICT) and technological innovation available in poor rural areas will boost government efforts to reduce poverty in the country.

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### 3. Socialization Patterns and Boys' Underperformance in Seychellois Schools

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#### **Abstract**

*This article is based on an empirical study conducted in 2009 that examines boys' underperformance in Seychellois schools. In addition to studying the boys at school, the research undertook a broader examination of the boys' home socialization patterns. The article establishes that while boys have more freedom to roam around, they also have very narrowly defined gender roles which places them at a disadvantage to girls, who develop more rounded personalities and closeness to their mothers. Fathers have little to do with their children's education and they fail to act as role-models to their sons. A preconceived notion held by the society that men are generally unreliable, together with a negative gender dialogue between men and women, create unfavorable conditions for men and boys to thrive. The article argues that men need to be encouraged to claim a bigger role in their sons' upbringing, and that social services need to be shaped around fathers' needs.*

**Key words:** gender roles, gender socialization, education

#### **Résumé**

*Le présent article se fonde sur étude empirique menée en 2009 sur la performance inférieure des garçons à l'école aux Seychelles. Outre l'examen des performances scolaires des garçons, l'étude s'est penchée, au sens plus large, sur les modes de socialisation des garçons. L'article démontre que, bien qu'ils aient une plus grande liberté de mouvement, les garçons, dont le rôle est très circonscrit en raison de leur genre, sont désavantagés par rapport aux filles qui, elles, ont la possibilité de développer une personnalité plus équilibrée et de se rapprocher de leur mère. Les pères n'ont pratiquement aucun rôle à jouer dans l'éducation de leurs enfants et ne réussissent pas à servir de modèle à leurs fils. L'idée reçue selon laquelle les hommes ne sont pas dignes de confiance, et le dialogue négatif entre hommes et femmes créent des conditions non favorables à la réussite des hommes et des garçons. L'article souligne que les hommes ont besoin d'être encouragés à revendiquer un rôle plus important dans l'éducation de leur fils et que les services sociaux doivent être adaptés au besoin des pères.*

**Mots clés :** rôles des genres, socialisation des genres, éducation

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

In large parts of Africa, poor school attendance and performance are generally problems associated with girls rather than boys. The reasons why girls are absent from school or perform worse than boys, lie in structural and societal imbalances skewed against them. These comprise a raft of disadvantages, for example, the distance of the school from home; poverty; strict and unfair gender roles causing girls to be burdened with household chores; and social prejudices that rule that because girls marry, they need no education. All these factors individually and collectively can make school attendance and educational success difficult for girls.

The Seychelles, however, proves an exception to this pattern. Here it is the boys who experience problems in school, not because barriers to access exist but due to other, less clear-cut reasons, which relate to societal attitudes and lack of parental and school support. This article is based on a study that aims to unravel aspects of home socialization, which sometimes intervene to affect boys' performance in state schools in the Seychelles (AfDB, 2009).

The issue of boys' relative underachievement and underparticipation at both primary and secondary state schools has been noted for some years in the Seychelles. National examination results and surveys reveal that girls outperform boys at school in all subjects across the curriculum, including Mathematics and Science, and in completion rates at secondary level. Girls appear to be more adapted to schooling than boys. This happens in a country where the government provides free pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary education for all children. Why then are the boys doing so badly?

The Seychelles is a country where most of the women's basic needs have been met. Women have achieved almost full practical empowerment in the public sphere, with constitutional and equal rights to work, education, health, electoral voting, land ownership, and inheritance laws. In fact, some argue that women and girls have many advantages over men and boys. The significant difference in life expectancy at birth for women (78 years) and men (68 years) is an indication of this (National Statistics Bureau, 2010). Women appear to be highly visible in public life because of the small size of the country. In fact, women make up 62% of the Civil Service, 24% of Members of Parliament, and 28% of government ministers. While full participation in decisionmaking processes at political and administrative levels is still some way off, women in the Seychelles are considerably more empowered than in the neighboring island states of Mauritius, Madagascar, Comoros, and in other regional countries.

Demographic household characteristics tell an interesting story that sheds further light on gender relations in the Seychelles: family size has steadily declined through the 1990s and stood at 3.7 in 2007. Women-headed households have always been numerous in the Seychelles, having reached 51% in 1993, and increasing to 57% in 2007 (National Statistics Bureau, 2009). In 2009, only one-third of all marriages conducted in the Seychelles were between local Seychellois, the rest being between tourists. Even more indicative is the fact that one in three Seychellois marriages ends in divorce. Perhaps not surprisingly, 80% of all births in 2009 were to unmarried parents and their fathers did not acknowledge 20% of these children (National Statistics Bureau, 2010). This pattern is not new in the Seychelles. French Chang-Him (2002), the Bishop of Seychelles, wrote in 2002 that:

*In many households, the father remains on the periphery and leaves the mother to carry the full responsibility of bringing up the children. He sees nothing wrong in having other partners and children.*

Older research has related the Seychelles' weak family structures to its history of slavery. This, it is claimed, served to prevent the establishment of healthy family values, while constructing a culture of irresponsible sexual attitudes and weak paternal responsibility. This theory traces the culture of casual sexual relationships to slave masters having rights over all children born to female slaves against the claims of biological fathers (Maiche, 2003; Bwana and Bwana, 1996), while it links cohabitation to rules that forbade marriage between slaves. These historical reasons are cited to explain that men had their role of husbands and fathers forcibly taken away from them (Chang-Him, 2002).

Apart from the academic underachievement of boys, the Seychelles also seems to suffer from a number of other deep-seated social problems. These include: domestic violence, which affects women and, increasingly, also men as victims (Gender Secretariat, 2008); alcoholism amongst older men; substance abuse (especially of heroin) amongst younger men, and a rising incidence of male suicides. An apparent increase in bisexuality and homosexuality in men is another new trend. Moreover, a ten-year difference in life expectancy in favor of women suggests that men tend to live unhealthy lifestyles and neglect healthcare. These factors are manifestations of what may be termed a "growing crisis of masculinity," which some readily interpret as the downside of women's social and economic emancipation.

Seychellois men have been portrayed as irresponsible fathers, living on the margins of family life and detached from the lives of their children (Benedict

and Benedict, 1982; Chang-Him, 2002). This image has fueled negative media portrayals, showing Seychellois men secondary to women in care-giving roles and in life generally. The present paper seeks to foster a greater understanding of men's apparent disempowerment in Seychellois society.

## 2. GENDER DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATION

Boys' relative underachievement and underparticipation in state schools at both primary and secondary levels is well established. National examination results reveal that girls outperform boys at school in all subjects across the curriculum. Moreover, they participate more actively in extracurricular activities and occupy leadership positions such as prefect roles more readily than boys. In general, boys demonstrate a higher dropout rate, higher levels of truancy, and a greater incidence of discipline problems in schools (Pardiwalla, 2007, 2009). Between 2000 and 2008, the mean difference between exam marks at the end of the primary level peaked at 14.2% in 2006, from a level of 8.5% one year previously. Moreover, girls outperform boys in all subjects including Mathematics and Sciences, which in other countries tend to be subjects where boys excel. In fact, research of the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) has shown that while girls scored significantly better than boys in reading in a number of countries besides Seychelles (such as Botswana, South Africa, and Mauritius), Seychelles was the only country where girls scored significantly higher than boys in Mathematics (Pardiwalla, 2007, 2009).

This unusual pattern is repeated at the secondary level. Girls record higher rates of participation and better performance in the Cambridge International General Certificate of Secondary Education examinations, which are held at the end of the secondary cycle (3.48 passes for girls against 2.89 for boys in 2007). The mean number of subjects in which the girls achieved principal passes is also higher than that of boys in all cases. Girls also achieved higher grades. In 2007, 30% of girls achieved principal passes in four or more subjects compared to 17% of boys. Another interesting finding of the research is that boys exhibit an overall reluctance to participate in extracurricular school activities other than football, athletics, and hockey. In 2009 in Anse Boileau Primary School, for example, girls outnumbered boys as scouts by a ratio of 2:1.

Several studies have been undertaken in order to better understand the reasons for boys' relative underachievement. In 2002, the Ministry of Education conducted a short research study in selected primary schools

to explore the issue (Ministry of Education and Youth, 2002). The study was the first of its kind in Seychelles and it revealed differential treatment of boys and girls in schools and higher expectations for girls on the part of teachers. The report suggested that girls were more frequently praised than boys, while boys were more frequently told off and punished more harshly than girls. Teachers generally were more positive toward girls because the girls were seen as behaving better and were more serious about their studies. Boys, by contrast, were described as easily distracted, lacking concentration, and constantly seeking the attention of teachers. What is more astonishing perhaps is the fact that only half the teachers surveyed agreed that gender differences might be important in explaining the apparent “natures” of boys and girls. The study concluded that: “The expectation that boys perform and behave less well than girls may account in part for the downturn in boys’ attitude” (Ministry of Education and Youth, 2002.)

In 2006, the Commonwealth Secretariat funded a similar study (Pardiwalla 2007 and 2009) designed to explore the extent of gender bias in secondary schools. The results revealed that many of the school processes and procedures, teacher attitudes and expectations were heavily gendered and were seen to be working against the interests generally of boys, affecting their participation and educational outcomes. Girls were the preferred gender at school and teachers held high expectations for them, while boys were labeled as lazy, irresponsible, and lacking in motivation. Boys were also clustered in the low-ability classes because of ability-streaming practices. Secondary schools, it would appear, reinforced gender stereotyping instead of actively challenging the status quo.

An action research project which formed part of the study (Pardiwalla 2007 and 2009) aimed at reducing some of the disparities noted and creating more gender-friendly school and classroom environments; and this met with some encouraging results. Some of the strategies included more gender-responsive teaching and learning, a more boy-friendly school ethos, and mentoring programs for boys. Attempts were also made to engage parents in the project but the interventions remain limited because teachers lacked the time and knowledge to help parents. Teachers tended to blame the home and family for boys’ problems. In cases where individual teachers had enlisted the help of parents and the family in raising a boy’s performance, the results proved to be very encouraging. Although the study was restricted to in-school factors, students reported that parents tended to be more protective toward girls, and girls received more supervision and help with homework. Boys appeared to have more freedom, did less work at home, and had a more lenient and unstructured environment.

Girls described themselves using a wide range of attributes, while the boys appeared to be more limited in their choice of acceptable male roles. Surprisingly, boys very much believed in conventional gender roles, seeing themselves as breadwinners and the dominant partner. The findings regarding home socialization patterns increased interest in a new study that would look at the agency of homes in defining gender roles more closely.

### **3. THE STUDY ON GENDER SOCIALIZATION IN THE HOME**

#### **3.1 Methods**

This 2009 study, undertaken by the African Development Bank in cooperation with the Ministry of Health and Social Development, aimed to complement the earlier Commonwealth Secretariat study. Rather than listening to children talk about their home, the practices and attitudes of parents were investigated separately to complete the picture. The study sampled the parents of the same students in the two primary and secondary schools that had constituted the subject of the Commonwealth Secretariat study (Pardiwalla, 2007). All four schools in the study recognized the issue of boys' underachievement and their development plans included strategies to address the problem.

Research methods included the administration of a questionnaire, focus group discussions, and interviews with key informants. The study was largely qualitative in nature but the parent questionnaire, which targeted all parents of students in the first grades of the primary and secondary cycles in the four schools, and the students' performance records, provided quantitative data. Prior to the research, a workshop was organized to inform stakeholders about the goals of the study, to gather information on challenges faced by parents, to explore their understanding of problems related to boys' underachievement, and to assess how research findings could best engage their interests.

Household Data Forms to gather background information on the students were completed by class teachers. The main aim of these forms was to determine students' distribution in terms of gender, their family structure and member composition, and the type of homes they lived in. The forms also elicited information regarding the parents, whether or not they were living with their child, and information on their employment status. Data obtained were used as a basis for sampling the parents who were to complete the questionnaire. The majority of the students' parents in this study were

employed or self-employed. While 56% of the students in the study were living with both biological parents, 33% lived with their mother only. The proportion of students living with both parents was higher in the sample than indicated by national statistics.

A questionnaire to capture some aspects of gender socialization was sent out to all parents of the students in the selected grades and schools. The 27 questions that made up the questionnaire sought the parents' views on: choice of suitable toys; recreational, social and sporting activities; distribution of household chores; desirable career opportunities for their child; and patterns of punishments and rewards they employed. Altogether, 367 parents answered the questionnaire, 47% of whom were fathers, who represented slightly more daughters than sons.

To obtain a broader picture of gender socialization in the home, focus group discussions sought to discover parents' conceptions of parenthood and perceptions of boys and girls, the roles they ascribed to the mother and father in the home, their wishes and fears for their children, and suggestions for improving parenting programs. Focus groups included fathers and mothers as separate groups, and mixed groups. Guided interviews with key informants included 19 persons, 10 of whom were male, from a variety of different backgrounds, including political and church leaders, members of government agencies and departments, NGOs, and fathers' associations.

### **3.2 Survey results**

The results of the survey regarding different gender roles attributed to the children revealed that strict divisions do exist (Table 1). The majority of both girls and boys participate in various household chores. Some 59% of respondents indicated that their child was highly involved in chores. Only 6 children did not perform any household work at all. However, girls carried out a significantly larger proportion of the household chores (6.8 mean for girls vs. 5.9 mean for boys). A comparison of the distribution of chores suggests that the most common chores for girls and boys was sweeping. Girls did the major dusting and cleaning tasks as well as taking on care-giving roles. Boys looked after animals, while girls did the laundry for the family. Boys and girls participated more equally in chores like going to the shops and cooking.

**Table 1: Distribution of chores by gender (proportion)**

Chores	Male	Female
Sweep inside the house	0.88	0.94
Sweep outside the house	0.88	0.87
Dust the furniture	0.67	0.87
Clean the windows & louvers	0.52	0.71
Look after the younger kids	0.40	0.59
Go to the shop	0.80	0.76
Take care of animals	0.64	0.47
Wash own clothes	0.32	0.59
Wash clothes for the others in the family	0.07	0.29
Look after an elderly person	0.16	0.27
Help with the cooking	0.59	0.64

Questions about different types of toys used by boys and girls suggests that books (97%), balls (93%), and Lego (88%), appeared to be the most popular toys in the home for both boys and girls (Table 2). However, dolls were considered highly gender-specific and strictly offered to girls only. Only 16% of respondents said their sons possessed a doll and just 0.5% indicated that their girls had never had a doll. None of the other toys was considered the exclusive domain of boys or girls, even though videogames and mp3 players were more popular with boys.

**Table 2: Popularity of toys by gender (%)**

Toys	Male	Female
Ball game	93	93
Doll	16	99
Toy car	98	60
Video/IPOD/CD	63	43
Set of books	96	99
Bicycle	68	54
Lego	86	90
Musical instrument	71	66

Surprisingly, it was found that restrictions did not significantly apply to girls, because 60% of parents said their girls possessed a toy car. Books, Lego, musical instruments, and bicycles appeared to be popular with both boys and girls.

As Table 3 indicates, afterschool activities appeared to place girls more firmly in the domestic domain. The most frequently reported afterschool activities were doing homework and watching television for both girls and boys. Boys went out to meet friends more often than girls, and more boys were involved in sports activities. Girls also spent more time doing school-related activities, such as homework and private lessons than the boys. Generally, the survey showed that more boys than girls were involved in leisure activities (2.7% compared to 2.3%).

**Table 3: Involvement in afterschool activities by gender (%)**

Afterschool activities	Male	Female
Watch television	93	90
Do homework	85	94
Play alone or with friends	92	77
Go to a friend's home to play	44	31
Do household chores	57	56
Go to a teacher for private lessons	4	15
Do community work	6	6
Participate in sports activities	36	29
Talk to friends on mobile	12	12

The survey results suggest that girls have a wider range of options available to them to define their gender role than the boys. Girls worked in and outside the house and they played with all manner of toys, including those normally ascribed to boys, while boys were more restricted in their activities and choices and they tended to be more active outside the house. Boys also appeared to have a less structured home environment, playing and hanging out with friends more.

Results regarding extracurricular activities corroborate these findings (Table 4). The large majority of parents seemed favorable to both girls and boys participating in sports (92%) and cultural activities (84%) at school level.



They were also not averse to children joining social (63%) and religious groups (83%) in the community. Fewer parents, however, were in favor of allowing their children to participate in sports (47%) and cultural activities (43%) at district level. This would suggest that they are more protective of girls.

**Table 4: Percentage of parents agreeing to children's participation in activities**

Type of activity	Male child	Female child
Sports activities at school	95	89
Cultural activities at school	89	81
Religious activities in the community	84	84
Sports activities in the district	54	42
Cultural activities in the district	45	41
Social groups/movements	67	59
Religious groups/movements	85	79

Parents' career choices for their children reflected stereotypical attitudes about appropriate jobs for men and women. Over 80% of parents were strongly opposed to girls taking up careers in engineering and construction. Careers in fishing, sailing, and laboring and being a captain or pilot were also judged to be undesirable for girls. The majority of parents agreed that care-giving jobs were appropriate career choices for their daughters, while over 65% of parents voiced an objection to the idea of their sons becoming nurses or primary school teachers.

The questions related to styles of praise and punishment showed little difference between boys and girls (Table 5). Both boys and girls received verbal praise, hugs, financial rewards, and they had special wishes fulfilled. Rewarding styles did however differ between fathers and mothers, with mothers being more involved. The same seems to be the case with punishments. Parents tended to be somewhat harsher with boys – applying banning of TV, grounding, confiscating valuables such as phones, shouting and slapping more. As Table 6 indicates, women appear to be the main disciplinarians in the home.

**Table 5: Parents' use of reward styles (%)**

Rewards	Both parents	Fathers	Mothers
Verbal praise	70	4	16
Hug or caress	71	8	18
Financial reward	48	11	7
Buying gift or present	76	3	17
Fulfil a wish	77	3	13

**Table 6: Parents' use of punishment styles (%)**

Punishment	Both parents	Fathers	Mothers
Verbal reprimand	53	10	16
Ban a TV	29	10	21
Grounding	33	9	14
Locking up in room	2	2	5
Confiscating something valuable	10	3	8
Discontinue pocket money	6	3	6
Shouting	32	10	25
Slapping/beating	30	4	22
Giving extra work	12	5	15

When asked to what degree they would be disappointed if their child did not achieve a number of life goals, parents appeared to have greater ambitions for their sons than their daughters. The survey revealed that parents would be more disappointed if a son (rather than a daughter) failed to continue with university studies, get a career of his choice, or have a family (Table 7). There was slightly more disappointment articulated, however, at the idea of a girl failing to get married. These results may be interpreted in two ways. Parents may be more ambitious for their boys and consider university studies and careers to be less important for girls, since they prefer to have the girls close to them, helping them at home. Alternatively, they may feel that since

girls are more goal-oriented and hardworking than boys, they need to be more worried for their boys, knowing that the girls will do well in any case.

**Table 7: Parents' level of disappointment if a child were to fail to achieve certain life goals**

Life goal	Variable mean	
	Boys	Girls
Get a career of their choice	2.37	2.33
Earn a lot of money	2.59	2.49
Live a life of luxury	1.79	1.78
Get married	1.65	1.74
Have a family	1.95	1.91
Do university studies	2.34	2.12

Parents were asked a series of questions on whether boys and girls should receive the same punishments and rewards, follow the same rules, do the same chores, and later in life do the same work. An "egalitarian views" index was composed from five items (Table 8) below and the mean variable obtained. Results show that both parents claim to be rather progressive in their views with mean scores of 3.75 for fathers and 3.83 for mothers. Fathers are generally more conservative than mothers. Parents have more reservations about boys and girls doing the same work and being punished in the same way. They are more in agreement with boys and girls doing the same chores, following the same rules, and being rewarded in the same manner.

**Table 8: Mean variable for egalitarian scores**

Equality scores (based on 5 items)	Fathers	Mothers
<i>Mean</i>	3.75	3.83
Same chores	0.78	0.76
Same work	0.62	0.72
Punishment	0.63	0.70
Reward	0.80	0.74
Same rule	0.91	0.89

Next, the impact of different dimensions of gender socialization in the home on boys' school achievement was explored in the survey. Parents, we suggested, have an important impact on their children's gender role identity. The specific gender socialization processes related to boys' achievement are: a) parents' egalitarian views, b) participation in outside activities, c) involvement of the children in a variety of household chores and d) parents' setting the example by participating in a variety of household chores. First, it is important to take note of the type of family structure where the boys tend to perform better.

**Table 9: Comparison of students' performance by family structure**

Family structure	Secondary 1	Primary 1	
	Achievement	Academic	Attitude
Two-parent	571	3.54	4.09
Single parent	536	3.47	3.76
Step-parents	500	3.17	3.94

Table 9 shows that the students' performance both at primary and secondary level is better in families where both biological parents are present (two-parent model). This observation is supported by the examination records, which also indicate that boys in two-parent families apply themselves better and get the support of both parents.

**Table 10: Comparison of boys' performance by parents' level of education**

Parents' level of education	Secondary 1	Primary 1	
	Achievement	Academic	Attitude
Primary	246	3.0	3.7
Secondary	489	3.5	4.0
Post Secondary	577	3.5	3.9
University	749	3.8	4.2

Boys' performance at school also improves in line with the parents' level of education. This implies that to some extent better educated parents provide additional inputs into their children's education. Tables 11 and 12 show

that egalitarian views and knowledge of boys also have a positive effect on boys' achievement at secondary level.

**Table 11: Comparison of boys' level of achievement by parents' egalitarian scores**

Scores	Mean achievements
2	361
3	501
4	521
5	592

**Table 12: Comparison of boys' level of achievement by parents' knowledge of them**

Scores	Mean achievements
1	481
2	519
3	543
4	611

Seychellois parents do not seem to show preference for one sex over the other; rather both boys and girls are appreciated for their different attributes. Parents appreciate the company of children generally, and feel a great sense of pride when their children grow up to be respectable citizens. But boys are appreciated for their physical strength and independence, and girls for their family bonding and caring attitudes. The qualities admired in children are the traditional ones of obedience, respect, responsibility, and hard work. Progressive values such as assertiveness, autonomy, and critical thinking do not feature as desirable qualities.

Both fathers and mothers have very stereotypical expectations of boys and girls. Boys are admired for a limited range of qualities connected to their physical strength, while girls are described using a wider range of qualities. With the exception of career choices, which disadvantage girls, boys appear to be subjected to more limitations and taboos in their upbringing and to less attention by parents. On the other hand, girls are more protected and provided with greater opportunities to develop their potential. Boys

have more restrictions imposed on them in their choice of toys, household chores, and in the display of emotions. Such gendered values systems can subconsciously influence parents' attitude and treatment of boys and girls at home. Girls have an advantage over boys with regard to the quantity and choice of toys available to them, and opportunities to develop more rounded personalities.

The survey results show clear correlations between the achievements of boys and family structure, the parents' educational level, their ideas of equality, and their knowledge of boys and their environment. This suggests that if parents were to treat boys in the same way as they treat girls, the boys would perform better in school.

The results of the survey were tested and further elaborated in focus group discussions and key informant interviews. These revealed that parents valued both boys and girls and they wanted both to do well. Girls were said to be responsible and tended to stay at home acting as "substitute" mothers. Girls were also held to be more sensitive, obedient and hard-working than boys. By contrast, both fathers and mothers valued boys because they can "help with hard physical work, like lifting heavy loads" and do "repair work on the roof." They were active and adventurous and could fend for themselves. They could stay with friends until late unsupervised, because – so the parents felt – nothing bad could happen to them, while girls could fall pregnant or be otherwise corrupted. Boys' independence went hand in hand with a laid-back attitude to work and a lack of responsibility. The values and gender roles ascribed to girls reflect the fact that in this matrifocal society, girls will stay much longer close to their mothers, forming lifelong bonds with the maternal side of the family. In the absence of supportive husbands, daughters also support their elderly mothers later in life.

It is perhaps not surprising that girls are more protected and counseled by their mothers, and are encouraged to stay home and study rather than go out and play. Girls are not overly restricted to particular gender roles and the close association with their mothers opens opportunities for emotionally balanced character development. By contrast, already at the age of five, boys are discouraged by their mothers from hanging around the house and hiding in their "zip" (skirts). As one informant put it:

*"Homes are not boy friendly since they are cluttered with frilly stuff and ornaments. Boys are not allowed to touch them in case they break them. Not enough attention is given to boys' personal hygiene and therefore mothers don't allow boys to sit in the sitting room. There is no space for boys – they*

*are pushed out into the street. They are not allowed to bring friends home because of 'bad influences'. Parents are glad to have them out of the way. They get rid of the boys. There is no supervision."*

Seychellois boys appear to be confined within the parameters of a narrow stereotypical image of toughness, roughness, irresponsibility, independence, and laziness. The only fear parents frequently expressed about their sons were homophobic in nature, reconfirming overly stereotyped gender role ascriptions to boys as belonging outside the home, and thereby outside the place where emotions and sensitivity are learned and attachments are formed. It appears that contrary to the common adage that boys fail in school because they have too much freedom, the study suggests that a narrow definition of masculinity might be to blame in the Seychelles.

Similar processes have been reported from the Caribbean, where the social fabric resembles that of the Seychelles and where the "constant social policing of masculinity becomes a straitjacket for young men who are caught in a narrow space of authorized masculinity, while simultaneously being cut off from vast fields of social life" (Plummer, 2006). When narrow models of masculinity go hand in hand with a severe misrepresentation of reality, as is the case in the Seychelles, the effect can be even more damaging.

#### **4. THE LINK BETWEEN PARENTING, GENDER ROLES, AND SCHOOL PERFORMANCE**

The narrow notion of acceptable masculinity, which is ascribed to boys, is linked to their lack of interest in school work. Fathers suggest that school achievement does not matter to boys because they can find jobs loading and unloading ships in the harbor regardless of school performance. Moreover, in the view of the parents, boys cannot be disciplined: "If you cannot change them, just leave them." This thinking has affected both parents' and teachers' relationships with boys.

However, many respondents agreed that part of the boys' problem was that their mothers kept boys at arm's length and their fathers were absent or insufficiently involved in family life and fathering. What then are the images of the ideal father and mother? Despite the high percentage of households headed by women, both male and female informants defined the men as financial providers and as guides who maintained order and discipline in the family, while the mother's role was described as solving problems and keeping a happy home.

According to the respondents, fathers have the final say in domestic matters since they are the only ones able to lead the household. Fathers refer to themselves as the “pillar of the house” and “the strength behind the family” to provide for all its needs. They oversee the operations of the home while the mother takes care of the day-to-day running. Mothers fill the house, “*remplir lakaz,*” thus playing an important but subordinated supportive role. Mothers, men believed, only took on fathering roles when the fathers themselves were absent. Women, by contrast, were naturally capable while fathers had to learn the qualities of fatherhood: “*They have a maternal instinct which fathers do not have – they have responsibility for the children and the family.*” Respondents also suggested that because children spend more time with their mothers, mothers are better able to discuss their problems with them. Fathers were aware of their importance in their children’s lives but were unable to translate this into real presence and involvement. They aspired to be good fathers but many lacked the tools to do this at the personal level.

The survey asked questions about fathers’ knowledge of their children and tested men’s willingness to assume new gender roles within the household. The survey posed four questions to determine whether parents knew their child’s teacher, friends, school curriculum and the contents of the Personal and Social Education Program (PSE), which deals with relational issues, life skills, and sex education. A comparative mean and an index of parents’ knowledge of the child were compiled from the four items.

**Table 13: Parents’ knowledge about their child’s teacher, friends and school curriculum (%)**

<b>Knowledge of child</b>	<b>Fathers</b>	<b>Mothers</b>
Do you know your child’s teacher?	80	92
Are you familiar with your child’s school program?	78	80
Do you know the contents of the PSE program?	48	54
Do you know your child’s friends?	69	78

Table 13 above suggests that the mothers in the study sample were significantly better informed about their child and about the school curriculum than were the fathers. Only 48% and 54% of fathers and mothers respectively were aware of the contents of the PSE program and only 69% of fathers knew who their child’s friends were. The survey also asked parents about their involvement in household chores. Table 14 below shows that the mothers



were considerably more involved in household chores (P-value < 0.05). Boys appeared to reproduce the patterns established by fathers in the home.

**Table 14: Parents' involvement in household chores**

Parents	N	Mean
Father	164	13.7
Mother	181	17.1

Fathers were also conspicuously absent from a number of important activities in the child's life, such as doing household chores with the child, helping the child with personal hygiene, and talking to the child about school performance. They were more involved in activities such as visiting the school on open days, giving permission for outings, and playing with the child.

**Table 15: Parents' shared activities with their child (%)**

Activity	Both parents	Only father	Only mother
Help with homework	64.0	3.7	24.8
Visit school on open days	49.8	6.9	41.0
Discuss child's performance with the teacher	47.0	7.8	42.4
Talk with child about sex education	29.7	2.4	32.1
Talk about life issues	71.8	2.3	21.8
Give permission for outings	68.7	6.9	13.8
Accompany child to the doctor	58.9	2.7	37.9
Comfort the child	73.9	3.2	19.7
Advise child on his or her future	79.6	3.2	13.9
Talk to child about school performance	80.7	0.9	17.4
Go on outing with child	80.7	1.8	15.6
Play with child	72.9	6.5	10.3
Do household chores with child	62.8	0.5	27.1
Help child with his or her personal hygiene	60.4	0.9	35.5

In interviews with key informants, the lack of alternative fathering models was further elaborated. Respondents suggested that in families where boys/siblings have what amounts to different fathers, competition for the attention of mothers prejudiced the relationship between sons and fathers. Peer pressure to conform to deeply entrenched hegemonic views of masculinity, which dictated that men must drink, be irresponsible and have multiple partners, stood in the way of alternative fathering models taking hold.

Men's disengagement from the family was interpreted as a backlash against this public portrayal of men as inadequate and irresponsible, as shown in comments by respondents such as: "*Men have given up, they have been given the message of being ineffective as fathers,*" and "*Women have taken over, they want to be in the driver's seat, let them be, we stay out.*" Men admitted to feeling incapacitated and disorientated because both government and society emphasize the rights for women and children, interpreted as an erosion of men's authority. Men felt that women were taking over as providers and that "*they don't need men anymore.*"

Social services agencies, the "family tribunal," and NGOs were also accused of discrimination against men by respondents. Attempts to make claims before these bodies were described as "*cases lost in advance,*" since those decisionmakers hold a preconceived idea of men as losers. Some men felt that women had created new – and reverse – inequalities by abusing the legal and social resources made available to them. NGOs were seen to provide support to women only and the one existing fathers' association remained largely invisible. Men used such arguments to sanction domestic violence as men's retaliation for perceived injustices. Men also felt that mothers did not allow them to take care of their children, and that instead they threw men out of the house, humiliating and ridiculing them in the process.

Fathers felt similarly marginalized and ridiculed by parenting programs, which are offered by schools and other government departments, churches and NGOs in an attempt to challenge outdated fathering concepts and instill new ideas. For fathers, the idea of "parenting" was inherently problematic, since they closely link the term to motherhood and to women. The classroom setting chosen for the courses and the predominance of women among facilitators and audiences discouraged fathers further: "*We have a feeling of not being understood by woman at home and then having to face more women in parenting sessions can be a put-off*". Some fathers were afraid of being labeled "bad fathers." They also feared peer pressure and expressed the view that "*only weak men admit to needing help with parenting.*" Moreover, many courses take place during working hours, which makes

it difficult for working men to attend. Men also felt that employers were more considerate toward women and granted them permission to attend family and child-related activities more readily. Employers, men felt, were not father-friendly enough.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This study suggests that in the Seychelles, distinct spaces and expectations exist for men and women and that family life is fluid in the extreme. Our study and anecdotal evidence suggest that the discourse between men and women is often charged with accusation, disappointment, and prejudice. Government support for women's rights has been successful: women are prominent in public and social life and they are economically empowered. Many women have chosen not to marry and they raise their children, often from different fathers, largely alone. Many Seychellois women do not have much good to say about fathers, while many fathers have little say in the lives of their children and are not encouraged to take much interest in the family beyond trying to contribute financially.

Education in the home and in schools up to secondary level is firmly in the hands of the Seychellois women: mothers and teachers alike. They bring negative notions of masculinity to bear on their and other women's sons: boys, like men, are considered difficult, irresponsible, unmotivated, and inadequate. In schools, boys are sidelined by teachers and fellow female students, while at home they are not made to feel as welcome as girls. Attention and support are directed at girls, who are expected to remain with their mothers and to look after them in old age, since in the Seychelles' matrifocal society, daughters assume the roles that husbands and sons hold in other societies.

Stereotypical notions of masculinity and femininity, which condition socialization and attitude, have negative effects on all. For their part, some women express anger and disappointment at having to shoulder the major burden of the responsibilities at home on top of earning the money. On the other hand, many men feel ridiculed and marginalized in family life. Peculiarly, both men and women continue to cling to outdated gender roles, which assign men the lead and women a supporting role. Yet, women's role has broadened their responsibilities, causing them to view the world with more openness, while the men's world seems to have contracted. Girls have a wider span of gender roles to choose from, while men are stuck in

a narrow definition of negatively loaded masculinity, which denies them emotionally balanced lives.

Men's and boys' banishment from family life hinders their ability to reinvent a notion of masculinity that is better adjusted to realities. The Commonwealth Secretariat's pilot project in Seychellois schools clearly showed that encouragement of boys to learn and to participate in a broader range of social activities would lead to better adjusted and performing boys, and perhaps later to better adjusted husbands and fathers. Such support will have to be grounded in a serious and critical reassessment of gender ascriptions and should involve fathers on their own terms. Perhaps appropriate support of fathers, which needs to be defined by men for men and not be overburdened by prejudice and negativity, will lead to similarly positive results, empowering them to be worthwhile role models for their sons, valued members of their families, and trailblazers in defining new and more adjusted ways to be Seychellois men, husbands, and fathers.

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## 4. Factors Influencing Female Labor Force Participation in South Africa in 2008

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### **Abstract**

*Female labor force participation (FLFP) is the prime indication of the extent to which females participate in the economic activities of society. There has been an upsurge of interest among researchers and development specialists alike in this subject, due to its importance in measuring progress being made toward gender equality across various economic settings. Despite the advances in female educational attainment and the expansion of the market economy, however, female labor force participation rates are still low in comparison to the rates of their male counterparts. Nonetheless, South Africa's FLFP has increased over the past two decades. This paper, which seeks to investigate dynamics in the South African labor force, uses the Human Capital Theory (HCT), which postulates that the education of women is positively related to the likelihood of their labor force participation. Data for the study were extracted from the 2008 Quarterly Labor Force Survey of Statistics South Africa. Logistic regression modeling was used to estimate the influence of education on labor force participation, while controlling for other demographic and economic factors. The results show that there is an association between the level of education status and FLFP. Findings from this analysis are expected to contribute to the knowledge about FLFP trends in South Africa and should aid in the planning of interventions to improve the status of women, toward achievement of Millennium Development Goal 3 (Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women).*

**Key words:** Labor market, Human Capital Theory, Quarterly Labor Force Survey, logistic regression modeling, socio-demography

### **Résumé**

*La présence féminine dans la population active est le premier indicateur de la participation des femmes aux activités économiques de la société. On note chez les chercheurs et les spécialistes du développement un regain d'intérêt sur ce sujet, en raison de son importance pour l'évaluation des progrès en matière d'égalité des genres dans divers contextes économiques. Malgré les progrès en matière de scolarisation des femmes et l'essor de l'économie de marché, les taux d'activité féminins demeurent faibles par rapport aux taux masculins. Néanmoins, en Afrique du Sud la présence des femmes dans la main d'œuvre s'est accrue au cours des 20 dernières années. Cette étude sur la dynamique de la main d'œuvre sud-africaine s'appuie sur la théorie du capital humain, qui considère que l'éducation des femmes est positivement liée à la probabilité de leur présence dans la population active. Les données utilisées pour l'étude sont tirées d'un numéro de*

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2008 de la revue *Quarterly Labor Force Survey of Statistics South Africa*. Le modèle de régression logistique a été utilisé pour évaluer l'influence de l'éducation sur la présence dans la population active en surveillant étroitement les facteurs démographiques et économiques. Les résultats montrent qu'il existe un lien entre le niveau d'éducation et le taux d'activité des femmes. Les conclusions de cette recherche devraient enrichir les connaissances sur les tendances du taux d'activité féminin en Afrique du Sud et contribuer à la planification des interventions visant à améliorer le statut des femmes, pour la réalisation du troisième OMD (promotion de l'égalité des genres et autonomisation des femmes).

**Mots clés :** marché du travail, théorie du capital humain, *Quarterly Labor Force Survey*, modèle de régression logistique, socio-démographie

## 1. INTRODUCTION

South Africa's female labor force participation (FLFP) has increased substantially over the past two decades (Ntuli, 2004). Female labor force participation is a primary indication of the extent to which females participate in the economic activities of any country. FLFP rates have gained interest among researchers and development specialists worldwide due to their significant contribution in measuring the progress being made toward gender equality (Amoateng *et al.*, 2003). The literature suggests that there have been increases in women's contribution to modern sector activities (Amsden, 1980). Less developed countries are also experiencing increased trends in FLFP (ILO, 2005), and statistical analyses from South Africa in particular have shown a consistency with this trend (Ntuli, 2004).

Nonetheless, despite the advances in female educational attainment and the expansion of the market economy, FLFP rates are still low in comparison to the rates of their male counterparts (Ntuli, 2004; Serumaga-Zake and Kotze, 2004). For instance, as recently as 2004, the labor force participation rate in South Africa was 62% for males, compared to 46% for females.

This study employs the Human Capital Theory (HCT), which postulates that the education of women is positively related to labor force participation. The theory helps us to investigate quarterly or short-term dynamics in the labor force. This approach is an advancement of knowledge gained from previous studies such as Serumaga-Zake and Kotze (2004) and Ntuli (2004), both of which investigated the annual dynamics in FLFP. Investigating quarterly dynamics in FLFP is prudent, as the market economy



is very dynamic and small changes can have huge impacts on labor force participation.

This study investigates the differentials in FLFP in all nine provinces of South Africa. The objectives of this study are to determine the participation rate of females in the labor market, taking into account the impact of quarterly or short-term labor market dynamics on labor force participation. It also seeks to investigate the factors influencing FLFP in the country. Data for the study were extracted from the 2008 Quarterly Labor Force Survey (QLFS) conducted by Statistics South Africa. Logistic regression modeling was employed with the dependent variable, FLFP status, as a binary outcome. Other variables controlled in the analysis are sex, population group, age group, marital status, education status, and province.

## 2. RESEARCH SETTING

South Africa is the most dominant economy in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), constituting about 20% of the population and contributing about 70% to Sub-Saharan Africa's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (World Bank, 2006). SADC is a 14-member regional community, and South Africa's average per capita income is much higher than the average per capita income in most Sub-Saharan African countries (Solomon, 2003).

Under the apartheid system, black women were subjected to intense discrimination, and their full integration into the labor market was hampered (Ntuli, 2004). With the demise of the apartheid system in 1994, the constitutional government brought in fundamental constitutional changes to increase women's access to the labor market. Laws were also introduced to usher in greater equity to the treatment of women in the labor market (Bhorat *et al.*, 2001) such as the Employment Equity Act of 1998 and the Skills Development Act of 1998.

The Skills Development Act of 1998 is intended to provide the framework for institutions to devise and implement national, sectoral, and workplace strategies for the development and improvement of skills in the entire South African workforce by providing "learnerships" for the young and unemployed (Malala, 2000). The Employment Equity Act was introduced to achieve equity in the workplace. These policies helped to drive the process of better integration of females in the labor market of post-apartheid South Africa (Posel and Casale, 2003).

### 3. HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY

The human capital stock concept according to Pierce-Brown (1998) has been extensively used by labor economists since the 1960s. The individual's capital stock has an "innate ability," and can be extended to (i) prior participation in the labor force by education, (ii) during employment through on-the-job training, and (iii) experience. The theory postulates that those women with middle-school education or higher are more economically active than those without formal education (Nam, 1991). Furthermore an individual's lifetime earnings usually show a one-off return for formal education, and subsequent salary increases to reflect the individual's years of experience and job training on a specific area.

According to Pierce-Brown (1998), the first distinctive approach from economics to analysis of the male–female wage gap is based on HCT. The theory lays emphasis on the voluntary choices in the lifetime of participants in the workforce as determinants of differences in occupation and remuneration. An early proponent of the HCT, Becker (1975) presented an explanation that over their working life, women are on average less productive compared to men because they tend to take an employment break for maternity leave and childcare. Furthermore, women bear the prime responsibility of the unremunerated domestic chores. Thus, the HCT emphasizes the importance of education and training in the development of human capital. Governments' poverty eradication strategies are consistent with HCT, and according to Serumaga-Zake and Kotze (2004), in order to tackle the problem of poverty, the SA government has adopted an economic development strategy focusing on developing human resources, as reflected in the national budget of 2005 and in subsequent budgets.

### 4. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Female labor force participation is a prime indicator of the extent of females' participation in the labor market. Interest in FLFP worldwide has been demonstrated in a series of historical studies in both the developed and developing nations (Bowen and Finegan, 1969; Boserup, 1970; Smith 1980). According to Ntuli (2004), the early literature on FLFP suggested that the bulk of women's activities take place in the home or in the informal sector as nonmarket activities.

In less developed nations, an increasing trend of FLFP has also been documented (ILO, 2005), and in South Africa in particular, a number of studies

have shown consistency with this trend (Ntuli, 2004). However, FLFP rates are still low in comparison with their male counterparts. For example, in South Korea in 1991 labor force participation was 59.4% for males and 44.2% for females. According to Moghadam (1998), the increase in FLFP over time results from advances made in females' educational attainment and the expansion of the market economy.

Despite the vast literature on FLFP rates, many studies mainly concentrated on analysis of short periods of usually one year. Other studies (e.g. Serumaga-Zake and Kotze, 2004; Bhorat and Leibbrandt, 2001) employed the usual one-year period and looked at only a small segment of the female population, namely married women. A few studies have looked at longer periods, such as the study of determinants of FLFP in South Korea (Nam, 1991), which used a ten-year period. Similar attempts have been made in South Africa to investigate and provide answers to FLFP, such as the study by Ntuli (2004). All these studies attempt to provide answers on factors explaining FLFP in a country, but these findings are generally inconclusive if shorter periods (quarterly dynamics) are not investigated, as a way of informing policymakers. Governments in South Africa and elsewhere could find the analysis of the impact of quarterly or shorter-term dynamics on FLFP to be more useful.

Investigating quarterly information on the labor market underscores the uniqueness of our research and significantly sets this apart from earlier studies. The two central questions of this study then are:

- What is the effect of education on FLFP?
- Are there significant differentials in FLFP rates between the quarters of 2008?

## **5. METHODS**

### **5.1 Data source**

The data for this study were extracted from the 2008 Quarterly Labor Force Survey (QLFS) of South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2008). The Master Sample has been developed by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) as a general-purpose household survey frame that can be used by all other household surveys, irrespective of the sample size requirement of the survey. The sample size for the QLFS is roughly 30,000 dwellings. The sample is based on information collected during the 2001 Population Census conducted

by Stats SA. In preparation for Census 2001, the country was divided into 80,787 enumeration areas (EAs). Some of these EAs are small in terms of the number of households that were enumerated in them at the time of Census 2001. Stats SA's household-based surveys use a Master Sample of Primary Sampling Units (PSUs), which comprises EAs that are drawn from across the country. For the purposes of the Master Sample, the EAs that contained fewer than 25 households were excluded from the sampling frame, and those that contained between 25 and 99 households were combined with other EAs of the same geographic type to form Primary Sampling Units (PSUs). The number of EAs per PSU ranges from one to four. On the other hand, very large EAs represent two or more PSUs.

The sample is designed to be representative at provincial level and within provinces at the metro/non-metro level. Within the metros, the sample is further distributed by geographical type. The four geographical types are: urban formal, urban informal, farms, and tribal. Tribal areas lie outside the city/town boundaries and include commercial farm areas that are governed by tribal authority (chief, headman, etc). This implies that, for example, within a metropolitan area, the sample is designed to be representative at the different geographical types that may exist within that metro.

The current sample size for the Master Sample is 3,080 PSUs. It is equally divided into four subgroups or panels called rotation groups. The rotation groups are designed in such a way that each of these groups has the same distribution pattern as in the whole sample. They are numbered from 1 to 4, and these numbers also correspond to the quarters of the year in which the sample will be rotated for the particular group.

The sample for the redesigned Labor Force Survey is based on a stratified two-stage design with probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling of PSUs in the first stage, and sampling of dwelling units (DUs) with systematic sampling in the second stage. The data obtained from household questionnaires relating to 2008 QLFS of South Africa was recoded and analyzed, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

## 5.2 Variables

### *Major labor market categories*

This variable indicates the employment status of all persons in the household aged 15 years and older (population of working age). An unemployed person is defined under international guidelines as "*a person within the economically active population who: did not work during the seven days prior to census*

*night, and would have liked to work, and was available to start work within a week before the interview and had taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of business in the four weeks prior to the interview”* (Stats SA, 2001). The variable was grouped into four categories in the QLFS 2008 as follows: (1) Employed, (2) Unemployed, (3) Not economically active, and (4) discouraged job seekers. The variable Female Labor Force Participation status (FLFP status) was regrouped in SPSS with categories 1 and 2 = 1 and categories 3 and 4 = 0 and recoded as Yes and No – i.e., participate and not participate respectively.

For the distributions by demographic characteristics, the mean of each category within variables was computed to obtain the mean as the annual rate. This study also compared Quarter 1 (Q1) to Quarter 4 (Q4) of the Labor Force Survey to take into account quarterly dynamics in the labor market and their impact on FLFP.

## 6. RESULTS

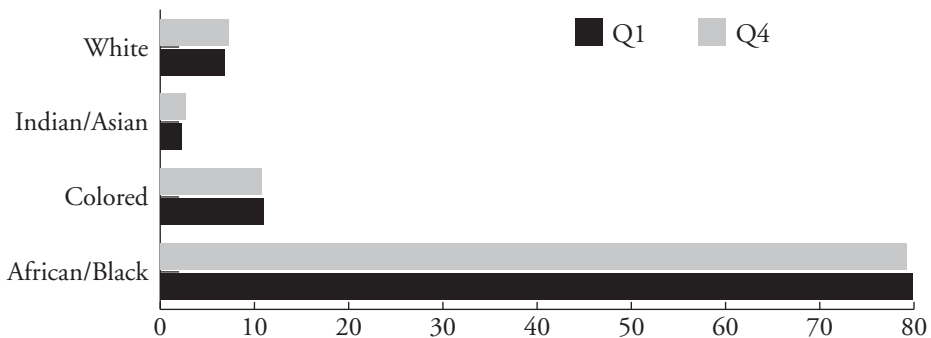
Table 1 shows the results of the analysis of the racial composition of the population of working age (15–64 years). The results show that the female population of working age was predominantly Black/African females, comprising nearly 80% in all Quarters 1–4. There was only a slight decrease in the composition of Black females in the labor force during Q3 and Q4. Colored, White, and Indian/Asian groups came next in terms of proportion in the labor force at 11%, 7%, and 2% respectively across all quarters. This composition also reflects the population structure of South Africa according to the 2001 Census. However, while for Africans and Coloreds there was an increase in representation in the labor force between 2001 and 2008, the proportions for Indians and Whites declined. The decline is more pronounced for Whites, representing a reduction of about 3 percentage points between 2001 and 2008.

**Table 1: Distribution of the female population aged 15–64 by ethnic group (%)**

Population group	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	2008	Census 2001
African/Black	79.9	79.5	79.1	79.2	79.4	77.6
Colored	11.0	11.1	11.0	10.8	11.0	9.2
Indian/Asian	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.8
White	6.8	6.9	7.4	7.3	7.1	10.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Population group</b>	<b>32,077</b>	<b>31,693</b>	<b>31,399</b>	<b>31,299</b>	<b>31,617</b>	<b>14,784,218</b>

Sources: QLFS 2008 and Census 2001, Statistics South Africa.

With regard to changes between Q1 and Q4, Figure 1 shows that there was a slight reduction in the last quarter compared to the first quarter for Blacks and Coloreds, and slight increases for the Indian and White groups who were economically active or participated in the labor force.

**Figure 1: Distribution of females aged 15–64 by population group (%)**

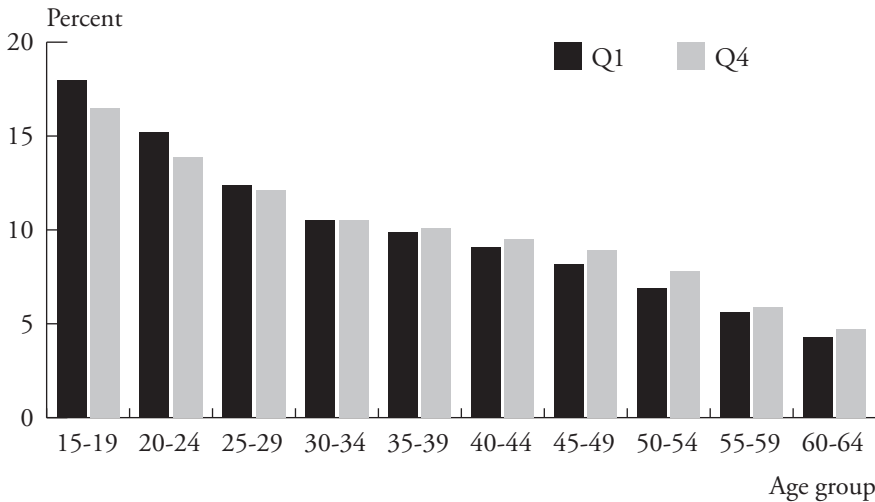
Source: QLFS 2008, Statistics South Africa.

The findings show that most of the females were young, with nearly half (48%) within the age group 15–29, while those aged 30–44 years and 45–64 years represented 37% and 15% respectively. Table 2 also shows that on average for all quarters, 64% of females were aged less than or equal to 39

years, while the proportion of females aged 40–64 was 36% of the female population of working age. The school-age group 15–19 has the highest proportion, with an average of 17% across all quarters. There is a clear indication in these results that the FLFP in South Africa is dominated by young people, with an average of 43% for population less than or equal to 29 years old in all quarters. This corresponds to South Africa’s population distribution.

Figure 2 shows a decrease in female labor force distribution for individuals aged 29 years or less from Q1 to Q4. For age group 30–34, there was no change between Q1 and Q4. However, there was a slight increase in female labor force distribution between Q1 and Q4 for those aged 35 years and over.

**Figure 2: Distribution of female population by age group (%)**



Source: QLFS 2008, Statistics South Africa.

Table 2 presents the marital status of the female population of working age in the reference period (2008). It shows that overall 30% were married, while 8% lived together like husband and wife, 7% were widowed, 4% were divorced or separated, and 52% were single or never married. These findings show that females of working age were more likely to be single rather than married or living with a partner. Between Q1 and Q4, the female labor force distribution decreased for all marital status categories, with the exception of those who were widowed or single and/ or never married.

**Table 2: Distribution of female population aged 15–64 by marital status (%)**

Marital status	Female population of working age (15 – 64)					
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	2008	Census 2001
Married	29.5	28.5	28.8	28.9	28.9	33.7
Living together	7.9	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.7	8.2
Widow/ Widower	6.5	6.5	6.9	6.9	6.7	5.3
Divorced/ separated	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.5
Never married	52.2	53.5	52.9	52.8	52.9	49.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>32,077</b>	<b>31,693</b>	<b>31,399</b>	<b>31,299</b>	<b>31,617</b>	<b>14,784,218</b>

Source: QLFS 2008 and Census 2001, Statistics South Africa.

Table 3 shows the distribution of the female labor force in 2008 by province. The findings show that on average for all quarters, KwaZulu Natal (KZN) had the highest composition (18%) of female working age population, followed by Gauteng (16%), while Northern Cape had the lowest (6%). However, Northern Cape showed the largest increase in the proportion of female labor force between 2001 and 2008.

**Table 3: Distribution of female labor force by province in 2008 and 2001 (%)**

Province	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	2008	Census 2001
Western Cape	11.1	11.8	11.3	11.0	11.3	10.7
Eastern Cape	11.6	11.1	11.2	11.4	11.3	13.7
Northern Cape	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.5	1.8
Free State	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.5	8.5	6.1
KwaZulu Natal	17.3	17.5	17.5	17.6	17.5	20.9
North West	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	7.9

.../cont.



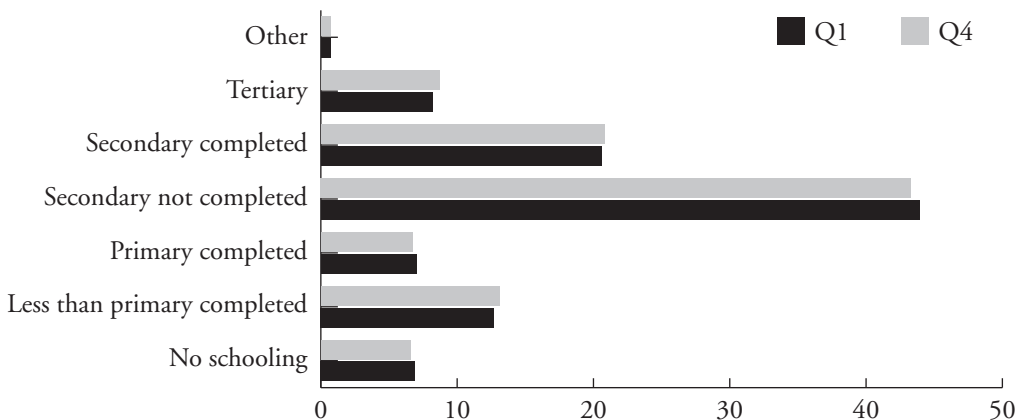
**Table 3 (cont.)**

Province	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	2008	Census 2001
Gauteng	16.3	16.0	16.5	16.7	16.4	21.2
Mpumalanga	9.7	9.6	9.4	9.4	9.5	6.7
Limpopo	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.6	11.8	11.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>32,077</b>	<b>31,693</b>	<b>31,399</b>	<b>3,1299</b>	<b>31,617</b>	<b>14,784,218</b>

Sources: QLFS 2008 and Census 2001, Statistics South Africa.

The findings also show that across all quarters, 20% of females in the female population of working age in 2008 had received no schooling or had not completed primary education. The percentage of those who completed primary school was 7%, secondary not completed 43%, Grade 12/Std10 completed 21%, tertiary 21%, and other education less than 1%. The findings further show that overall a large proportion of females in the labor market had only completed primary education or had received no schooling at all.

As shown in Figure 3, there was no substantive difference in labor force distribution between Q1 and Q4 for all levels of education.

**Figure 3: Distribution of female population aged 15–64 by education (%)**

Source: QLFS 2008, Statistics South Africa

## 7. LABOR MARKET INDICATORS

In this section, we look at the labor market status, comparing the findings of QLFS 2008 with Census 2001, and provide the major labor market indicators.

The population of working age who were employed slightly increased between Q1 and Q4 from 35.8% to 36.6%. The proportion of those who were unemployed or not actively seeking employment decreased over the same period. On average, 37% of the economically active population were employed in 2008, while 12.5% were unemployed and 4.3% were not actively seeking jobs. Another 46% were not economically active.

The major labor market indicators are calculated using the following FLFP rate relationships;

- $FLFP\ rate = Female\ (empld+unempld) * 100 / female\ (15-64).$
- $Absorptn\ rate = Employed * 100 / Total\ females\ (15-64)$
- $Unemployment\ rate = unemployment * 100 / unemployed+employed$

FLFP rate remained stable at 49%, except in Q2 which reported 51%. The FLFP rate for 2008 was 49%. The absorption rate remained stable at 37% in 2008, except in Q2, which reported 39%. The female unemployment rate was highest in Q1 at 27%, but this decreased quarter on quarter with a minimum figure registered in Q2 at 24%; it averaged 25% for 2008 with average sample size of 31,617.

In the labor market, the absorption rate was higher than the unemployment rate in all quarters. Overall, there was a stable FLFP rate in all quarters except for a slight increase in Q1.

### 7.1 Logistic regression analysis

Table 4 presents the logistic regression results (odds ratios) between the dependent variable “FLFP” (participate and not participate), and explanatory variables (education status, marital status, population group, age group, and province). In Model 1, the effect of education on FLFP is estimated. Taking “no schooling” as a reference, the results show that overall, having some schooling increases the odds of females participating in the labor

force. Females who had completed less than primary education or who had a primary school education, had twice the odds of being employed (odds ratios = 2.059 and 2.148 respectively), compared to those who had received no schooling at all. The odds of FLFP increased exponentially, the higher the level of education (completed secondary-odd ratios = 6.235; tertiary-odd ratios = 16.914).

When controlling for “Marital status” in the second model (Model 2), the odds ratios for education status were reduced for females who had a lower level of education (less than primary completed/ primary completed), and for those who had a higher level of education (tertiary and other), whereas the odds ratios increased for females with a middle level of education (secondary not completed and secondary completed). However, the odds ratios remain in the same direction for both Model 1 and Model 2, confirming that education is still an important predictor of FLFP.

On taking “Married” as a reference category in the female marital status, the results show that the group “females living together with partner like husband and wife” and “divorced/separated women” are 1.718 and 1.050 times respectively more likely to participate in the labor force than married females. It was also shown that being a widow/widower or never married reduces the odds of FLFP (odds ratios = 0.308 and odds ratios = 0.527 respectively).

In Model 3, three other variables (population group, age group, and province) were introduced. The odds ratios of education status reduce again, but having some schooling still increases the odds of FLFP. For marital status, the odds ratios reduced for females living together as husband and wife, and for those divorced/separated, whereas they increase for widow/widower as well as for never married women. However, the odds ratios remained in the same direction as in Model 2.

For age group category, taking “15–19” as a reference group, it is observed that, being in the 20–24 age group reduced the odds (odds ratios = 0.252) of FLFP. It was also observed that females in the age groups 25–29 and above are respectively 2.121, 5.146, 5.866, 6.515, 6.769, 5.719, 4.495, 2.853 times more likely to participate in the labor force than women in the age group 15–19.

Regarding the population group, taking “African/ Black” as a reference group, it is observed that the Colored and Asian/Indian women are respectively 1.123 and 1.413 times more likely to participate in the labor force than

African/Black women, whereas being White reduces the odds (odds ratios = 0.895) of FLFP compared to African/Black women.

For the Provinces, taking Western Cape as a reference category, it is observed that being from a province other than Gauteng (with odds ratios = 1.318) reduces the odds of FLFP.

**Table 4: Logistic regression – factors that influence female labor force participation**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Model 1</b>	<b>Model 2</b>	<b>Model 3</b>
<i>Education Status</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>
No schooling (r)	1.000	1.000	1.000
Less than primary completed	2.059***	1.961***	1.357***
Primary completed	2.148***	2.109***	1.550***
Secondary not completed	2.166***	2.232***	1.814***
Secondary completed	6.235***	6.398***	3.870***
Tertiary	16.914***	15.519***	9.954***
Other	3.473***	3.360***	2.205***
<i>Marital Status</i>			
Married (r)		1.000	1.000
Living together like husband and wife		1.718***	1.292***
Widow/Widower		0.308***	0.782***
Divorced or separated		1.050	1.017***
Never married		0.527***	0.932**
<i>Population group</i>			
African/Black (r)			1.000
Colored			1.123***
Indian/Asian			1.413**
White			0.895***

.../cont.

**Table 4 (cont.)**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Model 1</b>	<b>Model 2</b>	<b>Model 3</b>
<i>Education Status</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>	<i>Odds Ratios</i>
<b>Age group</b>			
15-19 (r)			1.000
20-24			0.252***
25-29			2.121***
30-34			5.146***
35-39			5.866***
40-44			6.515***
45-49			6.769***
50-54			5.719***
55-59			4.495***
60-64			2.853***
<b>Provinces</b>			
Western Cape (r)			1.000
Eastern Cape			0.541***
Northern Cape			0.674***
Free State			0.932
KwaZulu-Natal			0.652***
North West			0.597***
Gauteng			1.318***
Mpumalanga			0.756***
Limpopo			0.483***

Notes: (r) Reference category; \* p<0.10; \*\* p<0.05; \*\*\* p<0.001.

Source: QLFS 2008, Statistics South Africa.

All labor market variables are significant due to the large sample size. When we used the backward elimination method in all quarters, all of the variables are still significant with education and age appearing prominent.

## 7.2 Limitations of the study

The main limitation of this study is that we were unable to measure the relationship between fertility, having young children, income and female labor force participation. It is typically found that the labor force participation of women is negatively affected by the presence of young children or the likelihood of bearing children. Women with children as young as 6 or under are often hindered in their ability to participate fully in the formal employment, as they must spend time on child-bearing/childcare. However, other studies have also found the contrary with respect to Sub-Saharan Africa, where the region tends to have very high rates of FLFP, albeit largely in the informal sector or other nonregular or atypical work, and yet fertility rates have remained high. Similarly, income/wage levels also affect labor force participation. As reinforced by Fosu (1999), a woman's decision to participate in the labor force is mainly related to her market wage expectation and shadow price of time.

## 8. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main objectives of this study were to highlight the demographic determinants or factors influencing FLFP status and, in particular, to investigate the relationship between FLFP and education, using descriptive statistics and binary logistics regression.

The female labor force is consistent with the population distribution of the Republic of South Africa for all the demographic variables investigated in the study (age, population group, educational status, marital status, and province of residence). However, it is a little different for the White racial group.

Despite the increased rate of unemployment in 2008, the female unemployment rate decreased from 26.8% in Q1 to 25% in Q4. The labor market absorbed 37% of the female labor in Q4 compared to 36% in Q1, with overall 49% FLFP rate in the reference period. This revealed that just under half of female population of working age participate in the labor market.

The findings of this study are consistent with other surveys showing that there were more Black/African females in South Africa's labor market than all other racial groups. This is followed by Colored women, then Indian/Asian women, and White respectively. This composition of the labor market reflects the population distribution of South Africa.

Females in the South African labor market tended to be young (between 15 and 29 years old), and single/never married. This is consistent with what has been described as the “demographically dense period of life” by Rindfuss (1991) and Amoateng *et al.*, (2003). This is a period when multiple roles and events such as marriage, fertility, leaving school, unemployment, migration, and mortality occur. In the South African 2008 labor market, 48% of the FLFP was within the age group 15–29 years. Over 30% of females in the labor market were married.

In general, FLFP is shown to increase with the level of education. Among the females in the study, 20% were without educational skills, 7% had primary level education, over 43% of the female had some secondary education but did not complete, and 21% each of grade 12/std 10 and tertiary education. This result is significant because it highlights the challenges of labor market entry for females who do not have educational skills. This is consistent with previous findings that have shown unemployment rates generally to be higher among females than males as their job opportunities were limited compared to their male counterparts (Adison, 1993). As the demand for unskilled labor continues to decline in South Africa, FLFP will likely remain low for some time, as many women lack the basic education to be competitive in the labor market. The findings are consistent with the Human Capital Theory, in that there is a strong correlation between the level of education and FLFP. The better educated that women are, the more likely they are to participate in the labor market.

The analysis also revealed that in South Africa, females who participate in the labor force are more likely to be single/never married, as this group makes up about 53% of the female labor force. However, participation rates between subsets of this category showed the proportions to be: divorced, with the highest participation rate (68%), followed by those living together (57%), married (45%), widowed (45%), and never married/singles (45%).

The spatial distribution of FLFP across the nine provinces of South Africa was highest in KwaZulu Natal, although Gauteng had the largest female labor market, followed by Eastern Cape and Western Cape. The lowest participation rate was reported in Limpopo Province.

### ***Recommendations***

In the light of the findings, we recommend that more effort, in addition to the existing constitutional provisions, be made to absorb females in the South African labor market. The education of women should also be en-

hanced, since it was found that education and training are strongly linked with FLFP as a focal point of the Human Capital Theory.

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# The International Comparison Program for Africa (ICP-Africa): Launch of the 2011 Round

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Nairobi, Kenya, June 2010

## 1. BACKGROUND

The International Comparison Program (ICP) is a global statistical initiative established to produce internationally comparable price levels, expenditure values, and PPP estimates, with the objective of facilitating cross-country comparisons of economic aggregates and price levels for GDP and its sub-aggregates. The genesis of the ICP was an early recognition that measures of economic aggregates based on exchange rates fail to reflect differences in price levels between countries, and as such they are patently unsuitable for policy decisions, which in principle relate to volumes only, free of price distortions. Real value comparisons under the ICP are obtained not only for GDP as a total aggregate, but also for a number of policy relevant sub-aggregates, e.g., household consumption expenditure, investment, and government expenditure. By establishing purchasing power equivalence, where one unit currency purchases the same quantity of goods and services in all countries, purchasing power parity (PPP) data allow cross-country comparisons of economic aggregates and structures on the basis of volumes, free of price and exchange rate distortions.

The ICP was first established in 1970 as a joint venture of the United Nations and the International Comparisons Unit of the University of Pennsylvania. Starting with a modest project to undertake comparisons in 10 countries, further ICP rounds were conducted in 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990, and 1993. By the time of the last round, the ICP had expanded to the status of a truly global program, with 118 countries under its umbrella, covering all regions of the world.

From its beginnings, the ICP has progressively increased the participation of African countries. In the first two experimental phases (1970 and 1973), Kenya was the only African country representing the developing world. In the subsequent phases, the number of African countries increased to 4 in 1975, then rose to 15 and 23 in 1980 and 1985 respectively, before leveling off at 22 in 1993. The last two rounds of the region's ICP activities were financed and supervised by Eurostat. In contrast, ICP coordination for other regions was carried out by local institutions within the respective regions. *The ICP 2005 Program saw, for the first time, Africa's ICP activities being coordinated by an African institution, namely the AfDB, in close collaboration with UNECA*

*and the World Bank*. Subsequently, the AfDB assumed full responsibility to coordinate and fund the activities under the ICP-Africa Program.

## 2. JUSTIFICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON PROGRAM

The demand for reliable and comparable data has taken on a higher profile since the early 1990s as a result of the more explicit use of statistics for national, regional, and global goal setting, increasing demand for Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), and monitoring of progress toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Furthermore, the reality of scarce resources has meant that blanket approaches to setting policy are no longer available to many countries and the need for informed, targeted, and cost-effective policies has become paramount. The ICP therefore aims to meet the demand for reliable, regular, and comparable data for PRSPs, MDGs, and other analytical purposes, including those relating to structural reform of national economies.

The ICP program continues to provide more timely and reliable data on the comparative level of economic development in different countries, thereby facilitating an efficient allocation of international resources for poverty reduction, building understanding of the process of economic change and growth, and providing the means to monitor progress. Some examples of the uses of ICP data at the international level include: establishing the international poverty thresholds (\$1 or \$2 per day poverty lines) and monitoring progress towards the MDG poverty reduction target (World Bank); constructing the Human Development Index (UNDP); comparing health expenditure per capita (WHO); assessing per capita expenditures in education (UNESCO); monitoring the welfare of children (UNICEF); and comparing the relative sizes of economies and estimating weighted averages of regional economic growth rates (IMF, AfDB).

Rapid globalization and the increasing integration of international markets and financial institutions have also imposed a new urgency in the demand for internationally comparable data. Per capita real GDP expressed in Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) has been the single measure most often used by multinational corporations for evaluating overseas investment costs and risks across countries, including unit labor and material cost, and for determining project viability, market size, and asset allocation.

The ICP-2011 is a continuation of previous rounds. In keeping with previous ICP exercises, ICP-2011 will be organized by region, with regional organizations such as the AfDB playing a key role in coordinating their respective regional comparisons. In this context, the AfDB has prepared a Regional Strategic Plan within the context of the global initiative. ICP-Africa 2011 will thus be implemented in the form of a comprehensive, region-wide, statistical capacity-building undertaking, and within the framework of the global International Comparison Program.

### **3 OBJECTIVES OF ICP-AFRICA**

#### **3.1 Supporting MDGs and PRSPs**

The immediate objective of ICP-Africa is to organize the collection of socioeconomic statistics, in response to the urgent demand for reliable and timely data to support the monitoring of MDGs and PRSPs in African countries. The long-term objectives include: (i) strengthening national statistical capacity in price and national accounts in RMCs; (ii) making the ICP an integral part of national statistical systems; (iii) bringing purchasing power parities (PPPs) for the poor into the mainstream of the ICP; and (iv) promoting the use of ICP data for policy formulation and monitoring.

#### **3.2 Capacity building**

With respect to capacity building, ICP-Africa has the following objectives:

- To develop the capacity of National Statistical Offices (NSOs) to provide regular economic statistics for policy assessment purposes;
- To develop the capacity of Statistical Training Centers (STCs) in support of the NSOs;
- To put in place an integrated set of data collection activities that will enable national accounts to be compiled on a timely and regular basis;
- To set in motion activities to improve the present methods of price monitoring and expand their coverage; and
- To train local staff in statistical activities pertaining to the ICP framework.

## 4. PROGRAM OUTLINE

### 4.1 Statistical cooperation

Implementation of ICP-Africa will continue to be coordinated by the AfDB in close collaboration with regional economic communities (RECs), subregional organizations (SROs), statistical training centers (STCs), and the World Bank, in particular the ICP Global Office. The ICP cooperation framework in Africa is meant to support and inform all development policies and actions that are being implemented on the continent, especially those pertaining to poverty reduction. Regional partnership under the revamped ICP is anchored on the principles of program ownership by all stakeholders. In the past, the ICP was organized and managed with a top-down approach by a strong global coordinator, who made most of the decisions. The current strategic framework is based on a bottom-up approach. First, regional agencies (such as the AfDB) will be represented in the global governing body. This is an important innovation insofar as it will ensure regional accountability while according regional stakeholders an opportunity to influence the overall strategy of the global program. Second, subregional organizations will help ensure that ICP optimally fits in with subregional recommendations and programs applicable to their respective member states. Subregional economic groupings will also use ICP as an integrated tool for the assessment of their economic convergence. In addition, it is envisaged that these organizations will participate in the analysis of the ICP results. Third, NSOs will participate in the program at all levels.

The ICP-Africa program covers all the 52 African countries except for Somalia, within the context of the region's statistical objectives and priorities.

### 4.2 Program management

**Global-level management:** The management and coordination of the ICP takes place at three levels: global, regional, and national. Since the ICP is essentially a global undertaking and the technical demands of the data require standard procedures to ensure consistency and data quality in all participating regions and countries, the current ICP arrangement provides for effective global management. The components are as follows:

- Overall coordination and accountability of the Global Program is achieved through an international governing body, to include representatives of the main stakeholders, including international organizations, regional agencies, and national statistical offices (NSOs). The international

governing body will be responsible for setting goals and objectives as well as the strategic framework for the Global ICP, taking into consideration the statistical needs of regional agencies and countries.

- Day-to-day management of the program is achieved through the *Global Office* (GO). The ICP Global Office is responsible for resource mobilization, advocacy, program implementation and monitoring, and reporting to stakeholders. The Global Office is housed at the World Bank HQ in Washington, DC.

**Regional-level management:** The key to ICP management lies at the regional level. The regional coordinating body is responsible for: (i) outlining the objectives of a regional program; (ii) charting a specific program of action; (iii) providing guidelines for an overall institutional plan; and (iv) managing the implementation process. The first rounds of ICP-Africa were managed and coordinated by Eurostat and EuroCost and were restricted to the ICP. The year 2005 witnessed the ICP-Africa program being coordinated for the first time by a pan-African institution, namely the AfDB, under the oversight of the ICP-Global Office. Unlike previous programs, it comprised specific sub-programs on (i) PPP estimates (ICP), (ii) the implementation of the 1993 SNA, and (iii) statistical capacity building.

For ICP-Africa, overall coordination and accountability of the regional program have been achieved through a regional governing body chaired by the head of an NSO and consisting of representatives of the main stakeholders, including regional agencies and NSOs. The regional governing body is responsible for setting regional goals, priorities, and objectives, in addition to approving annual work programs. The ECA, other regional organizations and subregional organizations play a critical intermediary role in supporting and facilitating the implementation of the ICP-Africa.

**National-level management:** The sharing of work between the AfDB and NSOs calls for maximum cooperation and a clear understanding of underlying responsibilities. At the national level, implementation of the ICP is the responsibility of the agency responsible for routine price data collection, which is usually the NSO. Each participating country has been requested to appoint a national ICP coordinator, to take responsibility for organizing the data collection process and liaising with the ICP Coordinator at the AfDB. The national coordinator is assisted by a deputy coordinator, and three other technical and administrative staff members, making a team of five members.

### 4.3 Integration of the ICP with National Statistical Systems (NSSs)

As the ICP data requirements largely coincide with a country's own requirements in the preparation of its national accounts, and in the construction from time-to-time of the consumer price index (CPI) and compilation of other social and economic statistics, any step directed toward the improvement of national accounts or price statistics at the national level should be of immediate benefit to ICP and vice versa. To reduce the costs of data collection in participating countries, ICP-Africa will promote the integration of the ICP with the CPI data collection systems. The objective is to maximize the benefits that CPI and ICP draw from an integrated price collection mechanism without placing an undue burden on either program.

Another important dimension is the integration of detailed price data from ICP with detailed expenditure data from the household budget survey (HBS). The objective here is to establish the greatest possible synergy between ICP and the HBS. Characteristically, HBS provides detailed expenditure data, but the price data generated are restricted in scope and coverage. The ICP, on the other hand, provides detailed price statistics. The integration of ICP and HBS could potentially provide tremendous cross-benefits to each program. To compute purchasing power parities (PPPs), ICP requires detailed subcategory expenditure weights that are normally available only from household expenditure surveys. On the other hand, the detailed data that the ICP makes available provide a coherent basis for the assessment of poverty and the impact of economic programs, which are the primary concerns of governments and international agencies.

## 5. PROGRESS REPORT: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE 2011 ICP-AFRICA ROUND

Following an initial preparatory phase of the program, the 2011 ICP program was successfully launched in Nairobi, Kenya, from June 14–25, 2010. There were over 200 participants representing 49 African countries, regional and subregional organizations, and statistical training centres. The meeting made the following recommendations:

- AfDB to communicate decisions reached vis-à-vis the Core Global and Africa Region Products Lists to the ICP Global Office;
- NSOs to adopt the governance structure for the 2011 ICP-Africa Round;
- SROs to streamline the disbursement of funds to countries;



- STCs to consider integrating ICP issues in the training curricula;
- AfDB to ensure that the NSO staff who are participating in 2011 ICP-Africa Round but did not participate in the 2005 Round are fully exposed to the Bank rules and procedures, especially in the areas of accountability and audit;
- NSOs to justify the disbursements as required by AfDB on time;
- As a best practice, countries to share experiences from the 2005 ICP–Africa Round when implementing the 2011 Round;
- NSOs to synchronize the 2011 ICP-Africa Round activities with their regular activities for the year 2011 for effective implementation of the program.

It was further agreed that: (i) the ICP-Africa 2011 Round Governing Board would be constituted; (ii) the AfDB would incorporate a Risk Strategy for the 2011 ICP-Africa Round work plan; and (iii) member countries would adopt and operationalize the 2011 ICP-Africa Timetable and Work Program. It was also agreed that a Second Regional Workshop be held in September to finalize the methodological aspects and prepare for 2011 activities.

## 5.1 The Second Regional Workshop

The main objectives of the Second Regional Workshop were to: (i) finalize the preparations for the 2011 round of ICP activities, including the Regional List of Products, (ii) work on the ICP Work Program for the period 2011–2013; (iii) refine the methodologies necessary for the GDP breakdown for the 2011 ICP Round; and (iv) finalize the 2009 data validation, for both Prices and National Accounts data that would be used to compute the 2009 regional PPPs.

Specifically, the *Price Statistics* discussions covered the following areas: (i) Survey Framework; (ii) Pilot Survey for the 2011 Household Consumption component; and the structure of the pilot survey budget; (iii) ICP-Data Quality Assurance Framework checklist forms; and (iv) the status of the 2009 and 2010 country price information.

*National Accounts* sessions covered five themes as follows: (i) timetable of National Accounts activities, 2010–2013; (ii) guidelines for validating the basic heading GDP breakdown for 2009; (iii) report on the situation regarding metadata for 2009 GDP breakdown; (iv) review of the consolidated matrix of the 2009 GDP breakdown, and, (v) National Accounts reporting forms and the National Accounts framework for the 2011 ICP Round.

At the conclusion of the meetings, participants agreed to undertake several activities in preparation for the ICP-Africa 2011 Round (see Work Plan below).

## 6. FUTURE ACTIVITIES

ICP-Africa 2011 activities began in 2010 and can be divided into two main components – Price Statistics and National Accounts activities. Details of the Work Plan up until the end of 2011 are presented below and are in line with the Global Work Plan. The African Development Bank is in the process of preparing annual work plans to be distributed to countries. These will also serve as part of the promotional material distributed to countries, to share with key stakeholders.

### WORK PLAN

No.	Price Statistics Activities	Deadline / Timeframe	Responsibility
1	Submission of the ICP-Africa National Coordination Team to AfDB and SRO	September 10, 2010	Countries
2	Country Survey Framework Report submission	September 30, 2010	Countries
3	Updating the Regional List of Products	September 15, 2010	AfDB and SRO
4	Final submission of the 2009 price data	September 17, 2010	Countries
5	Sending to countries the ICP price survey material, including field instruments and survey forms	October 5, 2010	AfDB and SRO
6	Training ICP price survey field staff in countries	October 20, 2010	Countries
7	Sending to countries and SRO for review the 2009 ICP-Africa preliminary results	October 30, 2010	AfDB
8	Training of trainers on ICP-Africa 2011 Software (Genesis Software and ICP Country Software)	November 15–19, 2010	AfDB (with the participation of the Global Office)

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No.	Price Statistics Activities	Deadline / Timeframe	Responsibility
9	Training on ICP-Africa 2011 Software (Genesis Software and ICP Country Software) for participating countries	December 2010 to February 2011	AfDB and STC
10	Sending the final Regional List and Products catalogues to countries	December 31, 2010	AfDB
11	Technical assistance activities to countries on ICP price activities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elaboration or updating survey frameworks and related data collection preparatory activities;</li> <li>• Training of data collectors, data entry clerks and supervisors;</li> <li>• Support on the use of ICP data collection and validation tools;</li> <li>• Support on any specific request about ICP methodology;</li> <li>• Supervision of the work of the national coordination teams.</li> </ul>	September 2010 to September 2011	AfDB, AFRISTAT, COMESA, SADC, ECOWAS
12	Subregional (ECOWAS, SADC, COMESA, AMU, ECCAS) ICP-Africa price quality control and validation for 2010 (12 months) and 2011 (3 months) data	April 1–5, 2011	AfDB and RECs
13	Regional ICP-Africa price quality control and validation for 2010 (12 months) and 2011 (three months) data	June 6–10, 2011	AfDB
14	Sub-Regional (ECOWAS, SADC, COMESA, AMU, ECCAS) ICP-Africa price quality control and validation for 2010 (12 months) and 2011 (ten months) data	November 10–14, 2011	AfDB and RECs

.../cont.

No.	National Accounts Activities	Deadline / Timeframe	Responsibility
1	Preparation of Budget and submission to AfDB	September 30, 2010	Countries
2	Technical assistance on 2009 GDP break-down for selected countries	September – October 2010	AfDB & RECs/SROs
3	Final submission of GDP vectors for 2009	October 31, 2010	AfDB & RECs/SROs
4	Major aggregates (revised) for 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 Values for all basic headings for 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009	November 2010	Countries
5	Ten (10) case studies to be conducted by end December 2010 to customize the forms and assess additional workload to countries	November–December 2010	AfDB & RECs/SROs
6	National Accounts Subregional Workshops (AMU, COMESA, ECCAS, ECOWAS, SADC): Case studies on 2011 ICP National Accounts metadata forms & specific surveys methodology	April 2011	RECs/SROs
7	5 National Accounts Subregional Workshops (AMU, COMESA, ECCAS, ECOWAS, SADC): Preliminary data for 2010	April 2011	RECs/SROs
8	3rd ICP 2011 Regional Workshop: 2010 GDP breakdown: preliminary data	June 2011	AfDB
9	Major aggregates (revised data for 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009), preliminary data for 2010 All basic headings for 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 (preliminary)	July 2011	Countries

.../cont.

No.	National Accounts Activities	Deadline / Timeframe	Responsibility
10	Five National Accounts Subregional Workshops (AMU, COMESA, ECCAS, ECOWAS, SADC): Revised data for 2010 & ICP 2011 Specific Surveys data validation	August–September 2011	RECs/SROs
11	4th ICP 2011 Regional Workshop: 2010 GDP breakdown: revised data & ICP 2011 Specific Surveys data validation	November 2011	AfDB

Key: AfDB = African Development Bank; AMU = Arab Maghreb Union; COMESA = Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa; ECCAS = Economic Community of Central African States; ECOWAS = Economic Community of West African States; RECs = Regional Economic Communities; SADC = Southern Africa Development Community; SROs = Subregional Offices; STC= Statistical Training Center

# Programme de comparaison internationale pour l'Afrique (PCI-Afrique) : Lancement de l'édition de 2011

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Juin 2010, Nairobi, Kenya

## 1. CONTEXTE

Le Programme de comparaison internationale (PCI) est une initiative mondiale visant à produire des statistiques internationalement comparables sur les niveaux de prix, la valeur des dépenses et l'estimation de la parité du pouvoir d'achat (PPA), afin de faciliter la comparaison entre les pays des agrégats économiques et des niveaux de prix par rapport au PIB et à ses sous-agrégats. Le PCI est né du constat que les mesures d'agrégats économiques fondées sur les taux de change ne reflètent pas les différences de niveaux de prix entre les pays et ne sont donc pas appropriées pour déterminer les choix de politiques qui, en principe, portent uniquement sur les volumes et ne tiennent pas compte des distorsions de prix. Dans le cadre du PCI, des comparaisons de la valeur réelle sont obtenues non seulement pour le PIB comme agrégat principal, mais également pour un certain nombre de sous-agrégats pertinents, notamment les dépenses de consommation des ménages, les investissements et les dépenses publiques. La parité du pouvoir d'achat (PPA) est l'équivalence entre différents pouvoirs d'achat, exprimée en une seule unité monétaire permettant d'acheter la même quantité de biens et services dans tous les pays. Les données sur la PPA permettent donc de comparer les agrégats et les structures économiques de différents pays sur la base des volumes, sans tenir compte de la distorsion des prix et des taux de change.

À sa création en 1970, le PCI était une entreprise commune des Nations unies et de l'unité de comparaison internationale de l'Université de Pennsylvanie. C'était alors un projet modeste dont les comparaisons portaient sur 10 pays. D'autres éditions du PCI ont été organisées en 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990 et 1993. À sa dernière édition, le PCI avait atteint une dimension mondiale et couvrait 118 pays dans toutes les régions du monde.

Depuis son lancement, le PCI a progressivement accru la participation des pays africains. Pendant les deux premières phases expérimentales (1970 et 1973), le Kenya était le seul pays africain représentant le monde en développement. Lors des phases suivantes, le nombre de pays africains est passé à quatre en 1975, puis à 15, 23 et 22 respectivement en 1980, 1985 et 1993. Les deux dernières éditions du PCI pour la région étaient financées et supervisées par Eurostat. Dans les autres régions, la coordination du programme était assurée par des institutions locales. *L'édition 2005 du PCI était donc la*

*toute première pendant laquelle les activités du programme en Afrique étaient coordonnées par une institution africaine, la BAD, en étroite collaboration avec la CEA et la Banque mondiale.* Ensuite, la BAD a pris l'entière responsabilité de la coordination et du financement du PCI-Afrique.

## **2. BIEN-FONDÉ DES PROGRAMMES DE COMPARAISON INTERNATIONALE**

Le besoin de données fiables et comparables a gagné en importance depuis le début des années 90, car les statistiques sont plus explicitement utilisées pour la définition des objectifs nationaux, régionaux et mondiaux, pour la préparation de Documents de stratégie pour la réduction de la pauvreté (DSRP) dont la demande est en hausse, et pour le suivi des progrès vers les Objectifs du Millénaire pour le développement (OMD). En outre, du fait de la rareté des ressources, beaucoup de pays ne disposent plus d'approches globales pour l'élaboration de politiques et le besoin de politiques judicieuses, ciblées et rentables est devenue énorme. Le PCI vise donc à répondre à la demande de données fiables, régulières et comparables pour l'élaboration des DSRP, l'évaluation des progrès accomplis dans la réalisation des OMD et d'autres travaux analytiques, dont ceux ayant trait à la réforme structurelle des économies nationales.

Pour ce faire, le PCI continue de fournir des données plus ponctuelles et plus fiables sur les niveaux de développement de différents pays, ce qui facilite l'allocation efficiente de ressources internationales pour la réduction de la pauvreté, la compréhension du processus de transformation économique et de croissance et le suivi des progrès. Par exemple, les données du PCI sont utilisées à l'échelle internationale pour l'établissement du seuil international de pauvreté (un ou deux dollars par jour) et le suivi des progrès vers les cibles de réduction de la pauvreté des OMD (Banque mondiale) ; l'élaboration de l'indice du développement humain (PNUD) ; la comparaison des dépenses de santé par habitant (OMS) ; l'évaluation des dépenses d'éducation par habitant (UNESCO) ; le suivi du bien-être chez les enfants (UNICEF) ; la comparaison de la taille de différentes économies et l'estimation du taux de croissance économique pondéré par région (FMI et BAD).

La mondialisation rapide et l'intégration croissante des marchés internationaux et des institutions financières renforcent également l'urgence des besoins de données internationalement comparables. Le PIB réel par habitant exprimé en standard de pouvoir d'achat (SPA) est l'unique mesure le plus souvent utilisée par les multinationales pour évaluer les coûts d'investissement

à l'étranger et les risques d'un pays à l'autre, y compris le coût unitaire de la main-d'œuvre et du matériel, ainsi que pour déterminer la viabilité des projets, la taille du marché et la répartition des actifs.

Le PCI 2011 s'inscrit dans la continuité des éditions précédentes. Comme les précédents exercices, il sera organisé par région ; des organisations régionales telles que la BAD joueront un important rôle de coordination. À cet effet, la BAD s'est dotée d'un plan stratégique régional. La mise en œuvre du PCI-Afrique 2011 se fera donc sous la forme d'un exercice complet de renforcement des capacités statistiques régionales et dans le cadre du Programme international de comparaison.

### **3. OBJECTIFS DU PCI-AFRIQUE**

#### **3.1 Appuyer la réalisation des OMD et des DSRP**

L'objectif immédiat du PCI-Afrique est l'organisation de la collecte de statistiques socioéconomiques pour répondre à la demande pressante de données fiables et ponctuelles pour le suivi des OMD et des DSRP dans les pays. Les objectifs à long terme consistent notamment à : i) renforcer les capacités des PMR en matière de statistiques de prix et les comptes nationaux ; ii) faire du PCI une partie intégrante des systèmes statistiques nationaux ; iii) intégrer la parité du pouvoir d'achat des pauvres dans le PCI ; et iv) promouvoir l'utilisation des données du PCI pour l'élaboration et le suivi des politiques.

#### **3.2 Renforcement des capacités**

Pour ce qui est du renforcement des capacités, les objectifs du PCI-Afrique se présentent comme suit :

- développer la capacité des bureaux nationaux de statistique (BNS) à produire régulièrement des statistiques économiques pour l'évaluation des politiques ;
- améliorer les capacités des centres de formation en statistiques afin qu'ils puissent soutenir les BNS ;
- concevoir un ensemble intégré d'activités de collecte de données qui favoriseront la compilation ponctuelle et régulière des comptes nationaux ;
- lancer des activités visant à améliorer les méthodes actuelles de suivi des prix et en étendre la couverture ; et
- initier le personnel local aux activités statistiques relevant du PCI.



## 4. PLAN DU PROGRAMME

### 4.1 Coopération statistique

La BAD continuera à coordonner la mise en œuvre du PCI-Afrique en étroite collaboration avec les communautés économiques régionales, les organisations sous-régionales, les centres de formation en statistique et la Banque mondiale, en particulier le Bureau mondial du PCI. Le cadre de coopération africain pour le PCI vise à soutenir et inspirer toutes les politiques et activités de développement en cours dans le continent, surtout celles destinées à lutter contre la pauvreté. Le partenariat régional dans le cadre du PCI amélioré est axé sur le principe de l'appropriation du programme par tous les intervenants. Par le passé, le PCI était organisé et géré en amont par un coordonnateur mondial qui prenait la plupart des décisions. Le cadre stratégique actuel repose sur approche ascendante. Premièrement, des organisations régionales (comme la BAD) seront représentées au sein de la structure mondiale de coordination. Il s'agit d'une innovation importante, dans la mesure où elle favorisera la reddition de comptes à l'échelle régionale tout en permettant aux acteurs régionaux d'influer sur la stratégie mondiale. Deuxièmement, les organisations sous-régionales contribueront à veiller à ce que le PCI soit au mieux conforme aux recommandations et programmes régionaux en vigueur dans les différents États membres. Les communautés économiques sous-régionales se serviront aussi du PCI comme outil intégré pour l'évaluation de leur convergence économique. Elles devraient même être impliquées dans l'analyse des résultats du PCI. Troisièmement, les bureaux de statistique nationaux participeront au programme à tous les niveaux.

Le programme couvre tous les pays africains à l'exception de la Somalie (soit 52), compte tenu des objectifs et priorités de la région en matière de statistique.

### 4.2 Gestion du programme

**Gestion mondiale.** La gestion et la coordination du PCI comprend trois niveaux : mondial, régional et national. Étant donné que le PCI est essentiellement une entreprise mondiale et que les exigences techniques de la collecte de données font appel à des procédures standard pour assurer la cohérence et la qualité des données dans l'ensemble des régions et pays participants, l'organisation actuelle du PCI prévoit une gestion mondiale efficace. Ses composantes sont les suivantes.

- La coordination et la responsabilité du programme mondial incombe à un *organe directeur international* devant comprendre les représentants des principaux intervenants, dont les organisations internationales, les organismes régionaux et les bureaux de statistique nationaux. L'organe directeur définira les buts et objectifs, ainsi que le cadre stratégique du PCI mondial, en tenant compte des besoins statistiques des organismes régionaux et des pays.
- La gestion quotidienne du programme sera assurée par le *Bureau mondial du PCI*. Celui-ci s'occupe de la mobilisation de ressources, de la promotion, de l'exécution et du suivi du programme, ainsi que de la reddition de comptes aux participants. Il est hébergé au siège de la Banque mondiale à Washington.

**Gestion régionale.** Le succès de la gestion du PCI passe par l'échelle régionale. L'organe de coordination régional est responsable de : i) la définition des objectifs du programme régional ; ii) l'élaboration d'un programme d'action spécifique ; iii) la fourniture des orientations pour un plan institutionnel global ; et iv) la gestion du processus de mise en œuvre. Les premières éditions du PCI-Afrique étaient restreintes, gérées et coordonnées par Eurostat et EuroCost. Depuis l'édition 2005, la toute première à être coordonnée par une institution africaine, l'ensemble des activités régionales est géré par la BAD sous la supervision du Bureau mondial du PCI. Contrairement aux éditions précédentes, le PCI comprend des sous-programmes : i) estimations de PPA ; ii) exécution du Système de comptabilité nationale (SCN) de 1993 ; et iii) renforcement des capacités statistiques.

À l'échelle régionale, la coordination et la responsabilité globale du PCI-Afrique sont confiées à un organe directeur régional présidé par le chef d'un bureau de statistique national et composé de représentants des principaux intervenants, y compris les agences régionales et les bureaux de statistique nationaux. Cet organe fixe les buts, les priorités et les objectifs régionaux. Il approuve aussi les programmes d'activité annuels. La CEA et d'autres organisations régionales et sous-régionales jouent un rôle clé d'intermédiaire en appuyant et en facilitant l'exécution du PCI-Afrique.

**Gestion au niveau national.** La répartition du travail entre la BAD et les bureaux de statistique nationaux requiert une grande collaboration et une bonne compréhension des responsabilités sous-jacentes. À l'échelle nationale, c'est l'organe responsable de la collecte de données sur les prix, généralement le BNS, qui s'occupe de l'exécution du PCI. Il a été demandé à chaque pays participant de désigner un coordonnateur qui se chargera de l'organisation de la collecte de données et assurera la liaison avec le coor-

donnateur du programme à la BAD. Le coordonnateur national est assisté d'un coordonnateur adjoint et d'une équipe technique et administrative composée de trois personnes, soit un total de cinq personnes.

### **4.3 Intégration du PCI aux systèmes statistiques nationaux**

Les données nécessaires au PCI correspondent largement à celles dont un pays a besoin pour la préparation des comptes nationaux, pour la construction de l'indice des prix à la consommation et pour d'autres usages socioéconomiques quotidiens. Par conséquent, toute activité visant à améliorer les statistiques et les comptes nationaux sera également utile au PCI et vice-versa. Afin de réduire les coûts liés à la collecte des données dans les pays participants, le PCI-Afrique encouragera l'intégration du PCI aux systèmes de collecte de données utilisées pour l'indice des prix à la consommation (IPC). L'objectif est d'optimiser les avantages que le PCI et l'IPC tireront d'un mécanisme intégré de collecte des prix sans surcharger ces programmes.

Autre aspect important, l'intégration des données détaillées sur les prix du PCI aux données détaillées sur les dépenses issues des enquêtes sur le budget des ménages. L'objectif est d'établir le maximum de synergie entre le PCI et les enquêtes sur le budget des ménages. Ces dernières ont la particularité de fournir des statistiques détaillées sur les dépenses, mais limitées et incomplètes sur les prix. Par contre, le PCI fournit des statistiques détaillées sur les prix. L'intégration des deux programmes serait donc mutuellement bénéfique. Pour le calcul de la parité des pouvoirs d'achat (PPA), le PCI utilise des sous-catégories de coefficients de pondération des dépenses qui ne peuvent être générées que par les enquêtes sur le budget des ménages. D'autre part, les données précises issues du PCI constituent un excellent point de départ pour l'évaluation de la pauvreté et des effets des programmes économiques, principale préoccupation des gouvernements et des organisations internationales.

## **5. RAPPORT SUR L'ÉTAT D'AVANCEMENT : RECOMMANDATIONS POUR L'ÉDITION PCI-AFRIQUE 2011**

Après la phase préparatoire, le lancement du PCI 2011 s'est déroulé avec succès à Nairobi du 14 au 25 juin 2010. L'événement a rassemblé plus de 200 participants représentant 49 pays africains, des organisations régionales et sous-régionales et des centres de formation en statistique. Les recommandations ci-après sont sorties de cette rencontre :

- la BAD devrait communiquer ses décisions concernant la liste mondiale de produits de base et la liste de produits de la région Afrique au Bureau mondial du PCI ;
- les BNS devraient adopter la structure de gouvernance de l'édition 2011 du PCI-Afrique ;
- Les organisations sous-régionales devraient assurer le bon déroulement du décaissement des fonds destinés aux pays ;
- les centres de formation en statistique devraient intégrer le PCI dans leur programme de formation ;
- la BAD devrait veiller à ce que le personnel des BNS participant au PCI-Afrique 2011 et n'ayant pas participé à l'édition 2005 ait une bonne connaissance des règles et procédures de la Banque, surtout en matière de responsabilité et d'audit ;
- Les BNS devraient justifier les décaissements dans les délais prescrits par la BAD ;
- les pays devraient partager leur expérience du PCI-Afrique 2005 à titre de bonne pratique pour l'édition 2011 ;
- les BNS devraient synchroniser les activités du PCI-Afrique avec leurs activités normales de l'exercice 2011, en vue de la réussite du programme ;

De plus, il a été convenu que : i) le Conseil de direction du PCI-Afrique 2011 devrait être mis sur pied ; ii) la BAD devrait intégrer une stratégie de gestion du risque dans le plan d'activité du PCI-Afrique 2011 ; et iii) les pays membres devraient adopter et exécuter le calendrier et le programme de travail de cette édition du programme. Il a également été convenu de la tenue d'un second atelier régional en septembre pour finaliser les aspects méthodologiques et préparer les activités de 2011.

## 5.1 Deuxième atelier régional

Le deuxième atelier régional avait pour objectifs de : i) finaliser les préparatifs des activités du PCI-Afrique 2011, y compris la liste de produits régionaux ; ii) travailler sur le programme de travail du PCI pour la période 2011-2013 ; iii) améliorer les méthodologies de ventilation du PIB pour le PCI 2011 ; et iv) achever la validation des données de 2009 sur les prix et les comptes nationaux, afin qu'elles puissent être utilisées pour le calcul des PPA régionaux pour 2009.

Plus précisément, les discussions relatives aux *statistiques de prix* ont porté sur : i) le cadre des enquêtes ; ii) l'enquête pilote pour la composante Consommation des ménages de 2011 ; et la structure de l'enquête pilote sur le budget ; iii) les formulaires de la liste de vérification du Cadre d'assurance

de la qualité des données du PCI ; et iv) l'état des informations de 2009 et 2010 sur les prix nationaux.

Les réunions concernant *les comptes nationaux* ont abordé les cinq thèmes ci-après : i) le calendrier des activités relatives aux comptes nationaux pour 2010-2013 ; ii) les lignes directrices pour la validation de la ventilation du PIB par position élémentaire pour 2009 ; iii) le rapport d'avancement sur les métadonnées relatives à la ventilation du PIB de 2009 ; iv) la revue de la matrice consolidée de la ventilation du PIB de 2009 ; et v) les formulaires de rapport sur les comptes nationaux et le cadre des comptes nationaux pour l'édition 2011 du PCI.

À l'issue des rencontres, les participants ont convenu de mener diverses activités préparatoires pour le PCI-Afrique 2011 (voir le plan d'activité ci-dessous).

## 6. ACTIVITÉS PRÉVUES

Les activités préparatoires pour le PCI-Afrique 2011 ont démarré en 2010 et peuvent être réparties en deux principales composantes les statistiques des prix et les activités des comptes nationaux. Le tableau ci-après contient des précisions sur le plan d'activité jusqu'à la fin de 2011. Ces activités sont harmonisées avec celles du plan d'activité mondial. La Banque africaine de développement prépare en ce moment des plans d'activité annuels qui seront distribués aux pays. Ils feront partie des instruments de promotion que les pays devront partager avec les principaux intervenants.

### PLAN D'ACTIVITÉ

No.	Activités relatives aux statistiques des prix	Date-butoir/délai	Responsabilité
1	Présentation de l'équipe de coordination nationale du PCI-Afrique à la BAD et au BSR	10 septembre 2010	Pays
2	Présentation du rapport sur le cadre d'enquêtes nationales	30 septembre 2010	Pays
3	Mise à jour de la liste régionale des produits	15 septembre 2010	BAD et BSR

No.	Activités relatives aux statistiques des prix	Date-butoir/décalai	Responsabilité
4	Présentation de la version finale des données sur les prix de 2009	17 septembre 2010	Pays
5	Transmission aux pays du matériel d'enquête sur les prix du PCI, y compris le matériel de terrain et les formulaires	05 octobre 2010	BAD et BSR
6	Formation du personnel chargé de l'enquête sur les prix dans les pays	20 octobre 2010	Pays
7	Transmission aux pays et au BSR des résultats préliminaires du PCI-Afrique 2009 pour examen	30 octobre 2010	BAD
8	Formation des formateurs sur les logiciels du PCI-Afrique 2011 (logiciel Genesis et logiciel-pays du PCI)	15 au 19 novembre 2010	BAD (avec la participation du Bureau mondial)
9	Formation sur les logiciels du PCI-Afrique 2011 (logiciel Genesis et logiciel-pays du PCI) à l'intention des pays participants	Décembre 2010 à février 2011	BAD et centres de formation en statistiques
10	Transmission de la liste régionale finale et des catalogues de produits aux pays	31 décembre 2010	BAD
11	Assistance technique aux pays pour la collecte de données sur les prix du PCI <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• élaboration ou actualisation des cadres d'enquêtes et activités préparatoires à la collecte de données ;</li> <li>• formation des collecteurs de données, des commis à la saisie de données et des superviseurs ;</li> <li>• aide à l'utilisation des outils de collecte et de validation des données du PCI ;</li> <li>• réponse à tous types de demandes concernant la méthodologie du PCI ;</li> <li>• supervision du travail des équipes de coordination nationales</li> </ul>	Septembre 2010 à septembre 2011	BAD, AFRISTAT, COMESA, SADC, CEDEAO

<b>No.</b>	<b>Activités relatives aux statistiques des prix</b>	<b>Date-butoir/délai</b>	<b>Responsabilité</b>
12	Contrôle de la qualité des données du PCI-Afrique sur les prix et validation pour 2010 (12 mois) et 2011 (trois mois) au niveau sous-régional (CEDEAO, SADC, COMESA, UMA, CEEAC)	1er au 5 avril 2011	BAD et CER
13	Contrôle de la qualité des données du PCI-Afrique sur les prix et validation pour 2010 (12 mois) et 2011 (trois mois) au niveau régional	6 au 10 juin 2011	BAD
14	Contrôle de la qualité des données du PCI-Afrique sur les prix et validation pour 2010 (12 mois) et 2011 (10 mois) au niveau sous régional (CEDEAO, SADC, COMESA, UMA, CEEAC)	10 au 14 novembre 2011	BAD et CER

<b>No.</b>	<b>Activités relatives aux comptes nationaux</b>	<b>Date-butoir/délai</b>	<b>Responsabilité</b>
1	Préparation du budget et présentation à la BAD	30 septembre 2010	Pays
2	Assistance technique à la ventilation du PIB de 2009 pour un certain nombre de pays	Septembre et octobre 2010	BAD et CER/BSR
3	Présentation de la version finale des vecteurs du PIB pour 2009	31 octobre 2010	BAD et CER/BSR
4	Principaux agrégats (révisés) pour 2006, 2007, 2008 et 2009 Valeur de toutes les positions élémentaires pour 2006, 2007, 2008 et 2009	Novembre 2010	Pays
5	Dix (10) études de cas à mener d'ici fin décembre 2010 pour personnaliser les formulaires et évaluer la charge de travail supplémentaire pour les pays	Novembre et décembre 2010	BAD et CER/BSR

No.	Activités relatives aux comptes nationaux	Date-butoir/décal	Responsabilité
6	Ateliers sous-régionaux sur les comptes nationaux (UMA, COMESA, CEEAC, CEDEAO, SADC) : études de cas relatives aux formulaires de métadonnées des comptes nationaux et à la méthodologie des enquêtes ciblées du PCI 2011	Avril 2011	CER/BSR
7	5 ateliers sous-régionaux sur les comptes nationaux (UMA, COMESA, CEEAC, CEDEAO, SADC) : données préliminaires pour 2010	Avril 2011	CER/BSR
8	Troisième atelier régional sur le PCI 2011 : ventilation du PIB de 2010 : données préliminaires	Juin 2011	BAD
9	Principaux agrégats (données révisées pour 2006, 2007, 2008 et 2009) données préliminaires pour 2010 Toutes les positions élémentaires pour 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 et 2010 (préliminaires)	Juillet 2011	Pays
10	5 ateliers sous-régionaux sur les comptes nationaux (UMA, COMESA, CEEAC, CEDEAO, SADC) : Données révisées pour 2010 et validation des données des enquêtes ciblées du PCI 2011	Août et septembre 2011	CER/BSR
11	Quatrième atelier régional sur le PCI 2011 : ventilation du PIB de 2010 : données révisées et validation des données des enquêtes ciblées du PCI 2011	Novembre 2011	BAD

Note : BAD - Banque africaine de développement ; UMA - l'Union du Maghreb arabe  
COMESA - Marché commun de l'Afrique de l'Est et de l'Afrique australe ; CEEAC - Communauté économique des États de l'Afrique Centrale; CEDEAO - Communauté économique des États de l'Afrique de l'Ouest ; REC - Communautés économiques régionales ; SADC - Communauté pour le Développement de l'Afrique Australe ; OSR - Organisation sous-régionale ; CFS - Centre de formation statistique.



# **First Conference of African Ministers Responsible for Civil Registration:**

## **“Toward Improved Civil Status Information for Efficient Public Administration and Generation of Vital Statistics for National Development and MDGs Monitoring in Africa”**

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August 2010, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

### **PREPARATORY EXPERTS’ GROUP MEETING**

An Experts’ Group Meeting (EGM) was convened from August 10–12, 2010 at the United Nations Conference Centre (UNCC) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, to serve as a preparatory stage for the First Conference of African Ministers Responsible for Civil Registration. The Conference was held immediately afterwards at the same venue from August 13–14, 2010. Both the Conference and the preparatory EGM were organized jointly by the UNECA – African Center for Statistics (ACS), the African Development Bank (AfDB), and the African Union Commission (AUC), and were hosted by the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Additional financial support was provided by the Health Metrics Network (HMN), with technical support extended by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD). UNFPA, UNICEF, and UNHCR also collaborated in organizing this high-level meeting.

The meeting brought together officials from national civil registration offices and National Statistical Offices (NSOs) of most African member states. In attendance were also participants from regional, subregional, international, and non-governmental organizations, together with other development partners.

The objectives of the EGM derived from those of the Conference of Ministers, namely:

- To mobilize and rally political commitment and leadership of national governments, civil registration authorities, and National Statistical Offices (NSOs) toward the improvement of civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) systems in Africa for national development and monitoring of MDGs; and
- To address the need for enhanced regional commitment and partnership in the improvement of CRVS systems in Africa.

## **Recommendations of the Experts' Group Meeting (EGM)**

After considering the reports and background documents presented during the meeting, and following extensive discussions, the Group of Experts made a number of recommendations to the Conference of African Ministers Responsible for Civil Registration. These recommendations can be broadly subdivided into (a) policy issues, (b) technical issues, and (c) operational and advocacy issues, as detailed below.

### ***(a) Policy Issues***

1. The African Union Commission (AUC) to establish a standing African Ministerial Conference on Civil Registration and Vital Statistics (AMCCReVS), thereby providing a forum for the discussion of political and policy issues related to civil registration and vital statistics in Africa.
2. The Statistical Commission for Africa (StatCom-Africa), as the apex intergovernmental body responsible for statistics, to establish a Working Group on Civil Registration and Vital Statistics.
3. Countries to consider enshrining civil registration within national constitutions and charters, given its importance for public policy, good governance, human rights, the rights of children, and as a basis for reliable vital statistics.
4. Countries to revisit and update their CRVS laws and statistical legislation in line with UN guidelines and recommendations. To improve CRVS programs, evidence-based legislative drafting techniques should be used to draft and revise comprehensive organic law, subsidiary rules/ administrative regulations, and operational manuals.
5. Countries to adopt laws and policies that ensure timely and compulsory registration of vital events occurring within their national territories, with guarantees for equal access to the system for all persons, regardless of nationality, immigration, or marital status, and to include refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs), and marginalized populations. However, there is a need for further discussions specifically on the inherent implications for nationality and citizenship of birth registration and the issuance of birth certificates to non-nationals, including refugees.

6. Countries to develop strategies to derive vital statistics from the registers, including regular publication and dissemination of the statistics, with due regard to privacy and confidentiality of personal information.
7. Countries to take full advantage of the ongoing sectoral reform programs, democratization and decentralization processes in Africa to bring civil registration services close to target populations and achieve universal coverage of civil registration. Governments therefore need to establish central and subnational registration offices, including in remote rural areas and close to camps for refugees and IDPs, and ensure their proper functioning and accessibility.
8. Countries to revisit the issue of fees and consider free registration of vital events, as well as free issuance of certificates, specifically for first-time current registration.
9. Countries to allocate adequate financial and human resources to support civil registration and vital statistics systems.
10. Countries to include provisions for CRVS systems in National Development Plans, National Strategies for the Development of Statistics (NSDS), and other statistical plans.
11. The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), the African Development Bank (AfDB), and the African Union Commission (AUC) to finalize the draft medium-term regional plan and Guidelines on CRVS, with inputs from this Experts' Group Meeting. Further, they should call upon countries to adopt and use them in their quest to improve their respective CRVS systems.
12. ECA to consider establishing a substantive post on civil registration and vital statistics with appropriate support staff at the African Center for Statistics, to ensure the sustainability of ongoing efforts to improve CRVS systems in Africa.
13. Development partners to support national initiatives and programs, including aligning their assistance programs accordingly.

***(b) Technical Issues***

14. Universities, national and regional statistical and demographic training institutions to develop appropriate curricula for building capacity and

improving CRVS systems in Africa. The African Group on Statistical Training (AGROST) should consider putting CRVS on its agenda.

15. Countries to establish systematic and scientific methods and procedures for the monitoring and evaluation of CRVS systems.
16. Countries to develop appropriate instruments, techniques, and accessible procedures for registering vital events that were not immediately registered on occurrence, as well as making provision for backlogged registration.
17. Countries to consider adopting the World Health Organization's standard classification of causes of death. Each country should adopt appropriate modalities for determination of causes of death when deaths occur outside medical facilities.
18. Countries to develop appropriate technical and operational methodologies to interface civil registration and vital registration systems with other demographic and social statistical undertakings.
19. Countries to establish as soon as possible a high-level coordination committee for CRVS in order to improve the functioning of the systems.

***(c) Operational and Advocacy Issues***

20. Implementation guidelines to include provisions for the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in the operation of CRVS systems, as well as arrangements for archiving and managing relevant CRVS data and information.
21. Proposed plans and programs for developing CRVS to reflect cultural and social conditions specific to Africa.
22. Awareness-raising campaigns on the procedures and importance of civil registration to be scaled up, in particular through community outreach programs to ensure public participation in the CRVS process. Emphasis should also be given to raising awareness and knowledge of CRVS among government officials.
23. Special arrangements to be made for raising awareness of the importance of registration of events in rural areas.

24. Countries to involve civil society organizations (CSOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and community and traditional leaders in the development and implementation of advocacy and communication strategies for CRVS.
25. Countries to promote public/private partnerships with media organizations and other strategic stakeholders to provide space for free delivery of educational messages on CRVS.
26. Countries to work toward the establishment of integrated population registers/databases, focusing initially on priority areas, including the registration of births, deaths, marriages and divorces.

## **DECLARATION OF AFRICAN MINISTERS RESPONSIBLE FOR CIVIL REGISTRATION:**

### **Improving Civil Registration and Vital Statistics in Africa**

1. We, African Ministers responsible for Civil Registration, meeting for the first time in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia from 13 to 14 August 2010 at the instance of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), the African Development Bank (AfDB) and the African Union Commission (AUC);
2. Acknowledge that the theme of our first conference: *“Improved Civil Status Information for Efficient Public Administration and Generation of Vital Statistics for National Development and MDGs Monitoring in Africa”* is both timely and relevant for the achievement of Africa’s development and improvement of public service delivery to our people;
3. Convinced of the importance of civil registration for public policy, good governance, human rights, the rights of children, and as a basis for reliable vital statistics;
4. Further acknowledge the importance and contribution of civil registration and vital statistics information for the implementation of the Reference Regional Strategic Framework for Statistical Capacity Building in Africa and the Marrakech Action Plan for Statistics and promoting the African Charter on Statistics;

5. However note with concern that despite the importance of civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) systems and ongoing efforts, the majority of our countries still lack adequate, viable and complete systems;
6. Affirm the need for strong policy responses, including those aimed at improving CRVS systems as part of the ongoing reforms in our countries;
7. Take note of the recommendations of the 2009 Tanzania Regional Workshop on Strengthening Civil Registration and Vital Statistics Systems in Africa, the second session of the Statistical Commission for Africa, and the Addis Ababa Expert Group Meeting on Civil Registration, preceding this conference, to strengthen CRVS systems in Africa;
8. We note that the challenge before us now is to continue mobilizing and rallying political commitment and leadership for the improvement of CRVS systems in Africa. In this regard, we fully endorse the recommendations of our experts on strategies for strengthening CRVS systems. In the light of these recommendations, we hereby resolve to:
  - 8.1 Take appropriate policy measures to facilitate the implementation of plans, programs, and initiatives for the reform and improvement of CRVS systems to achieve universal coverage and completeness, taking into consideration the specific circumstances of our countries. In this regard, we resolve to mainstream CRVS processes into national statistical development strategies and other national plans and programs, including strengthening the coordination of activities among various departments and ministries at national, subregional, and regional levels;
  - 8.2 Formulate laws and policies that ensure timely and compulsory registration of vital events occurring within our countries, with guarantees for equal access to the system for all persons. In this regard, we commit to revise and update our CRVS laws and statistical legislation in line with international and regional guidelines and recommendations, by allocating adequate human and financial resources for this purpose;
  - 8.3 Intensify awareness-raising campaigns on the procedures and importance of CRVS systems, to ensure effective functioning of the systems.

9. We recognize the importance of partnerships and capacity-building to support national efforts to strengthen CRVS. In this regard, we call upon:
  - 9.1 ECA, AfDB, and AUC, as well as other development partners, to continue to support our efforts in capacity-building and mobilizing resources;
  - 9.2 ECA, AfDB and AUC to undertake an evaluation of national CRVS systems and finalize the draft medium-term regional plan and guidelines and report to the next session of the Conference of Ministers;
  - 9.3 The African Symposium for Statistical Development (ASSD), which has hitherto focused on mobilizing Africa to fully participate in the 2010 round of population and housing census, to give priority to mobilizing Africa to improve CRVS systems;
  - 9.4 ECA to consider establishing a substantive post on civil registration and vital statistics with appropriate support staff at the African Center for Statistics to ensure the sustainability of ongoing efforts to improve CRVS systems in Africa;
  - 9.5 Universities, national and regional statistical and demographic training institutions to enhance or develop appropriate curricula for building capacity and improving CRVS systems in Africa;
  - 9.6 The health sector to align the health system with CRVS systems to improve coordination and sharing of data on births and deaths with assigned causes for all deaths, with national statistical offices and CRVS authorities;
  - 9.7 The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), the Health Metrics Network (HMN) and other development partners to strengthen their support to regional and national CRVS initiatives and programs, including aligning their assistance accordingly.
  
10. Lastly, we request the AUC to consider institutionalizing the Conference of African Ministers Responsible for Civil Registration and Vital Statistics as a standing regional platform to meet biannually, for discussion and evaluation of political and policy issues related to civil registration and vital statistics in Africa.

*Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, August 14, 2010.*

# Première Conférence des ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil :

**« Vers une amélioration des systèmes d'information des faits d'état civil en vue d'une administration publique et d'une production de statistiques efficaces pour le développement national et le suivi des OMD en Afrique »**

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Août 2010, Addis-Abeba, Éthiopie

## RÉUNION PRÉPARATOIRE DU GROUPE D'EXPERTS

Une réunion du groupe d'experts (RGE) s'est tenue du 10 au 12 août 2010 au Centre de conférences des Nations Unies à Addis-Abeba (Éthiopie), afin de préparer la première Conférence des ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil, prévue au même endroit les 13 et 14 août 2010. La Conférence et la réunion préparatoire d'experts ont été organisées conjointement par le Centre africain de statistique (CAS) de la Commission économique pour l'Afrique (CEA), la Banque africaine de développement (BAD) et la Commission de l'Union africaine (CUA) et abritées par le Gouvernement éthiopien. Elles ont bénéficié d'un appui financier complémentaire du Réseau de métrologie sanitaire et de l'appui technique de la Division de statistique de l'ONU, ainsi que de la collaboration du Fonds des Nations Unies pour la population (FNUAP), du Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'enfance (UNICEF) et du Haut-Commissariat des Nations Unies pour les réfugiés (HCR).

La réunion du groupe d'experts a rassemblé des responsables des services nationaux d'enregistrement des faits d'état civil et des services nationaux de statistique de la plupart des pays africains. Y ont également pris part des représentants d'organisations régionales, sous-régionales, internationales et non gouvernementales, et partenaires au développement.

Les objectifs du RGE, qui émanaient des buts de la Conférence ministérielle, se présentaient comme suit :

- Susciter l'engagement politique des pouvoirs publics nationaux, des administrations chargées de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil et des services nationaux de la statistique (INS), en faveur d'une amélioration des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique, en appui au développement national et aux OMD ;
- Aborder le besoin de renforcer l'engagement et le partenariat au niveau régional, afin d'améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique.



## **Recommandations de la réunion du groupe d'experts (RGE)**

Après avoir examiné les rapports et les documents d'information présentés à la réunion, et à la suite de discussions approfondies, le groupe d'experts a soumis un nombre de recommandations à la Conférence des ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil. Ces recommandations pourraient être généralement subdivisées en (a) questions de politique générale, (b) questions techniques et (c) questions opérationnelles et de plaidoirie, comme suit:

### ***a) Questions de politique générale***

1. La Commission de l'Union africaine (CUA) devrait faire de la Conférence ministérielle africaine sur l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil une instance permanente consacrée à l'examen de questions de politiques et de grandes orientations, en ce qui concerne l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique ;
2. La Commission statistique pour Afrique (ComStat-Afrique), en sa qualité d'organe intergouvernemental suprême chargé des statistiques, devrait créer un groupe de travail sur l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
3. Les pays devraient envisager d'inscrire l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil dans leurs constitutions et chartes nationales, eu égard à son importance pour les politiques publiques, la bonne gouvernance, les droits de l'homme et les droits de l'enfant, et comme base pour des statistiques d'état civil fiables ;
4. Les pays devraient réviser leurs lois relatives à l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, ainsi que leur législation statistique, pour les aligner sur les directives et recommandations des Nations Unies. Afin d'améliorer les programmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, il convient d'utiliser des techniques de rédaction juridique reposant sur des données, pour rédiger et réviser l'intégralité des lois organiques, les règles subsidiaires, les règlements administratifs et les guides pratiques ;
5. Les pays devraient adopter des lois et des politiques prévoyant l'enregistrement rapide et obligatoire des faits d'état civil se produisant sur leur territoire national, en garantissant que le système soit accessible à tous, quels que soient leur nationalité, leur statut au plan de l'immigration

ou leur situation matrimoniale, y compris les réfugiés, les personnes intérieurement déplacées et les populations marginalisées. Il est toutefois nécessaire de consacrer d'autres débats à l'incidence sur la nationalité et la citoyenneté de l'enregistrement des naissances et de la délivrance d'actes de naissance aux ressortissants étrangers, y compris aux réfugiés ;

6. Les pays devraient développer des stratégies permettant de générer des statistiques de l'état civil à partir des registres, y compris la publication et la diffusion régulières de toutes les statistiques, en tenant compte des questions de respect de la vie privée et de confidentialité des données personnelles ;
7. Les pays devraient tirer pleinement parti des programmes de réformes sectorielles et des processus de démocratisation et de décentralisation en cours en Afrique, pour rapprocher les services d'enregistrement des faits d'état civil des populations cibles, et assurer la couverture universelle de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil. Les gouvernements devraient donc créer des bureaux centraux et régionaux d'enregistrement, y compris dans les zones rurales reculées et près des camps de réfugiés et de personnes déplacées, et s'assurer de leur fonctionnement adéquat et de leur accessibilité ;
8. Les pays devraient réviser la question des frais et envisager la gratuité de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil, ainsi que la délivrance gratuite d'actes, en particulier pour le premier enregistrement ;
9. Les pays devraient dégager des ressources financières et humaines suffisantes pour appuyer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
10. Les pays devraient inclure des dispositions relatives aux systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil dans les plans nationaux de développement, ainsi que dans les stratégies nationales de développement de la statistique (SNDS) et autres plans statistiques ;
11. La Commission économique pour l'Afrique (CEA), la Banque africaine de développement (BAD) et la Commission de l'Union africaine (CUA) devraient établir la version finale du projet de plan régional à moyen terme et de directives sur l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, en bénéficiant de la contribution de la présente réunion de groupe d'experts. Elles devraient ensuite exhorter les pays à adopter ces instruments et à les utiliser pour améliorer leurs systèmes respectifs ;

12. La CEA devrait envisager de créer, au sein du Centre africain de statistique, un poste régulier sur l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, bénéficiant du personnel d'appui nécessaire, pour assurer la pérennité des efforts actuels visant à améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique ;
13. Les partenaires au développement devraient soutenir les initiatives et les programmes nationaux, notamment en alignant leur programme d'assistance en conséquence ;

***b) Questions techniques***

14. Les universités et les institutions nationales et régionales de formation statistique et démographique devraient élaborer des programmes appropriés pour le renforcement des capacités et le perfectionnement des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique. Le Groupe africain sur la formation statistique (AGROST) devrait envisager de mettre le système des faits d'état civil dans ses programmes ;
15. Les pays devraient mettre en place des méthodes et des procédures systématiques et scientifiques pour suivre et évaluer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
16. Les pays devraient mettre au point des instruments et des techniques appropriées, ainsi que des procédures accessibles, pour l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil qui n'étaient pas immédiatement consignés au moment où ils se produisaient et prendre des dispositions pour rattraper les retards accusés en matière d'enregistrement ;
17. Les pays devraient envisager d'adopter la classification type de l'Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS) concernant les causes de décès. Chaque pays devrait adopter des modalités appropriées pour déterminer les causes de décès lorsque ceux-ci surviennent en dehors des structures médicales ;
18. Les pays devraient mettre au point des méthodes techniques et opérationnelles appropriées pour assurer les liens entre les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil et les autres activités statistiques à caractère démographique et social ;

19. Les pays devraient constituer, dans les meilleurs délais, un comité de coordination de haut niveau pour les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, afin d'améliorer le fonctionnement de ces systèmes ;

***c) Questions opérationnelles et plaidoirie***

20. Les directives d'application devraient inclure des dispositions sur l'utilisation des technologies de l'information et de la communication dans la gestion des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, ainsi que sur les méthodes d'archivage et de gestion des données et informations de ces systèmes ;
21. Les projets de plans et de programmes relatifs au développement des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil devraient tenir compte des dimensions culturelles et sociales propres à l'Afrique ;
22. Les campagnes de sensibilisation relatives aux procédures et à l'importance de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil devraient être intensifiées, en particulier grâce à des programmes de sensibilisation du public, afin d'assurer sa participation au processus d'enregistrement. L'accent devrait être également mis sur la sensibilisation et l'information des représentants des pouvoirs publics, en ce qui concerne les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
23. Des dispositions spéciales devraient être prises pour sensibiliser la population à l'importance de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil dans les zones rurales ;
24. Les pays devraient faire participer les organisations de la société civile (OSC), les organisations non gouvernementales (ONG), les responsables de collectivités locales et les chefs coutumiers à l'élaboration et à la mise en œuvre de stratégies de sensibilisation et de communication en matière d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
25. Les pays devraient encourager les partenariats public-privé avec les organes de presse et d'autres parties prenantes stratégiques, pour la libre diffusion de messages éducatifs sur les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
26. Les pays devraient œuvrer à la création de bases de données et de registres démographiques intégrés, en se concentrant dans un premier temps sur

des domaines prioritaires comme l'enregistrement des naissances, des décès, des mariages et des divorces.

## **DÉCLARATION DES MINISTRES AFRICAINS CHARGÉS DE L'ENREGISTREMENT DES FAITS D'ÉTAT CIVIL :**

### **Amélioration de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique**

1. Nous, ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil, réunis pour la première fois à Addis-Abeba (Éthiopie) les 13 et 14 août 2010, à l'initiative de la Commission économique pour l'Afrique (CEA), de la Banque africaine de développement (BAD) et de la Commission de l'Union africaine (CUA) ;
2. Reconnaissons que le thème de notre première Conférence : « *Vers une amélioration des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits d'état civil en vue d'une administration publique et d'une production de statistiques efficaces pour le développement national et le suivi des OMD en Afrique* » est à la fois opportun et pertinent pour la réalisation du développement de l'Afrique et l'amélioration de la prestation de services publics offerts à nos populations ;
3. Sommes convaincus de l'importance de l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil pour la politique publique, la bonne gouvernance, les droits de l'homme et les droits de l'enfant, et comme base de statistiques d'état civil fiables ;
4. Reconnaissons également l'importance et la contribution de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil dans la mise en œuvre du Cadre stratégique régional de référence pour le renforcement des capacités statistiques en Afrique et du Plan d'action de Marrakech pour la statistique, et dans la promotion de la Charte africaine de la statistique ;
5. Constatons cependant avec préoccupation qu'en dépit de l'importance des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil et malgré les efforts en cours, la majorité de nos pays ne disposent pas encore de systèmes appropriés, viables et complets ;

6. Affirmons qu'il faut des réponses politiques vigoureuses, notamment qui visent à améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil dans le cadre des réformes en cours dans nos pays ;
7. Prenons note des recommandations de l'atelier régional tenu en 2009 en Tanzanie sur le renforcement des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique, de la deuxième réunion de la Commission africaine de statistique et de la réunion du groupe d'experts tenue à Addis-Abeba sur l'enregistrement des faits d'état civil, qui a précédé notre Conférence, dont l'objectif est de renforcer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique ;
8. Notons que le défi qui se pose maintenant à nous est de continuer de mobiliser et de rallier une volonté et des dirigeants politiques suffisamment résolus pour améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique. À cet égard, nous faisons nôtres les recommandations de nos experts sur les stratégies visant à renforcer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil. À la lumière de ces recommandations, nous décidons ce qui suit :
  - 8.1 Prendre les mesures appropriées pour faciliter la mise en œuvre des plans, programmes et initiatives de réforme et d'amélioration des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, en vue d'assurer une couverture générale et complète, en tenant compte des situations propres à chacun de nos pays. À cet égard, nous sommes décidés à intégrer le processus d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil dans les stratégies nationales de développement de la statistique et dans d'autres plans et programmes nationaux, notamment en renforçant la coordination des activités entre les différents services et ministères aux niveaux national, sous-régional et régional ;
  - 8.2 Élaborer des lois et des mesures à même d'assurer l'enregistrement obligatoire et en temps utile des faits d'état civil se produisant dans nos pays, tout en garantissant à tous l'égal accès au système. À cet égard, nous nous engageons à réviser et à mettre à jour nos lois sur l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ainsi que nos législations statistiques, conformément aux directives et recommandations internationales et régionales, en consacrant les ressources humaines et financières nécessaires à cet effet ;

- 8.3 Intensifier les campagnes de sensibilisation aux procédures et à l'importance des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, afin d'assurer le bon fonctionnement des systèmes ;
9. Conscients de l'importance des partenariats et du renforcement des capacités dans l'appui aux efforts nationaux pour améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, nous demandons:
  - 9.1 À la CEA, à la BAD et à la CUA, ainsi qu'aux autres partenaires au développement, de poursuivre leur appui à nos efforts de renforcement des capacités et de mobilisation de ressources ;
  - 9.2 À la CEA, à la BAD et à la CUA de procéder à une évaluation des systèmes nationaux d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil et de mettre au point le projet de plan régional à moyen terme et de directives s'y rapportant, et de faire rapport à la prochaine session de la Conférence des ministres ;
  - 9.3 Au Symposium africain sur le développement de la statistique, qui s'est, jusqu'à présent, concentré sur la mobilisation de l'Afrique pour qu'elle participe pleinement à la série de recensements de la population et des logements de 2010, d'accorder la priorité à la mobilisation du continent en faveur de l'amélioration des systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil ;
  - 9.4 À la CEA d'envisager de créer, au sein du Centre africain pour la statistique, un poste organique consacré à l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, qui serait doté du personnel d'appui nécessaire pour assurer la pérennité des efforts actuels visant à améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique ;
  - 9.5 Aux universités et aux institutions nationales et régionales de formation statistique et démographique de renforcer ou d'élaborer des programmes d'études permettant de renforcer les capacités et d'améliorer les systèmes d'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique ;
  - 9.6 Au secteur de la santé d'accorder le système de santé avec celui de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil afin d'améliorer la coordination et le partage, avec les services nationaux de statistique et ceux chargés de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil, de données sur les naissances et sur les décès et leurs causes attribuées ;

- 9.7 À la Division de statistique de l'ONU, au Réseau de métrologie sanitaire et aux autres partenaires de développement d'intensifier leur appui aux initiatives et programmes régionaux et nationaux relatifs à l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil et de réajuster leur aide en conséquence ;
10. Enfin, nous demandons à la Commission de l'Union africaine d'envisager de faire de la présente Conférence des ministres africains chargés de l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil un cadre régional permanent, se réunissant tous les deux ans, pour l'examen et l'évaluation des politiques et mesures relatives à l'enregistrement des faits et des statistiques d'état civil en Afrique.

*Fait à Addis-Abeba, Éthiopie, le 14 août 2010.*



# The Fifth International Conference on Agricultural Statistics (ICAS-V):

“Integrating Agricultural Statistics into National Statistical Systems”

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October 13–15, 2010, Kampala, Uganda

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The Fifth International Conference on Agricultural Statistics (ICAS-V) was held in Kampala, Uganda, from October 13–15, 2010. ICAS conferences started up in 1998 and are conducted every three years under the auspices of the International Statistical Institute (ISI) Committee on Agricultural Statistics. This fifth conference follows four successful conferences previously held in Washington (1998), Rome (2001), Mexico (2004), and Beijing (2007); ICAS-V marked the first such event to be held in Africa.

ICAS-V was organized with the support of the Government of Uganda (GOU), United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), African Development Bank (AfDB), Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (BMGF), the Statistical Office of the European Commission (EUROSTAT), the Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21), the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, the World Bank, and others. This Fifth Conference took as its theme “*Integrating Agricultural Statistics into National Statistical Systems*,” with a particular focus on the implementation of the “*Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics*,” which had been endorsed at the February 2010 session of the United Nations Statistical Commission.

The Conference brought together participants from the international agricultural statistical community, including producers, suppliers, trainers and users of agricultural statistics, such as economists, statisticians, researchers, analysts and decisionmakers from government entities, the private sector, the academia, development partners and international organizations. Over 300 delegates from around the globe (representing about 73 countries and many regional and international organizations) attended the conference.

ICAS-V was organized around 5 plenary sessions and 18 parallel sessions, addressing the key components of the implementation plan of the *Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics*.

## 2. CONTEXT OF THE “GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR IMPROVING AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL STATISTICS”

The International Conference on Agriculture Statistics (ICAS) is a series of conferences aiming to address issues of agricultural statistics (information/data) development. Previous conferences have focused on providing the required information to monitor poverty-related development programs, particularly in low-income countries. International consensus has been built on the need to develop national statistical systems (NSSs) that can meet the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) requirements of development frameworks such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and other national/regional development plans.

Agriculture is a key sector in many economies of the world but its monitoring tools, anchored on the availability of good-quality agricultural statistics, are insufficiently developed in many countries, including a great number in the Africa region. It is in that context that a *Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics* was prepared by the international statistical community under the auspices of the United Nations Statistical Commission. The Strategy constitutes a ground-breaking effort to improve agricultural statistics, driven by an in-depth assessment of its current status.

The assessment found that a serious decline in the quantity and quality of agricultural statistics is occurring at a time when many new data requirements are emerging, such as the growing awareness of agriculture's role in poverty reduction and food security, as well as of agriculture's impact on the environment, climate change, bio-fuels, land and water use. One of the major recommendations included in the Global Strategy is the need to integrate agriculture into national statistical systems to allow for the holistic development of the statistics sector. The UN Statistical Commission endorsed the Global Strategy in February 2010 and urged the FAO and development partners to formulate an implementation plan aimed at strengthening national agricultural statistics systems.

The ICAS-V presented an opportunity to review the key components of the implementation plan of the Global Strategy, which encompasses country assessments, issues of methodological research, training, technical assistance as well as a governance mechanism at different levels.

### 3. THE IMPLEMENTATION PLAN FOR AFRICA

The Implementation Plan for Africa of the Global Strategy involves the development of a comprehensive capacity-building program in agricultural statistics for African countries. This is in line with other international and regional initiatives aimed at providing a vision for national and international statistical systems to produce basic data and information to guide decisionmaking processes required for the 21st century.

The Implementation Plan for Africa comprises three technical components and a Governance Mechanism, as follows:

- i. the *Technical Assistance Component* to be coordinated by the African Development Bank Group (AfDB),
- ii. the *Training Component* to be coordinated by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), and
- iii. the *Research Component* to be coordinated by the FAO.

The AfDB is responsible for overall coordination of the implementation of the Africa program. A Regional Implementation Secretariat will be established at AfDB as part of its current statistical capacity-building infrastructure. Its responsibilities will include, *inter alia*, mobilizing and allocating resources, monitoring, evaluating and reporting on program implementation. Where appropriate, regional economic communities (RECs) and subregional organizations (SROs) like AFRISTAT and regional Statistical Training Centers (STCs) will be used in the implementation of the Strategy. Countries, which are the main beneficiaries of the Strategy, will be assisted to implement the Strategy as far as possible using the existing structures.

### 4. OBJECTIVES OF ICAS-V

The main objective of the ICAS-V was to provide an opportunity to review the implementation plan of the Global Strategy to Improve Agricultural and Rural Statistics, and particularly to review the plan for Africa. The overarching conference objectives included:

- To share best practices in the use of new tools and methodologies to integrate agricultural statistics into national statistical systems (NSSs);

- To review methodological developments on master sample frame and sample design;
- To share advancements in agricultural and household surveys;
- To share core data items for economic, social, and environmental statistics;
- To share best practices for data dissemination and access for analytical, research and policy purposes;
- To share key elements for each component of the implementation plan (research agenda, training program, technical assistance, governance); and
- To build a coalition of development partners in order to support the implementation plan.

## 5. PRINCIPAL OUTCOMES OF ICAS-V

- i. The Conference met its objective to serve as a global forum for discussing and sharing widely the Implementation Plan for Africa of the “Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics.”
- ii. It endorsed the Global Strategy in general and the Implementation Plan for Africa in particular. Africa was therefore urged to go ahead with the process while the global and other regions are still developing their proposals, with reference to the African experience.
- iii. The Conference also provided a forum for building a coalition of development partners to support and mobilize required resources for the Implementation Plan.
- iv. International donors who attended the meeting agreed on the following proposals:
  - Strong support for the African Plan and willingness to commit funding for its implementation;
  - Endorsement of the proposed governance framework which is built on the lessons learned from the International Comparison Program (ICP);
  - General support for the establishment of both global and regional trust funds, charged with different tasks;
  - Commitment to various initiatives for extending the coalition to other donors who might be interested in funding the Implementation Plan.

# La cinquième Conférence internationale sur les statistiques agricoles (ICAS-V) :

« Intégration des statistiques agricoles dans les systèmes nationaux de statistique »

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13 au 15 octobre 2010, Kampala, Ouganda

## 1. INTRODUCTION

La cinquième Conférence internationale sur les statistiques agricoles (ICAS-V) s'est tenue à Kampala, en Ouganda, du 13 au 15 octobre 2010. Les conférences de l'ICAS ont débuté en 1998 et se déroulent tous les trois ans sous les auspices du Comité sur les statistiques agricoles de l'Institut international des statistiques (ISI). Cette cinquième conférence suit quatre autres conférences tenues avec succès à Washington (en 1998), Rome (en 2001), Mexico (en 2004) et Beijing (en 2007); l'ICAS-V était le premier événement du genre à se dérouler sur le continent africain.

Elle a été organisée avec l'appui du Gouvernement ougandais (GOU), le Département de l'agriculture des États-Unis (USDA), la Banque africaine de développement (BAD), la Fondation de Bill et Melinda Gates (BMGF), le Bureau de statistique de la Commission européenne (EUROSTAT), le Partenariat statistique au service du développement au 21<sup>e</sup> siècle (Paris 21), la Division de statistique de l'ONU (UNSD), l'Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'alimentation et l'agriculture (FAO) et la Banque mondiale, parmi d'autres. La 5<sup>e</sup> conférence avait comme thème « *Intégration des statistiques agricoles dans les systèmes nationaux de statistique* », en mettant un accent particulier sur la mise en œuvre de la « *Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales* », qui a été endossée à la session de février 2010 de la Commission de statistique de l'ONU.

La Conférence a réuni des participants venant de la communauté internationale des statistiques agricoles, y compris des producteurs, fournisseurs, formateurs et utilisateurs des statistiques agricoles, à savoir : des économistes, statisticiens, chercheurs, analystes et décideurs des entités gouvernementales, du secteur privé, du monde académique, des partenaires au développement et des organisations internationales. Plus de 300 membres de délégation des quatre coins du globe (représentant 73 pays et un grand nombre d'organisations régionales et internationales) ont répondu présents à la conférence.

L'ICAS-V a été organisée en 5 séances plénières et 18 séances parallèles, traitant des composantes clés du plan de mise en œuvre de la « *Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales* ».

## 2. CONTEXTE DE LA « STRATÉGIE MONDIALE POUR L'AMÉLIORATION DES STATISTIQUES AGRICOLES ET RURALES »

La Conférence internationale sur les statistiques agricoles (ICAS) consiste en une série de conférences ayant pour but le traitement des questions relatives au développement des statistiques agricoles (informations/données). Les conférences antérieures se sont focalisées sur la fourniture des informations requises pour le suivi des programmes de développement liés à la pauvreté, surtout dans les pays à faible revenu. Le consensus international s'est constitué autour du développement des systèmes nationaux de statistique (SNS) qui peuvent répondre aux besoins de suivi-évaluation des cadres de développement, tels que les Documents de stratégie pour la réduction de la pauvreté (DSRP), les Objectifs du millénaire pour le développement (OMD) et d'autres plans de développement nationaux/régionaux.

L'agriculture est un secteur clé dans la plupart des économies du monde. Néanmoins, ses outils de suivi, qui dépendent de la disponibilité de statistiques agricoles de bonne qualité, sont malheureusement peu développés dans la plupart des pays, surtout en Afrique. C'est dans ce contexte que la « *Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales* » a été préparée par la communauté statistique internationale, sous les auspices de la Commission de statistique de l'ONU. Cette Stratégie constitue un effort novateur pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles, en s'appuyant sur une évaluation approfondie de leur état actuel.

Cette évaluation a relevé qu'un déclin important, en quantité comme en qualité, des statistiques agricoles, est en train de s'observer; et ce en même temps que de nouveaux besoins en données émergent, notamment en raison de la prise de conscience croissante du rôle de l'agriculture dans la réduction de la pauvreté et la sécurité alimentaire, et de l'impact de l'agriculture sur l'environnement, le changement climatique, les biocarburants, ainsi que l'utilisation de la terre et de l'eau. Une des recommandations principales de la Stratégie mondiale est le besoin d'intégrer l'agriculture dans les systèmes nationaux de statistique, afin de permettre un développement global du secteur des statistiques. La Commission de statistique de l'ONU a endossé la Stratégie mondiale en février 2010 et a demandé à la FAO et ses partenaires au développement de formuler un plan de mise en œuvre visant à renforcer les systèmes nationaux de statistiques agricoles.

L'ICAS-V a donc constitué une occasion pour passer en revue les composantes clés du plan de la mise en œuvre de la Stratégie Mondiale, à savoir :

l'évaluation de la situation au niveau des pays, les questions de recherche méthodologique, de formation, d'assistance technique et de mécanisme de gouvernance à différents niveaux.

### 3. PLAN DE MISE EN ŒUVRE POUR L'AFRIQUE

Le plan africain de mise en œuvre de la Stratégie mondiale exige l'élaboration d'un programme exhaustif de renforcement des capacités dans le domaine des statistiques agricoles pour les pays africains. Cela est en harmonie avec d'autres initiatives internationales et régionales qui visent à fournir, aux systèmes nationaux et internationaux de statistique, une vision leur permettant de produire des données et des informations de base nécessaires pour orienter les processus de prise de décision requis pour le 21<sup>e</sup> siècle.

Le plan de mise en œuvre pour l'Afrique comprend trois composantes techniques et le mécanisme de gouvernance, à savoir :

- i. la *composante assistance technique* coordonnée par la Banque africaine de développement (BAD) ;
- ii. la *composante formation* coordonnée par la Commission économique pour l'Afrique (CEA) ; et
- iii. la *composante recherche* coordonnée par la FAO.

La BAD est responsable de la coordination régionale de la mise en œuvre de tout le programme de l'Afrique. Un secrétariat régional exécutif sera établi à la BAD et fera partie de son programme actuel de renforcement des capacités statistiques. Ses responsabilités incluent, entre autres, la mobilisation et l'allocation des ressources, le suivi, l'évaluation et la production de rapports sur la mise en œuvre du programme. Au besoin, les communautés économiques régionales (CER) et les organisations sous-régionales (OSR) comme AFRISTAT et les Centres de formation en statistique (CFS) seront impliqués dans la mise en œuvre de la Stratégie. Les pays, qui sont les bénéficiaires principaux de la Stratégie, seront aidés autant que possible dans l'exécution de la Stratégie par le biais des structures existantes.

#### 4. OBJECTIFS DE L'ICAS-V

L'objectif principal de l'ICAS-V était de donner l'occasion de passer en revue le plan de mise en œuvre de la Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales, et surtout de réviser le plan pour l'Afrique. Plus précisément, les objectifs comprenaient ce qui suit :

- le partage de bonnes pratiques pour ce qui est de l'utilisation de nouveaux outils et méthodes d'intégration des statistiques agricoles dans les systèmes nationaux de statistique ;
- le passage en revue des développements méthodologiques en matière de base principale de sondage et d'échantillonnage ;
- le partage des avancées en matière d'enquêtes agricoles et d'enquêtes auprès des ménages ;
- le partage d'éléments principaux de données sur les statistiques économiques, sociales et environnementales ;
- le partage de bonnes pratiques pour la diffusion et l'accès de données pour des besoins d'analyse, de recherche et de politique ;
- le partage des éléments clés pour chacune des composantes du plan de mise en œuvre (calendrier de recherche, programme de formation, assistance technique, gouvernance) ; et
- la constitution d'une coalition des partenaires au développement pour l'appui au plan de mise en œuvre.

#### 5. RÉSULTATS PRINCIPAUX DE L'ICAS-V

- i. La Conférence a bien atteint son objectif de servir de forum mondial pour discuter du Plan africain de mise en œuvre de la « Stratégie mondiale pour l'amélioration des statistiques agricoles et rurales » ;
- ii. La Conférence a endossé la Stratégie mondiale en général et le Plan de mise en œuvre pour l'Afrique en particulier. Par conséquent, l'Afrique a été encouragée à poursuivre le processus de mise en œuvre du plan, tandis que les autres régions du monde sont encore en train d'élaborer leurs propositions, en tenant compte de l'expérience de l'Afrique.
- iii. La Conférence a également constitué un forum pour la formation d'une coalition des partenaires au développement pour l'appui et la mobilisation des ressources nécessaires pour l'exécution du plan.



iv. Les donateurs internationaux qui assistaient à la conférence se sont accordés sur les propositions suivantes :

- appui ferme au Plan africain et volonté d'engager des fonds pour sa mise en œuvre ;
- acceptation du cadre de gouvernance proposé, qui est fondé sur des enseignements tirés du Programme de comparaison internationale (PCI) ;
- appui général pour l'établissement de fonds fiduciaires mondiaux et régionaux chargés de fonctions différentes ;
- engagement en faveur de diverses initiatives, afin d'étendre la coalition à d'autres donateurs internationaux qui pourraient s'intéresser au financement du Plan.

## Upcoming Events (First and Second Quarters of 2011)

Meeting	Dates	Venue
42nd Session of the UN Statistical Commission	February 22–25, 2011	UN Headquarters, New York
Meeting of donors on the African Implementation Plan of the “Global Strategy for Improving Agricultural and Rural Statistics”	February 24, 2011	UN Headquarters, New York
PARIS21 Board Meeting	April 27–29, 2011	Paris, France
National Accounts Subregional Workshops (AMU, COMESA, ECCAS, ECOWAS, SADC): Case studies on 2011 ICP National Accounts Metadata Forms & Specific Surveys Methodology	April 2011	TBD by the Regional Economic Communities (RECs)
National Accounts Subregional Workshops (AMU, COMESA, ECCAS, ECOWAS, SADC): Preliminary data for 2010	April 2011	TBD by the Regional Economic Communities (RECs)
3rd ICP 2011 Regional Workshop: 2010 GDP Breakdown: Preliminary data	June 2011	TBD

Key: TBD = To Be Decided

## Événements à venir (Premier et deuxième trimestres 2011)

Réunion	Dates	Lieu
42 <sup>e</sup> Session de la Commission statistique de l'ONU	22-25 février 2011	Siège des Nations Unies, New York
Séminaires des donateurs sur le Plan de mise en œuvre pour l'Afrique de la « Stratégie mondiale pour le renforcement des statistiques agricoles et rurales »	24 février 2011	Siège des Nations Unies, New York
Séminaire régional du PCI-Afrique sur le contrôle de la qualité et la validation des données de prix : 2010 (12 mois) et 2011 (3 mois) (CEDEAO, SADC, COMESA, UMA, CEEAC)	1-5 avril 2011	À déterminer
Réunion du Conseil de direction de PARIS21	27-29 avril 2011	Paris, France
Séminaires sous régionaux de comptabilité nationale (UMA, COMESA, CEEAC, CEDEAO, SADC): Études de cas sur l'utilisation des questionnaires relatifs à la collecte des métadonnées dans le cadre du PCI-Afrique 2011 et Examen de la méthodologie des enquêtes spécifiques de comptabilité nationale	avril 2011	À déterminer
Séminaires sous régionaux de comptabilité nationale (UMA, COMESA, CEEAC, CEDEAO, SADC): Analyse des données provisoires de décomposition du PIB 2010	avril 2011	À déterminer
3 <sup>e</sup> séminaire régional du PCI-Afrique 2011 : Analyse des données provisoires de décomposition du PIB 2010 ; le contrôle de la qualité et la validation des données de prix : de 2010 (12 mois) et de 2011 (six mois) (CEDEAO, SADC, COMESA, UMA, CEEAC)	juin 2011	À déterminer

Note : À déterminer = Le lieu sera déterminé ultérieurement

# Editorial Policy

*The African Statistical Journal* was established to promote the understanding of statistical development in the African region. It focuses on issues related to official statistics as well as the application of statistical methodologies to solve practical problems of general interest to applied statisticians. Of particular interest will be an exposition of: how statistics can help to illuminate development and public policy issues like poverty, gender, environment, energy, HIV/AIDS, etc.; development of statistical literacy; tracking national and regional development agenda; development of statistical capacities and effective national statistical systems; and the development of sectoral statistics e.g. educational statistics, health statistics, agricultural statistics, etc.

In addition to individual academic and practicing statisticians, the Journal should be of great interest to a number of institutions in the region including National Statistical Offices, Central Banks, research and training institutions, subregional economic groupings, and international development agencies.

The Journal serves as a research outlet and information sharing publication among statisticians and users of statistical information mainly in the African region. It publishes, among other things:

- Articles of an expository or review nature that demonstrate the vital role of statistics to society rather than present technical materials;
- Articles on statistical methodologies with a special emphasis on applications;
- Articles about good practices and lessons learned in statistical development in the Africa region;
- Opinions on issues of general interest to the statistical community and users of statistical information in the region;
- Notices and announcements on upcoming events, conferences, calls for papers;
- Recent statistical developments and anything that may be of interest to the statistical community in Africa.

The papers, which need not contain original material, should be of general interest to a wide section of professional statisticians in the region.

All manuscripts will be reviewed and evaluated on content, language and presentation.

# Ligne éditoriale

*Le Journal statistique africain* a été établi pour favoriser la compréhension du développement statistique dans la région africaine. Il se concentre sur des questions liées aux statistiques officielles aussi bien que l'application des méthodologies statistiques pour résoudre des problèmes pratiques d'intérêt général pour les statisticiens de métier. L'intérêt particulier est de montrer comment les statistiques peuvent aider à mettre en exergue les problèmes de développement et de politique publique tels que la pauvreté, le genre, l'environnement, l'énergie, le VIH/ SIDA, etc.; le développement de la culture statistique; la prise en compte des questions de développement régional et national; le développement des capacités statistiques et des systèmes statistiques nationaux efficaces; et le développement des statistiques sectorielles comme les statistiques d'éducation, de santé, des statistiques agricoles, etc.

En plus des universitaires et des statisticiens de métier, le Journal devrait revêtir un grand intérêt pour les institutions de la région, notamment les offices nationaux de statistiques, les banques centrales, les instituts de recherche et les organisations économiques sous-régionaux et les agences internationales de développement.

Le Journal constitue un document de recherche et d'information entre les statisticiens et les utilisateurs de l'information statistique, principalement dans la région africaine. Il publie entre autres:

- des articles sur le plaidoyer en matière de statistique qui démontrent le rôle essentiel des statistiques dans la société plutôt que la présentation des outils techniques,
- des articles sur les méthodologies statistiques, avec un accent particulier sur les applications,
- des articles sur les meilleures pratiques et les leçons tirées de la région,
- des avis sur des questions d'intérêt général pour la communauté statistique et les utilisateurs de l'information statistique dans la région africaine,
- des informations et des annonces sur les prochains événements, les conférences, les appels à contribution pour des papiers, et
- les développements statistiques récents et tout autre aspect susceptible d'intéresser la communauté statistique dans la région.

Les articles, qui n'ont pas besoin de contenir du matériel original, devraient intéresser une grande partie des statisticiens professionnels dans la région.

Tous les manuscrits seront passés en revue et évalués sur le contenu, la langue et la présentation.

# Guidelines for Manuscript Submission and Preparation

## *Submissions*

Manuscripts in English or French should be sent by email to the Co-Chairpersons, Editorial Board at: c.lufumpa@afdb.org and bkiregyera@yahoo.com with a copy to statistics@afdb.org.

## *Title*

The title should be brief and specific. The title page should include the title, the author's name, affiliation and address. The affiliation and address should be given as a footnote on the title page. If the manuscript is co-authored, the same information should be given for the co-author(s).

## *Abstract, Key Words, and Acknowledgments*

A short abstract of about 150 words must be included at the beginning of the manuscript, together with up to 6 key words used in the manuscript. These key words should not repeat words used in the title. Acknowledgments, if any, should be inserted at the bottom of the title page.

## *Sections and Numbering*

Major headings in the text should be numbered (e.g. “**1. INTRODUCTION**”). Numbered subheadings (e.g. “**1.1 The establishment of the NSDS**”) may be used but thereafter sub-subheadings should be unnumbered. Main body text in the form of paragraphs should not be numbered.

## *Formatting*

Please use minimal formatting as this will facilitate harmonization of all the papers. As your default, keep to “normal” (12 pt. Times New Roman) for main text with a single line space between paragraphs. Do not apply “body text” as an inbuilt style. The levels of heading need to be easily identifiable. We recommend all capitals bold for the first level of heading in the main text (e.g. “**1. INTRODUCTION**”); thereafter bold upper and lower case for subheadings (e.g. “**1.1 The establishment of the NSDS**”) and unnumbered bold italic (e.g. “***Creating a culture of cooperation***”) thereafter. Please refer to the latest volume of the AJS as a guide.

## *House Style*

The Bank's house style is US rather than British spellings (e.g. “organization” not “organisation”; “program” rather than “programme”, “analyze” etc.). Use % rather than “percent” or “per cent” and double rather than

single quotation marks. Dates should be US style (e.g. December 11, 1985 not 11 December 1985).

### ***Tables and Figures***

Tables and figures should be numbered and given a title. These should be referred to in the text by number (e.g. “See Table 1”), not by page or indications such as “below” or “above”.

### ***Equations***

Any equations in the paper should be numbered. The numbers should be placed to the right of the equation.

### ***References***

A list of references should be given at the end of the paper (to precede the Annexes, if included). The references should be arranged alphabetically by surname/name of organization. Where there is more than one publication listed for an author, order these chronologically (starting with the earliest). The references should give the author’s name, year of publication, title of the essay/book, name of journal if applicable. Use a, b, c, etc. to separate publications of the same author in the same year. Titles of journals and books should be in italic; titles of working papers and unpublished reports should be set in double quotation marks and not italicized.

### ***Examples:***

Fantom, N. and Watanabe, N. (2008). “Improving the World Bank’s Database of Statistical Capacity,” *African Statistical Newsletter*, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp. 21-22.

Herzog, A. R. and Dielman, L. (1985). “Age Differences in Response Accuracy for Factual Survey Questions,” *Journal of Gerontology*, Vol. 40, pp. 350-367

Kish, L. (1988a). “Multipurpose Sample Designs,” *Survey Methodology*, Vol. 14, No. 3, pp. 19-32.

Kish, L. (1988b). *A Taxonomy of Elusive Populations*, Proceedings of the Section on Survey Research Methods, American Statistical Association, pp. 44-46.

World Bank (2006). *Statistical Capacity Improvement in IDA Countries – Progress Report*. Washington DC: The World Bank.

### **Cross References**

In the main body of the article, cross-references should be Harvard-style, e.g. (Kish, 1988a; Herzog and Dielman, 1985: 351). For cross-references to three or more authors, only the first surname should be given, followed by *et al.*, although the names of all the authors must be provided in the References entry itself. Abbreviations *ibid.* and *op. cit.* should not be used in the text or in footnotes.



# Instructions pour la préparation et la soumission de manuscrits

## *Soumission*

Les manuscrits en anglais ou en français doivent être envoyés aux présidents du comité de rédaction par email aux adresses suivantes [c.lufumpa@afdb.org](mailto:c.lufumpa@afdb.org) et [bkiregyera@yahoo.com](mailto:bkiregyera@yahoo.com) avec copie à [statistics@afdb.org](mailto:statistics@afdb.org).

## *Titre*

Le titre devrait être bref et détaillé. La page de titre doit inclure le titre du papier, le nom de l'auteur, l'affiliation et l'adresse. L'affiliation et l'adresse doivent figurer comme note de bas de page. Si le manuscrit est produit par des coauteurs, la même information doit être donnée pour les coauteurs.

## *Résumé, mots clés et remerciements*

Un résumé court d'environ 150 mots doit être inclus au début du manuscrit ainsi qu'environ 6 mots clés utilisés dans le manuscrit. Les mots clés ne doivent pas répéter les mots utilisés dans le titre. Les remerciements, s'il y en a, doivent être insérés en bas de la page titre.

## *Section et numérotation*

Les principaux titres doivent être numérotés (par exemple "**1. INTRODUCTION**"). Les sous-titres numérotés (par exemple "**1.1 L'élaboration de SNDS**") peuvent être employés mais par la suite les sous-sous-titres ne devraient pas être numérotés. Le corps principal du texte sous forme de paragraphes ne devrait pas être numéroté.

## *Formatage*

Veillez utiliser le formatage minimal car ceci facilitera l'harmonisation de tous les articles. Garder par défaut le format "normal" (12 pt. Times New Roman) pour le texte principal avec l'espace d'une seule ligne entre les paragraphes. Ne pas appliquer le "corps de texte" en tant que modèle intégré. Les niveaux du titre doivent être facilement identifiables. Nous recommandons les majuscules en gras pour le premier niveau titre dans le texte principal (par exemple "**1. INTRODUCTION**"); ensuite les lettres minuscules en gras pour les sous-sections (par exemple "**1.1 L'élaboration de la SNDS**") et ensuite l'italique en gras sans numérotation (par exemple "***créant une culture de coopération***"). Veillez vous référer au dernier volume du JSA comme guide.

## *Tables et graphiques*

Les tableaux et les graphiques doivent être numérotés et comporter un titre. Ceux-ci devraient être mentionnés (par exemple "voir Tableau 1")

dans le texte par le nombre correspondant, et non par une indication de page ou par d'autres indications telles que "ci-dessous" ou "au-dessus de".

### ***Équations***

Toutes les équations dans le papier doivent être numérotées. Les nombres doivent être placés à la droite de l'équation.

### ***Bibliographie***

Une liste de références doit être fournie à la fin de l'article (avant les annexes, le cas échéant). Les références doivent être classées par ordre alphabétique selon le nom de l'auteur ou de l'organisation. Là où il y'a plus d'une publication listée pour un auteur, elles doivent être classées chronologiquement (en commençant par les premiers publiés). Les références doivent donner le nom de l'auteur et l'année de publication, le titre du livre, le nom du journal le cas échéant. Utiliser a, b, c, etc. pour séparer les publications du même auteur au cours der la même années. Les titres des journaux et des livres devraient être en italique ; les titres des documents de travail et des rapports non publiés devraient être placés dans de doubles guillemets et ne pas être imprimés en italique.

### ***Exemples :***

Fantom, N. et Watanabe, N. (2008). "Improving the World Bank's Database of Statistical Capacity," *African Statistical Newsletter*, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp. 21-22.

Herzog, A. R. and Dielman, L. (1985). "Age Differences in Response Accuracy for Factual Survey Questions," *Journal of Gerontology*, Vol. 40, pp. 350-367.

Kish, L. (1988a). "Multipurpose Sample Designs," *Survey Methodology*, Vol. 14, No. 3, pp. 19-32.

Kish, L. (1988b). *A Taxonomy of Elusive Populations*, Proceedings of the Section on Survey Research Methods, American Statistical Association, pp. 44-46.

World Bank (2006). *Statistical Capacity Improvement in IDA Countries – Progress Report*. Washington DC: The World Bank.

### ***Renvois***

Dans le corps principal de l'article, les renvois devraient suivre le modèle de Harvard, par exemple (Kish, 1988a ; Herzog et Dielman, 1985 : 351). Pour des renvois à trois auteurs ou plus, seulement le premier nom de famille devrait être donné, suivi par *et al.*, bien que les noms de tous les auteurs doivent être fournis dans la Bibliographie elle-même. Les abréviations *ibid.* et *op. cit.* ne devraient pas être employées dans le texte ou dans les notes de bas de page.



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