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## Labor Markets and Time Allocation in Conakry

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## LABOR MARKETS AND TIME ALLOCATION IN CONAKRY

Figure 1 presents participation rates for males and females of various age groups, where participation is defined as having engaged in an income-generating activity in the last seven days. Labor market activity of children 7-14 is virtually non-existent and for young adults 15-20 is very low. Surprisingly, however, participation among 21-30 year olds is also quite low: only 29.5 percent of the men and 31.5 percent of the women in this age category work.

Among persons 21-65 years of age, 48.6 percent participate in the labor market in Conakry. Of the 51.4 percent not working in the labor market, only 15.2 percent are looking for a job; the remainder are not engaged in the process of job search. Comparison of Figures 2 and 3 indicates that 57.6 percent of men participate in the labor market; 37.8 percent are engaged in the wage sector and 19.8 percent are self-employed. In contrast, only 38.4 percent of the women participate, 8.8 percent of the potential female labor force are wage workers, and 29.6 percent are self-employed. These numbers imply that approximately two-thirds of the male workers are in the wage sector, while only 22.9 percent of women workers are in the wage sector.

We can distinguish between searchers and nonsearchers among the nonparticipants. For men, the searchers represent only 11.1 percent of the potential labor market, while nonsearchers represent 31.2 percent of

the labor market. Thus, of the nonparticipants, nonsearchers outnumber searchers 3 to 1 among men. For women, not only are the number of nonparticipants a larger proportion of the potential labor force, as discussed above, but the vast majority of nonparticipants are also not searching.

The large number of nonsearchers is important for a number of reasons. First, it provides the basis for estimating the rate of unemployment. Dividing the number of those who are searching for a job by the active labor force, which includes those searching plus those employed, gives an unemployment figure for Conakry of 12.3 percent overall. For men it is 14.0 percent, while the number for women is 9.3 percent.

Perhaps of greater interest are the reasons why 73.8 percent of the men and 93 percent of the women not working are also not searching for a job. The most frequently cited reason is that the individual is a homemaker. This is of paramount importance among women, whose participation rate is lower than that of men. In particular, of the women not searching for a job, 72.2 percent report that the reason for this is that they are housewives (Figure 3). For men, the most often cited reason for not searching for employment is that they are students or apprentices (Figure 2). In combination, these factors account for three-quarters of men not searching. These high shares raise the possibility that either people are attending school and apprenticing because of a lack of immediate job opportunities or that the latter response, in particular, is considered a face-saving way of saying that

one is doing little productive work and hoping that employment opportunities will increase, prior to actively assuming the job search. It is noteworthy that 17.8 percent of the men and 10.2 percent of the women not working list "other" as the reason. It is hypothesized that a large share of these people also include those who have essentially given up on finding a job. This phenomenon of people "dropping out" of the labor market is not unusual. To the extent that it is applicable, the true unemployment rate is underestimated.

Within the labor market, distinction is properly made between those engaged in wage employment and the self-employed. Both groups cover a wide spectrum, but especially the self-employed group, which includes everything from large business owners to the casual informal sector worker. Overall, 49.5 percent of the active labor force in Conakry is engaged in the wage labor market. As discussed above, among women, 22.9 percent of workers are wage earners; among men, 65.6 percent of workers are wage earners.

The distribution of occupations among those actively engaged in the wage labor market in Table 1 indicates that the three primary categories are professionals (30.4 percent of all wage workers); hotel, restaurant, and service workers (16.5 percent); and skilled tradespeople, including carpenters, metal workers, mechanics, tailors, painters, masons, and electricians (12.4 percent) and drivers (12.2 percent). Among women, wage workers are more heavily concentrated in the categories of professional/managerial and administrative/clerical, which in combination include nearly three-quarters of women wage workers, as compared with

less than one-third of the men engaged in the wage labor market. Nonetheless, the absolute numbers of men in these categories are greater than women, as seen by, for example, the fact that 75 percent of the professional/managerial workers are men. As expected, the percentage of women among certain occupation categories, such as drivers, skilled tradespeople, and manufacturing/industry/construction, is extremely low, comprising less than 10 percent of the total workers in these male dominated occupations.

Among nonwage workers, women predominate, representing 54.4 percent of the total (Figure 4). This is a result of the fact that two-thirds of those who are self-employed, are engaged in retail commerce, and that women comprise 73 percent of those workers (Table 2). Thus, 86 percent of the women working in the nonwage sector are engaged in retail commerce, and of the total labor force, this category includes 55.2 percent of all women working. Men make up a larger share of workers than women in all other categories of the self-employed.

An important issue, especially as it relates to the effect of adjustment programs, is the distinction between private and public sector employment. All self-employed persons are by definition in the private sector. Half of the wage labor force is in the public sector, as seen in Table 3. More than three-quarters of professionals/managers are in the public sector, while about 60.0 percent of the administrative clerical workers are in the public sector. It is also noteworthy that 46.2 percent of public sector workers report that they are professionals/managers. As will be discussed in a future bulletin, these workers

comprise a comparatively privileged group that may be most affected by state contraction that occurs commensurate with adjustment.

Another interesting issue in regards to public sector employment is the gender of workers. In the public sector, 23.2 percent of the employees are women (Figure 4). In the private wage sector, this share is only 11.8 percent, while it is 54.4 in the nonwage sector. These figures suggest that there may be less gender discrimination in hiring in the public than private sector, and that discrimination in the wage jobs encourage women to become self-employed workers. However, these hypotheses require more careful consideration, as the issues of credentials and the nature of the jobs themselves need to be carefully examined.

Related to the issue of gender discrimination in hiring is gender discrimination in firing. Fifty-five percent of the individuals who were unemployed at the time of the survey, and had lost a job, were workers in the public sector. This does not necessarily mean that 55 percent of the job losses were in the public sector; the actual percentage could have been higher or lower, as the condition for being asked the sector of previous employment was that the worker was still unemployed. Nonetheless, of the workers who had lost their public sector jobs, and are still unemployed, 28.9 percent were women, higher than the 23.2 percent of the public sector labor force that they comprise. In the private sector, however, a higher figure of 39.4 percent of job losers (who are still unemployed) were women.

The data presented in the previous tables can also be examined for household heads, rather than for all workers. Given that males comprise 96.8 percent of household heads, and household heads represent 53.0 percent of all workers, it is not surprising that the distribution of the labor force by categories is similar for household heads as for all employed persons, regardless of their position in the household. For example, the percentage of all wage workers in the public sector is roughly the same as the percentage of household heads, and the percentage of workers engaged as professionals/managers is also the same for household heads and the total labor force (Table 3). Some notable exceptions are that self-employed household heads are less likely to be engaged in retail commerce, and more likely to be in manufacturing/trades and services categories.

Next we turn to a discussion of wages. Descriptive data of this sort are difficult to interpret because of the large degree of variability within occupational categories. Therefore, in Table 4 we show, in addition to the mean values, the median and standard deviations of hourly wages of men and women in wage employment. Among the findings that emerge is a general picture of the median earnings for women being less than for men. However, owing to the large variance in wages within each category, suggestive of the occupations not comprising homogenous skills and activities groups of workers, it would be premature to suggest wage discrimination. Among the various occupations, the mean and median earnings for professional/managerial employees are highest, corresponding to expectations. However, the large standard deviations for all the

groups suggest a great deal of caution is in order in drawing any inferences concerning the structure of wage earnings by occupation category.

The data in Table 5 on earnings in the nonwage sector, stratified by type of enterprise in which one is working, are striking for one reason: the low median level of hourly net income of those engaged in retail commerce, despite the fact that the means are quite high. The enormous standard deviation is attributable to the presence in the subsample of a small class of very well-off retail merchants. As noted, retail commerce workers are predominately women and the low hourly net income most of them receive is a source of concern. The other important feature of this table is the high median value (to say nothing of the mean) of hourly net income of those in wholesale commercial activities. This group obviously includes some very rich, large-scale traders and merchants.

As noted, there are wide variations in earnings within occupational groups both in wage and self-employment that limit the ability of occupational categories to explain differences in earnings. An alternative approach is to examine earnings by level of education, which in any case is a major determinant of occupational status. Mean and median hourly earnings in wage and self-employment of men and women by education level are shown in Table 6. Before discussing the pattern of earnings, however, we examine the association of level of schooling with male and female participation in the wage and nonwage sectors. These patterns are indicated by the number of observations in each category. Beginning with a comparison of all wage and nonwage workers in the last

column, it is strikingly evident that wage workers tend to be much better educated than the self-employed. Almost 80 percent of the self-employed have no education (defined as having completed under 6 years of schooling — less than primary education) compared with less than 40 percent of the wage labor force.

Within the wage sector, Table 7 shows the educational attainment of private and public sector wage workers. It is clear that education is a key factor in government employment, reflecting the fact that almost half of the workers in public sector jobs describe their positions as managerial or professional. Fully one-quarter of public sector workers are university educated (defined as having had 4 or more years of university) compared to only 7 percent in the private sector. Fifty-two percent of private sector employees have not completed primary school, compared with only 22 percent of public sector workers.

Table 7 also shows that although women are under-represented in the wage sector, those that are in wage jobs tend to be much better educated than male wage earners. Most wage-earning women are in the public sector, and most of these are in professional or administrative jobs, which are associated with higher levels of schooling. Women with little or no education may be unable to obtain less-skilled work in the wage sector, particularly the private wage sector, than men with similar credentials. As noted, however, it is difficult to establish from the simple cross-tabulations, such a pattern of employment in fact reflects gender discrimination. Among the self-employed, in contrast, the distribution of schooling of men and women is similar as can be seen from

Table 6, although a slightly higher percentage of self-employed women have had no education (in the overall sample men tend to be better educated). Overall, the majority of both men and women who are self-employed have not had a primary education.

Turning to earnings by level of education, we look first at wage workers. Table 6 reveals the expected pattern of rising wage compensation with educational attainment for both men and women. However, the structure of earnings seems quite compressed: whether means or medians are considered, for both men and women the hourly earnings of a person with some university education is never more than double that of someone with no education. It can be seen from Table 7 that this is primarily because of the public sector, where the range of salaries from lowest to highest education categories is narrower than in the private sector.

A good deal of recent research has attempted to compare the salaries of public sector employees with those in the private sector in developing countries. Table 7 shows mean and median hourly wages for private and public employees by gender. For men with no or primary education, median public and private sector wages are similar within each education level. At the secondary and university levels, however, the private sector appears to pay better. For example, the median hourly wage of a man with a secondary education in the private sector is 397 GF compared to 335 GF in the public sector. Looking at mean rather than median wage levels for men with secondary or college education, the gap between private sector and public sector wage increases. This is probably due to greater

flexibility in wage setting in the private sector — some individuals in the private sector are paid very high salaries, bringing up the mean. For women, meaningful wage comparisons are difficult because of the low numbers of women in the private wage sector.

It was noted earlier that within occupational groups in the wage sector, women earn less than men, suggesting possible wage discrimination. However, if men within an occupation were found to be better educated or more experienced, these factors rather than gender discrimination would be a more likely explanation of pay differentials. Table 6 shows, however, that even within educational categories men tend to earn more than women. For example, for wage workers with completed secondary educations, the median wage for men is 345 GF compared to 306 for women; the difference in means is even larger. This gap is present even in the public wage sector, as shown on Table 7. This finding is provocative, but whether wage discrimination truly exists can only be properly ascertained through multivariate analysis that decomposes gender pay differentials into differences in human capital and any potential premium paid on the basis of sex. This will be done in future work with the data.

Turning to self-employment, higher earnings come with more education in this sector as well. This is seen in Table 6 for all self-employed and by gender, and in Table 8 for two of the most common activities, retail commerce and services. Median returns to education, in fact, appear to rise somewhat more steeply than in wage employment, although note the very small sample sizes for university-educated persons in self-

employment. However, the range in earnings within each education level, indicated by the standard deviations, is enormous. As seen above with respect to breakdown of earnings by occupation or activity, there is a small group of high-income, self-employed pulling the means far above the medians. Even without these high values we would expect greater variation in earnings in self-employment if pay scales in the wage sector are institutionalized by position or education. In contrast, among the self-employed in any educational group, earnings are far more likely to reflect unmeasured differences in individual productivity as well as the quantity and quality of nonhuman capital in the enterprise.

Also as in wage employment, self-employed women in each educational category earn less than men with the same schooling, and this gap is quite a bit higher in percentage terms than in wage employment. The hourly net revenue of self-employed women with less than primary education — 83 percent of self-employed women — is only 186 GF, compared with GF 399 for men (Table 6). Since this group comprises so large a share of women engaged in income-earning activities, attention clearly needs to be focused on the reasons for their low incomes, as noted above. Although lack of schooling or training may be important, these women may also be marginalized by job or occupational discrimination into unremunerative street commerce activities, or they may lack access to capital for their businesses.

Another interesting question is whether wage employment is more remunerative than self-employment, as might be expected based on the notion of dual or segmented labor markets. For men, however, the

opposite appears to be true from Table 6: for each level of education median hourly revenues are higher in self-employment than in wage employment. For women, on the other hand, median incomes in wage and self-employment are similar, at least for those with no or completed primary education. It is essential to keep in mind, however, that earnings in self-employment reflect the returns to an enterprise's physical as well as human capital, so the actual returns to schooling in self-employment, particularly among larger enterprises which employ more capital, are therefore overstated.

#### **THE ALLOCATION OF TIME TO MARKET WORK, DOMESTIC WORK, AND OTHER ACTIVITIES**

How people allocate their time in the home and in market activity is important for several reasons. There is concern that many women bear an undue burden of work because they perform domestic chores, such as child care and food preparation, in addition to market work to support their families. Also, if they spend more time working in the labor market at the expense of time spent on child care, the health of young children may suffer. Therefore the examination of time use of women, particularly women engaged in market work, is a special concern.

We begin the analysis of time use patterns with Table 9, which shows the number of hours in the last week in market work of men and women by sector of activity. Note that these average hours are conditional on participation, that is, they do not include the zero hours of nonparticipants. And as one would expect from the earlier discussion,

the share of participants, shown in parentheses in Table 9, is very low for certain categories of workers, e.g., women engaged in wage employment. In general, conditional on participation, women work fewer hours than men in both wage and nonwage work. The difference is slight in wage employment, no doubt reflecting institutional determinants of weekly hours: obviously a full-time work week is between 44 and 50 hours. For self-employment, however, the gap is large. Men work slightly more hours in self-employment than in wage jobs, while women work significantly fewer hours in self-employment: for 30-49 year old women, for example, average weekly hours of wage work is 44 compared to 37 for nonwage work. Self-employment presumably offers women the choice of working part-time so as to allow time for their domestic responsibilities.

Table 10 provides a comprehensive picture of time use by including all daily activities: market work, domestic work, education or schooling, travel to and from work or school, and the residual, leisure. Note that all individuals are included here, so that average hours in an activity in the past seven days includes the zero hours of those not engaged in the activity. As shown, market work by either sex is negligible for the 7-14 and 15-19 year age groups. Education is the major use of time for males in these two age groups, as well as for females 7-14 years of age. However, among females 15-19 years of age, domestic work, at 12.4 hours per week, is more important than education. The level of market work picks up for 20-29 year olds, although it is only about 10 hours for men or women, reflecting very low participation

rates. Weekly hours in domestic work, which includes food preparation, cleaning, shopping, child care, and other activities, remain negligible for males of all age groups, and peak at 20.5 hours for women 20-29 years of age, declining to just 2.3 hours for women over 65. It should be pointed out that the level of domestic work for all age categories is not high compared to results of surveys in rural areas, where prepared foods and other time-saving products are less available. Women's much higher burden of domestic work is offset by men's greater involvement in market activities: for example, men 30-49 on average spend 39.1 hours per week in market work, compared with 19.1 hours for women. On balance, the burden of work — domestic work plus market work — is higher for men than for women. However, it should be emphasized again that these figures are averages over all persons in an age-sex category. For women engaged in market work specifically, weekly hours in this activity are obviously higher than the averages on the table (see Table 1). Do these working women still bear a substantial burden of domestic work?

Table 11 indicates that they do indeed bear such a burden. Average hours per week in various household chores are shown for female labor market participants and nonparticipants in different age groups. Food preparation is clearly the single most important domestic work activity. A consistent pattern across age groups is that women who engage in market activity actually work either about the same or more hours in the home than those who do not participate in the labor market. This surprising pattern may reflect a tendency for female labor market participation to be associated with low household income, which in turn is associated with

a smaller number of economically inactive women who may share in household work. Hence, it may be that poor women in particular bear a significant double burden of household plus market work.

Lastly, we examine average household hours per capita in market work and domestic work for households of various sizes (Table 12). These averages are calculated by dividing the hours spent by all household members in an activity by household size. With regard to domestic work, economies of scale are evident in several activities. This is seen by beginning with the second size category; the first category, 1-2 persons, is somewhat anomalous as it includes households consisting of a single working individual who engages in little housework. For the households of 3-4, 5-9, and 10 and more persons, per capita weekly time in domestic work falls from 8.6 to 6.0 to 4.4 hours, respectively. Per capita hours in food preparation, the most important activity, are only 1.4 for households with more than 10 people compared with 3.9 hours for 3-4 person households.

**Table 1 — Wage Employment: Distribution of Principal Activities by Gender**

		Household Heads			Total Wage Labor Force		
		Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
		Percentage					
Professional/Managerial	Row%	96.3	3.7	100.0	75.0	25.0	100.0
	Column%	29.0	43.5	21.4	27.6	43.8	30.4
Administrative/Clerical	Row%	90.0	10.0	100.0	48.7	51.3	100.0
	Column%	5.0	21.7	5.5	5.1	25.6	8.7
Shopkeeping/Sales	Row%	100.0	0.0	100.0	86.2	13.8	100.0
	Column%	3.7	0.0	3.6	4.5	3.4	4.3
Hotel/Restaurant/Services	Row%	98.8	1.2	100.0	83.7	16.3	100.0
	Column%	18.6	8.7	18.4	16.7	15.5	16.5
Agriculture/Fishing/Forestry	Row%	95.0	5.0	100.0	87.2	12.9	100.0
	Column%	2.1	4.4	2.2	3.1	2.2	2.9
Manufacturing/Industry/ Construction	Row%	99.0	1.1	100.0	95.4	4.6	100.0
	Column%	10.5	4.4	10.4	11.2	2.6	9.7
Skilled trades	Row%	96.9	3.2	100.0	94.0	6.0	100.0
	Column%	13.8	17.4	13.9	14.1	4.3	12.4
Drivers	Row%	100.0	0.0	100.0	98.2	1.2	100.0
	Column%	14.0	0.0	13.7	14.5	1.3	12.2
Other	Row%	100.0	0.0	100.0	92.5	7.5	100.0
	Column%	3.1	0.0	3.1	3.3	1.3	2.3
Total	Row%	97.5	2.5	100.0	82.7	17.4	100.0
	Column%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

**Table 2 — Self Employment: Distribution of Principal Activities by Gender**

		Household Heads			Total Self-Employed Labor Force		
		Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
		Percentage					
Agriculture/Fishing/Mining	Row%	100.0	0.0	100.0	68.4	31.5	100.0
	Column%	18.1	0.0	16.4	19.0	7.3	12.6
Manufacturing/Trades	Row%	94.0	6.0	100.0	82.8	17.2	100.0
	Column%	24.6	15.3	23.7	24.1	4.2	13.3
Wholesale Commerce	Row%	93.6	6.5	100.0	83.8	16.2	100.0
	Column%	5.1	3.4	4.9	4.5	0.7	2.4
Retail Commerce	Row%	82.7	17.3	100.0	27.3	72.7	100.0
	Column%	37.7	76.3	41.3	38.7	86.0	66.4
Services	Row%	98.7	1.3	100.0	91.5	8.5	100.0
	Column%	13.0	1.7	11.9	12.4	1.0	61.6
Other	Row%	81.8	18.2	100.0	62.5	37.5	100.0
	Column%	1.6	3.4	1.8	1.4	0.7	1.0
<b>Total</b>	Row%	90.6	9.4	100.0	45.6	54.4	100.0
	Column%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

**Table 3 — Wage Employment: Distribution of Principal Activities by Sector**

		Household Heads			Total Wage Labor Force		
		Private	Public	All	Private	Public	All
		Percentage					
Professional/Managerial	Row%	24.6	75.4	100.0	24.4	75.6	100.0
	Column%	14.9	43.6	29.6	15.0	46.2	30.6
Administrative/Clerical	Row%	26.0	74.0	100.0	40.2	59.8	100.0
	Column%	2.9	8.0	5.5	7.1	10.5	8.8
Shopkeeping/Sales	Row%	84.9	15.2	100.0	87.7	12.3	100.0
	Column%	6.3	1.1	3.6	7.6	1.1	4.3
Hotel/Restaurant/Services	Row%	38.8	61.2	100.0	39.9	60.1	100.0
	Column%	14.5	21.8	18.2	13.1	19.7	16.4
Agriculture/Farming/Forestry	Row%	65.0	35.0	100.0	64.1	35.9	100.0
	Column%	2.9	1.5	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.9
Manufacturing/Industry/ Construction	Row%	72.8	27.2	100.0	76.2	23.8	100.0
	Column%	15.2	5.4	10.1	14.5	4.5	9.5
Skilled trades	Row%	63.0	37.0	100.0	63.0	37.0	100.0
	Column%	18.1	10.2	14.0	15.7	9.2	12.4
Drivers	Row%	73.4	26.6	100.0	78.2	21.9	100.0
	Column%	20.5	7.1	13.7	18.9	5.3	12.1
Other	Row%	77.8	22.2	100.0	74.4	25.6	100.0
	Column%	4.7	1.3	3.0	4.4	1.5	2.9
<b>Total</b>	Row%	48.9	51.1	100.0	49.9	50.1	100.0
	Column%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

**Table 4 — Hourly Wages of Men and Women by Wage Occupational Group**

Occupation	Men				Women				All			
	Mean	Median	S.D.	N	Mean	Median	S.D.	N	Mean	Median	S.D.	N
	GF				GF				GF			
Professional/Managerial	520	417	450	288	391	344	224	93	489	388	410	381
Administrative/Clerical	510	314	530	54	338	286	241	55	423	298	418	109
Shopkeeper/Sales	356	306	282	45	481	214	707	8	375	268	370	53
Hotel/Restaurant/Services	351	300	268	173	316	244	337	36	345	278	280	209
Agriculture/Fishing/Forestry	520	356	556	32	165	133	103	4	481	314	536	36
Manufacturing/Industry/ Construction	435	298	523	113	278	179	239	5	428	295	515	118
Skilled trades	426	316	394	152	485	313	429	9	429	313	395	161
Drivers	243	201	171	152	406	345	167	3	246	204	172	155
Other/Nonclassified	428	234	675	35	228	202	91	3	412	233	649	38

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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**Table 5 - Self-Employment: Hourly Net Income by Enterprise Type and Gender**

Enterprise Type	Men				Women				All			
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N
	GF				GF				GF			
Agriculture/Fishing/Mining	1,007	393	2,274	68	538	312	1,137	34	850	341	1,975	102
Manufacturing/Trades	986	439	1,504	135	1,450	521	2,567	27	1,063	462	1,726	162
Wholesale Commerce	16,632	1,312	46,118	22	31,602	7,888	61,983	6	19,840	1,573	49,040	28
Retail Commerce	3,390	343	29,548	256	446	188	2,228	644	1,283	227	15,905	900
Services	3,631	607	12,142	74	779	577	575	4	3,485	607	11,840	78
Nonclassified	907	856	1,205	8	951	557	1,142	4	922	764	1,131	12

Source: CFNPP/ENCDMEC 1990 Survey data.

Note: Hourly net income equals revenue in cash and kind in the previous seven days minus recurrent expenses, divided by hours worked.

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**Table 6 -- Employment and Hourly Earnings in Wage and Self-Employment by Education and Gender**

	Men				Women				All			
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N
	GF				GF				GF			
<b>Wage Employment</b>												
None	336	254	372	446	278	201	251	30	333	250	366	476
Primary	425	313	408	253	350	279	292	78	408	313	385	331
Secondary	443	345	336	190	353	306	292	64	420	338	327	254
University	602	454	547	163	461	403	279	44	572	443	505	207
<b>Self-Employment</b>												
None	1,346	399	5,523	406	790	186	6,928	591	1,017	241	6,396	997
Primary	5,780	463	43,129	112	565	276	852	98	3,347	324	31,545	210
Secondary	8,499	799	28,562	35	605	429	644	25	5,210	542	22,038	60
University	27,288	979	64,801	8	2,418	2,418	-	1	24,524	1,099	61,180	9

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Table 7 — Hourly Wages in Wage Employment by Sector, Gender and Education

	Men				Women				All			
	Mean	Median	S.D.	N	Mean	Median	S.D.	N	Mean	Median	S.D.	N
	GF				GF				GF			
Private Sector												
None	353	250	424	318	290	218	280	16	350	250	418	334
Primary	437	306	487	143	383	281	285	29	428	303	459	172
Secondary	530	397	435	68	499	357	506	18	524	371	448	86
University	837	578	972	34	649	422	446	10	795	519	879	44
Public Sector												
None	296	260	185	124	264	179	232	13	293	250	189	139
Primary	411	335	279	109	331	260	297	49	386	313	286	158
Secondary	394	335	254	122	296	292	104	46	367	329	227	168
University	542	450	343	128	405	372	181	34	513	425	320	162

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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**Table 8 — Self-Employment: Hourly Net Income in Retail Commerce and Services by Education**

Education Level	Retail Commerce				Services			
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	N
	GF				GF			
None	542	208	2,411	722	3,799	492	14,152	51
Primary	4,530	270	39,609	133	1,712	719	2,167	18
Secondary	4,372	429	1,252	35	3,100	850	4,183	6
University	1,426	1,462	14,152	4	9,553	1,099	14,852	3

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Note: Hourly net income equals revenue in cash and kind in the previous seven days minus recurrent expenses, divided by hours worked.

**Table 9 — Market Work of Men and Women 21-65 by Sector: Average Hours Per Week**

Age	Men			Women		
	Wage Employment	Self Employment	Total*	Wage Employment	Self- Employment	Total*
	Hours					
21-29	50.3 (12.6)	50.2 (11.3)	50.5 (23.8)	43.9 (2.1)	34.3 (22.7)	36.3 (27.9)
30-49	47.4 (55.6)	50.8 (25.3)	49.7 (78.8)	44.2 (13.6)	37.1 (35.6)	39.7 (47.9)
50-65	47.8 (42.5)	48.2 (26.5)	49.0 (67.5)	39.9 (2.61)	38.1 (31.3)	38.3 (34.0)

Source: ENCOMEC/CFNPP survey data.

Note: Average hours are for participants only. Participation rates shown in parentheses. Participation is defined as having engaged in market oriented work in the last 7 days, including work in the home producing items for sale.

\* Total average hours may exceed both hours in wage and self-employment due to multiple activities by a small percentage of the sample.

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Table 10 - Time Allocation by Age and Gender: Average Hours in Last Seven Days

Activity	7 - 14		15 - 19		20 - 29		30 - 49		50 - 65		Over 65	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Hours											
Market Work	0.1	0.3	1.5	2.8	10.7	9.5	39.1	19.1	33.1	13.0	14.6	2.9
Domestic Work	1.0	3.5	1.6	12.4	1.5	20.5	0.6	18.7	0.5	10.1	3.5	2.3
Education	20.4	13.9	24.5	10.9	19.7	5.1	1.5	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.5
Travel <sup>a</sup>	1.6	1.1	1.8	1.0	2.2	0.8	3.0	0.8	2.4	0.5	1.1	0.2
Leisure <sup>b</sup>	84.2	38.6	84.8	86.1	84.1	79.0	76.3	78.3	84.9	93.9	103.9	107.3

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Note: Average hours are calculated over all individuals on an age-sex category, including those not engaged in the activity.

<sup>a</sup> Travel to and from work or school.

<sup>b</sup> Residual calculated by subtracting hours in preceding activities from total waking hours in a week.

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**Table 11 — Female Domestic Work of Labor Market Participants and Nonparticipants by Age and Type of Activity: Average Hours in Last Seven Days**

Activity	Age Groups							
	15 - 19		20 - 49		50 - 65		Over 65	
	Participating	Non-participating	Participating	Non-participating	Participating	Non-participating	Participating	Non-participating
Hours								
Food Preparation/Cooking	8.8	4.2	8.8	8.1	5.8	5.0	4.7	0.6
Cleaning/Washing	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.5	1.7	1.3	1.3	0.1
Shopping	2.1	1.3	2.8	2.4	1.8	1.6	0.5	0.1
Children	2.8	1.5	3.8	3.4	0.7	1.3	2.9	0.5
Other	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.1
<b>Total Domestic Work</b>	<b>18.9</b>	<b>11.7</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>19.2</b>	<b>10.6</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>9.9</b>	<b>1.4</b>
Percentage engaged in any domestic work	99.0	86.0	95.0	85.0	81.0	64.0	63.0	17.0

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Note: Labor market participation is defined as having worked in any income-generating activity in the past seven days. Hours are averaged over all individuals in a category, whether they had engaged in activity or not.

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**Table 12 — Household Time Allocation, by Household Size: Average Hours Per Week Per Capita**

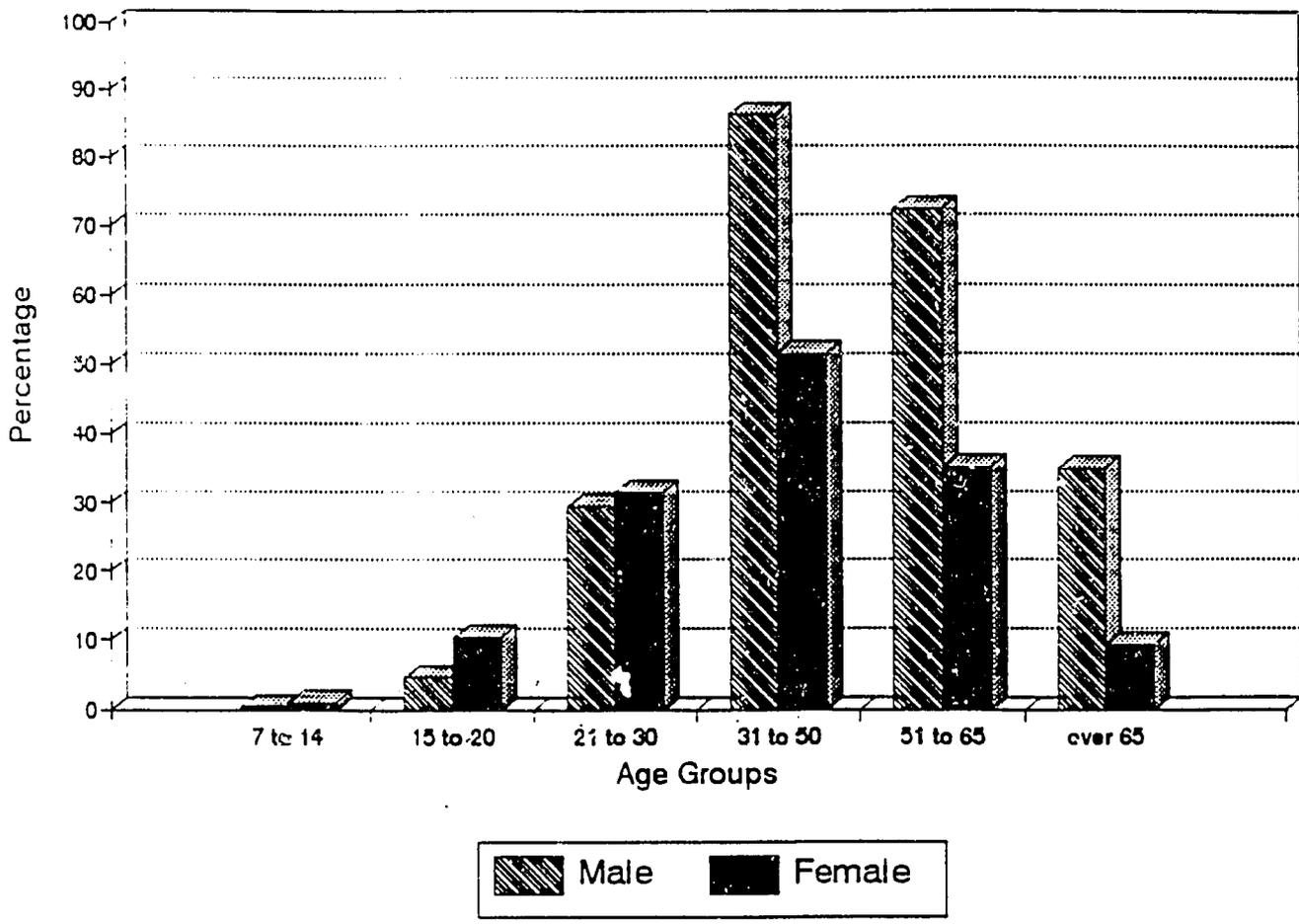
Activity	Household Size			
	1 to 2	3 to 4	5 to 9	10 and Above
	Hours			
Market work	33.1	16.4	10.1	7.4
Domestic work of which:	6.6	8.6	6.0	4.4
Food preparation/cooking	2.8	3.9	2.5	1.4
Washing/cleaning	2.1	1.5	1.2	1.1
Shopping	0.7	1.2	0.7	0.5
Child care	0.1	1.1	0.9	0.8
Other	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6

Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Note: Average hours per week per capita are calculated by dividing total household hours in an activity by the number of persons in the household.

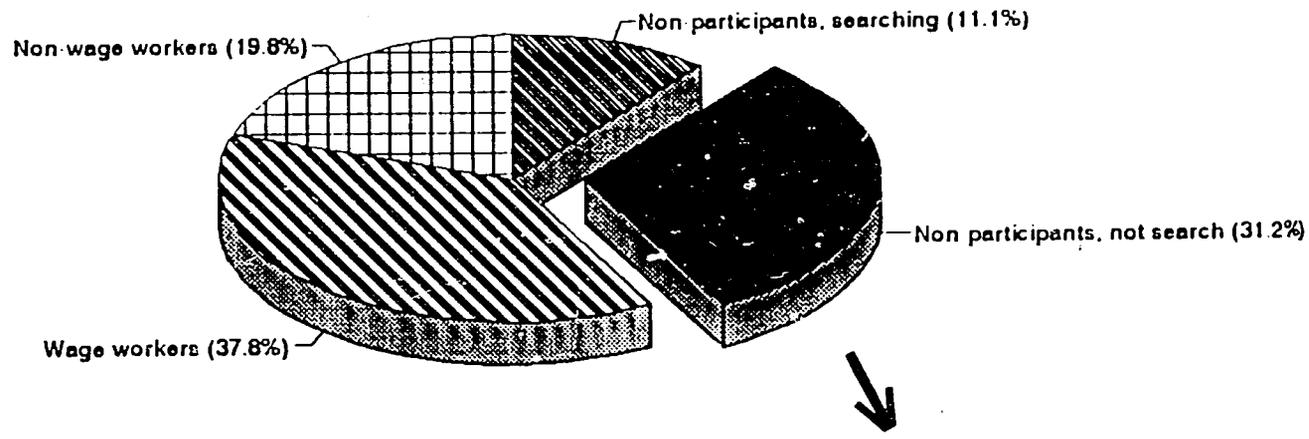
22

Figure 1: Participation Rate by Gender and Age Group

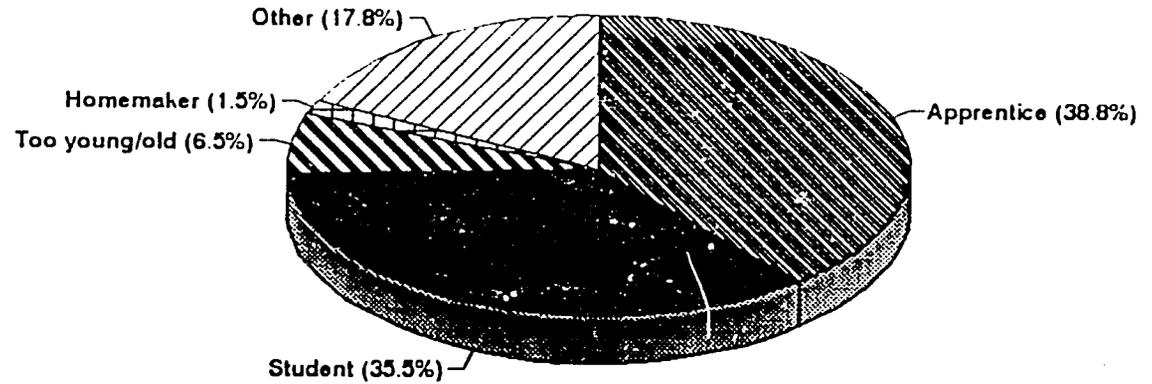


Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

Figure 2: Overview of Labor Force, Male



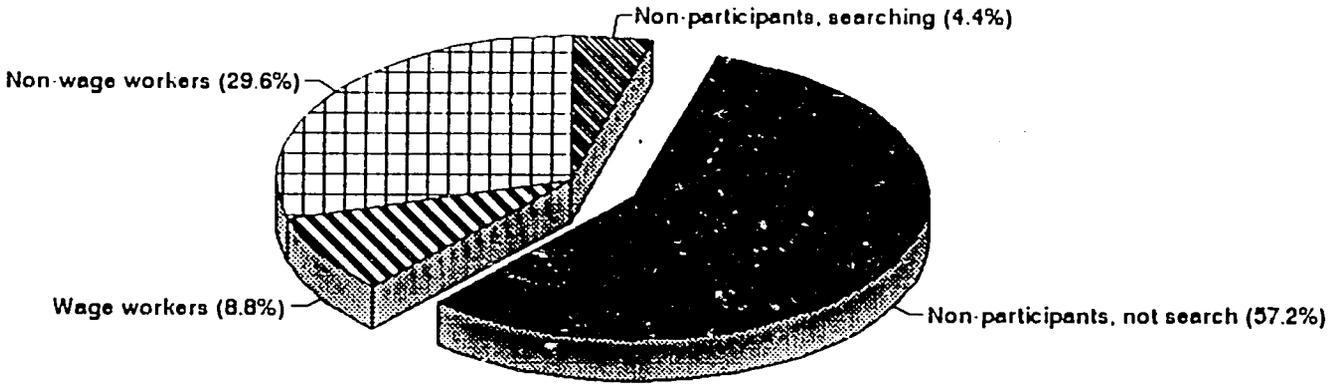
Reasons Not Searching for Work



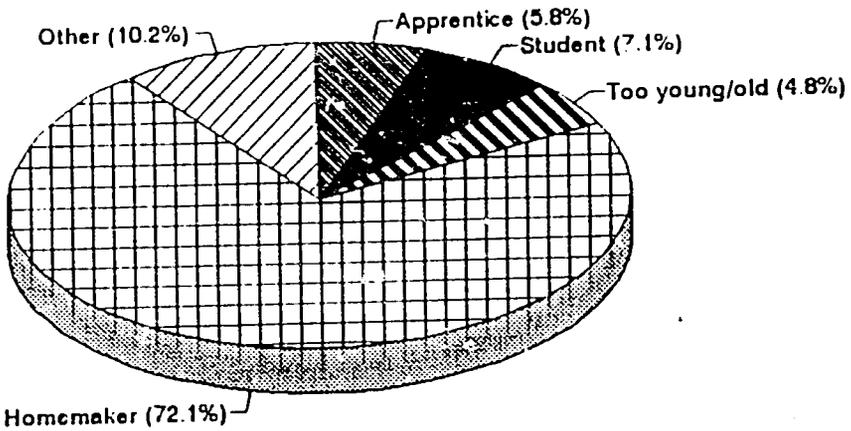
Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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Figure 3: Overview of Labor Force, Female



Reasons Not Searching for Work



Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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Figure 4: Shares of Male and Female Workers by Sector of Employment

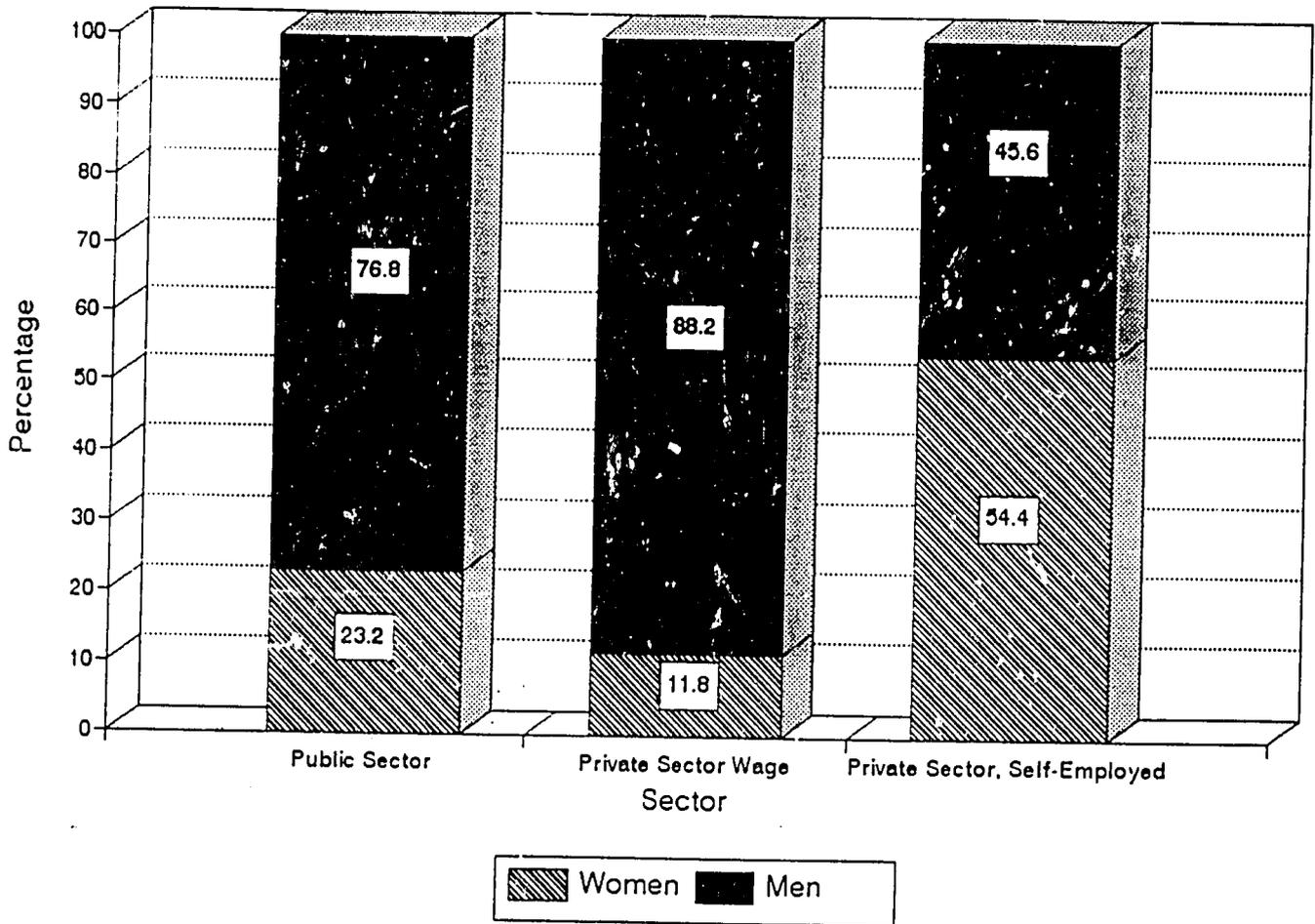
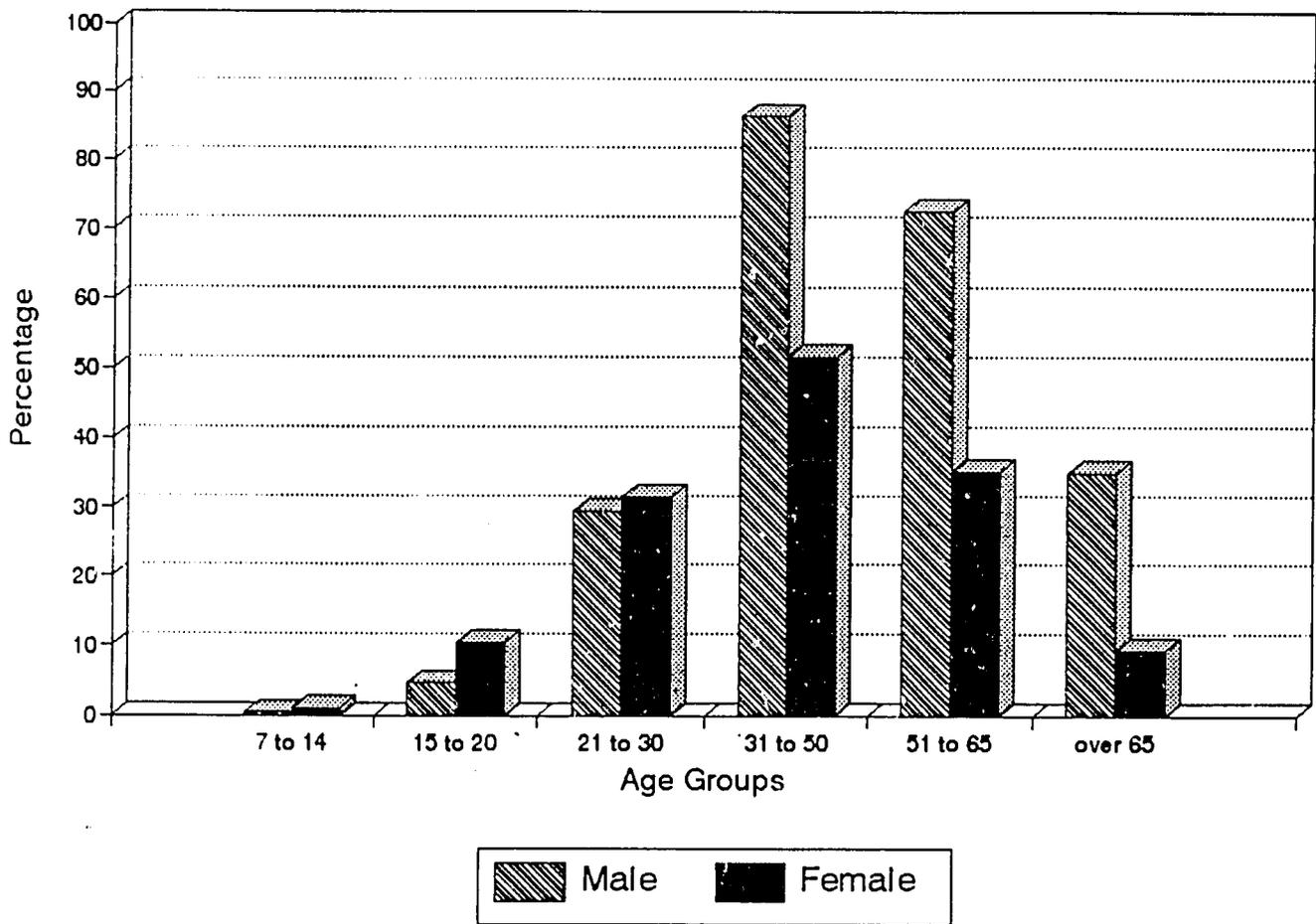
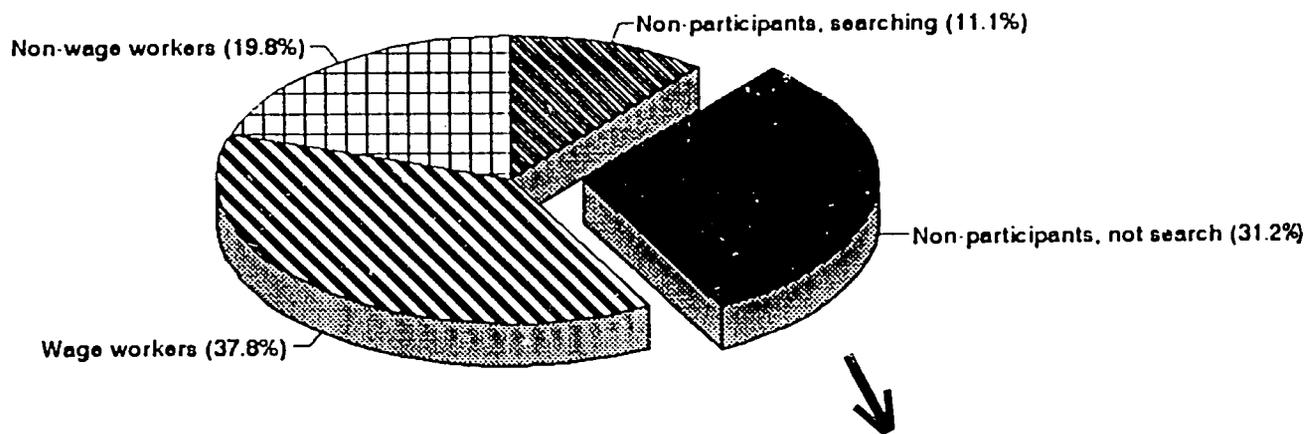


Figure 1: Participation Rate by Gender and Age Group

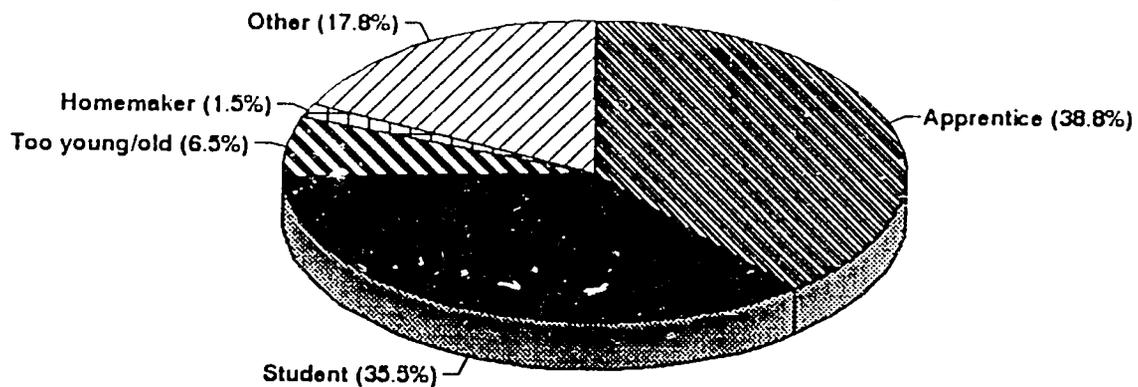


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Figure 2: Overview of Labor Force, Male



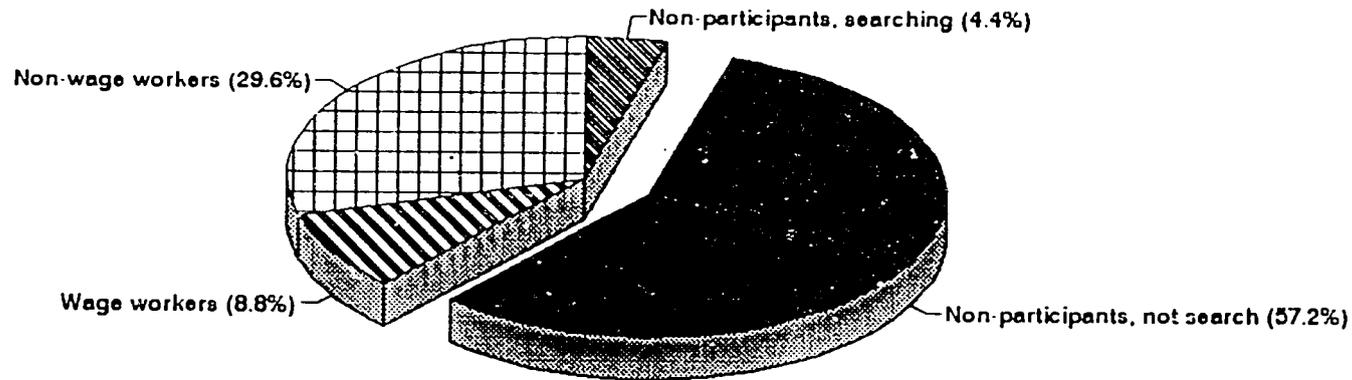
Reasons Not Searching for Work



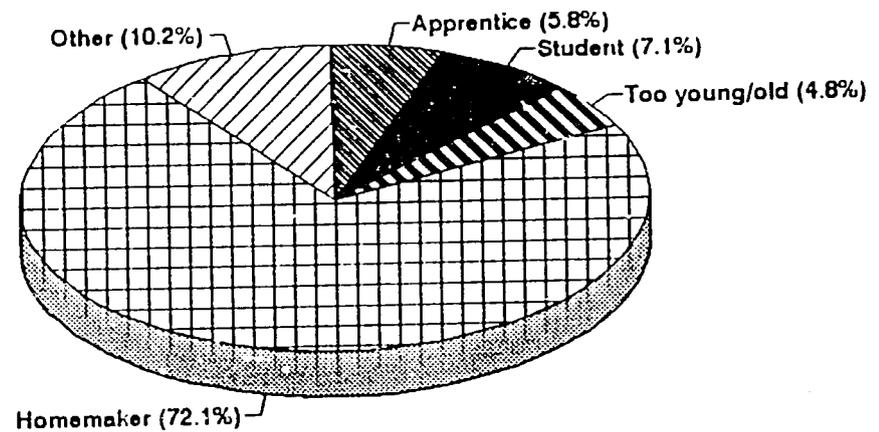
Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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Figure 3: Overview of Labor Force, Female



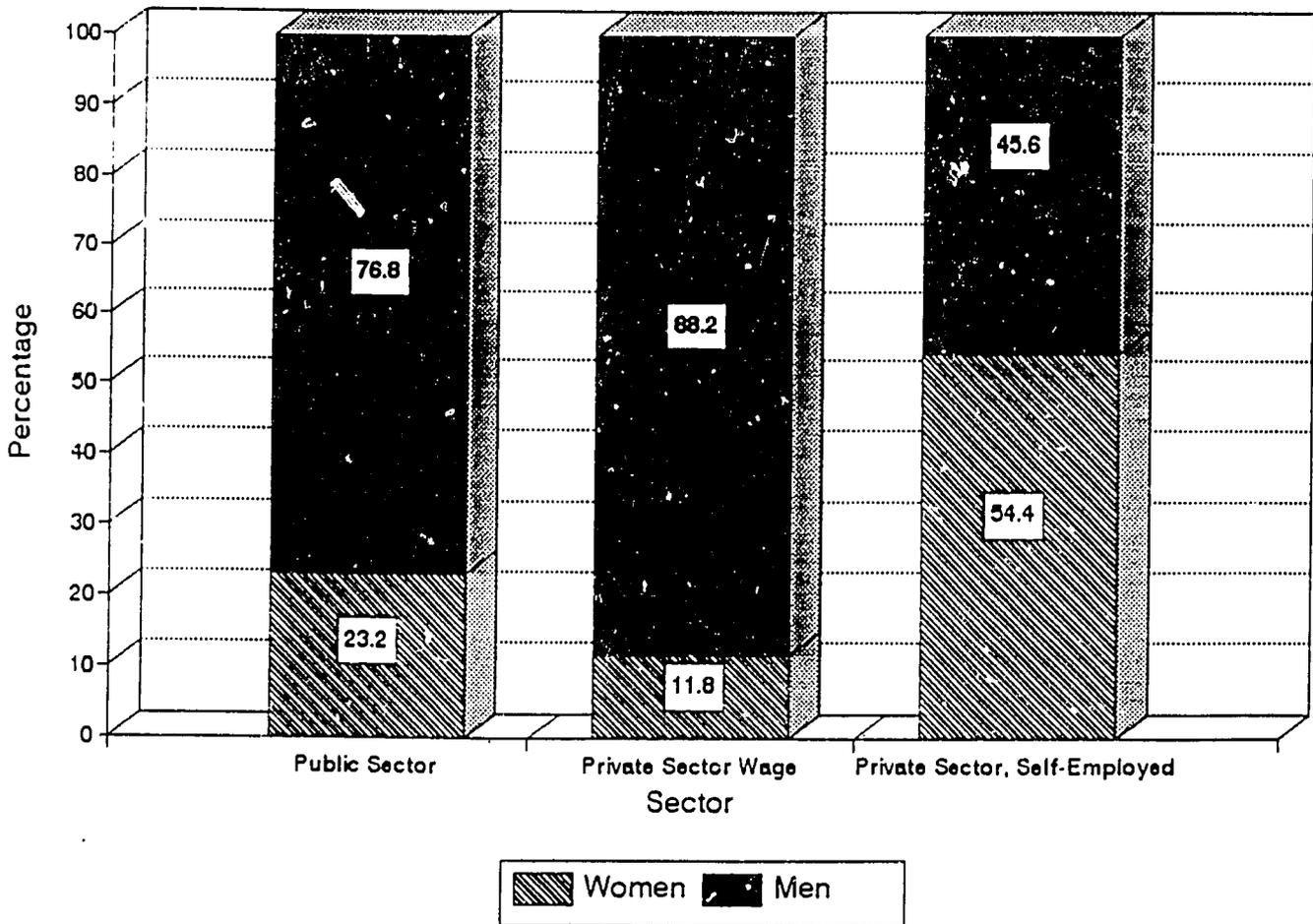
Reasons Not Searching for Work



Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

W  
F

Figure 4: Shares of Male and Female Workers by Sector of Employment



Source: CFNPP/ENCOMEC 1990 Survey data.

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