

Women and Economic Development in the Mediterranean

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Summary

This report addresses the issue of the consequences of gender inequality on economic development in the Mediterranean Partners countries. It then proposes a list of recommendations on how to improve women's access to an economic life, that would consolidate development.

In the Mediterranean countries, gender issues are marked by social, cultural, anthropological and political considerations. Whereas the economic aspect has very specific considerations, especially with regards to the informal sector and rural areas, leading to very harsh constrictions that are difficult to alleviate.

This issue brings up two major questions:

i) how to reinforce a better participation of women in the labour force? ii) how to decrease gender discrimination in the region. Undoubtedly, a modern economy can not be developed without the contribution of half of its population.

The Euro-Mediterranean context:

The Euro-Mediterranean context is marked by the following five characteristics:

√ There is a paradox on the southern borders between the living conditions of women, which are far higher than those of women in other developing countries and a considerably lower participation of women in active life.

√ The Mediterranean Partners (MP) countries have an active-inactive relationship that does not favour economic development, and this can be partly explained by the low rates of women's participation.

√ The low participation of women in economic activity has a negative impact on the living standard of the household, which World Bank simulators estimate at approximately 25% of the household income and 0.7 points of annual growth in GDP.

√ The Mediterranean countries now suffer from a low growth rate that is not sufficient to meet the simple need of balancing the labour market, taking into account the new inputs. This may lead to a strategy that would be utterly mislead and counter-productive: slowing down the entry of women into the labour market to leave space to young men.

√ The Mediterranean countries have also introduced changes in the mode of development: where the public authority, in which women are well represented and markets protection are gradually replaced by the private sector, the market and a rigorous macroeconomic management. Femise believes that substituting public jobs by private jobs for women can not be achieved without difficulty and will require an adapted policy.

Heterogeneous conditions for women in the formal economy and the rural and informal economy.

The question of the compatibility of economic activity and family responsibilities is common to all regions. In developed countries, the scales are tipped in favour of the economic inclusion of women while avoiding gender discrimination at the workplace and providing facilitating means. In the MP countries, so as in many developing countries, the matter does not stop right there. The societies are heterogeneous, there are two worlds: the world of the formal sector (generally receiving salaries), where the position of women can be considered a paradigm of universal behaviour and the rural world and the peri-urban informal sector, where poverty and living conditions impose a different rationale that is constrained by the concrete existence of the family. Here discriminations are more fundamental: they are not functional but of identities. Femise believes that to ensure the credibility and the effectiveness of the partnership actions in favour of women, the two worlds have to be considered in a balanced way. It should be noted that:

√ In the first case, women are considered as individuals who contribute to produce wealth and have no reason to be discriminated against in the labour market, nor be deprived of the environment enabling them to exercise their capacities. These are "feminae economica." who are supposed to function within the context of the usual hypotheses on their information and rationale. Any discrimination would have consequences on the well-being of the whole population and should, therefore, be eliminated. The relevant objective here is their effective participation in the labour force. The causes of low participation should be considered and adapted policies implemented.

√ In rural areas and the informal sector, the central unit is the family. Therefore we

should understand the role of women in this basic social entity, which is based on a relational system. All studies have indicated that economic behaviour which would have been considered irrational in normal contexts is perfectly rational in the concrete living conditions of many rural families or those in urban outskirts.

This distinction leads us to note that i) the formulation of gender development policies that are based exclusively on the labour market does not address a central part of the problem that is raised in the Mediterranean context; ii) modifying regulatory frameworks (notably family codes) has no concrete effect unless accompanied by modifications of practice, because society appropriates them. Therefore, changes should be seen as contributions to the concrete problems encountered by families, particularly in poor environments, and should be supported by intensive social policies aiming at considerably improving the living conditions of families. Finally, women should assume these efforts, and they are expected to do so that if they are informed and if they perceive the potential gain to their families' wealth that surpass the individual freedom.

Gender Discrimination in Economic Life

Today, the situation in MP countries seems to indicate that the pace of eliminating gender discrimination is too slow in the economic sphere. Women's participation in economic activities is influenced by two factors: fertility rates and education. First, the MP countries are in a phase of demographic transition and furthermore, they have put in place certain assets for women with salaries, such as maternity benefits, so that maternity is no longer an obstacle to work. With regard to education, significant quantitative progress has been achieved, and if there are considerable disparities between the two coasts of the Mediterranean, they are mainly of a qualitative nature.

It is therefore paradoxical that these important developments did not have a greater effect on women's participation in the labour force. From the economic point of view, two factors may be put forward by way of explanation.

√ the first factor relates to the discrimination in the labour market which weakens their effective status in society and the family and does not encourage them to seek professions. In Europe, just

as in the MP countries, although sometimes more pronounced in the latter, there is discrimination with regard to unemployment. We also noticed that in the MP countries, the rate of participation of women reaches generally a maximum in the young age category and diminishes for older women. This indicates that a gap emerges (of social nature or due to lack of infrastructure) due to the impossibility of combining family and active life in a certain age group. Adding to this the discrimination in terms of nature of the job and remuneration.

√ The second factor is the very structure of proposed employment, which reflects an adequacy between the mode of production and the competence of women, and also on the other hand, the way women see their place in the society. Here, women's employment in Europe and the MP countries is privileged in education, health services and personal services. It should therefore be admitted that the first reason for differences in the activity rates of women is linked to the size and dynamics of the sectors considered. In European countries, these sectors are assisted by public resources and an average level of wealth. We can therefore think that women's employment is also dependent on the economic dynamism of the whole structure, which alone will allow development rates of non-market services and personal services and modify anticipations.

Gender discrimination in rural areas and informal activities:

In poor areas, basic pre-conditions play a major role. This observation lends a crucial status to the issue of gender in rural areas and the informal sector, because it no longer affects the individual only, but the collective family. In rural areas, the main observations lead us to note that:

(i) the negligence in the care and nutrition of women, which in developing countries led to a deficit of 60 to 100 million persons ("the missing women of Senn") is less obvious, but has played a part in the mortality of little girls. ii) the male/female roles are always stereotypes: the man gives status to the family, the woman occupies the area of daily life. This concept will be fading away, but as long as it still exists and as long as the rules of gender equality are not put in place, direct funding will not change the behaviour of poor households. However, development of health infrastructure, the generalization of health insurance and the possibilities of free care

for needy families will be beneficiary to girls to a greater extent, even without modifying general behaviour.

Thus, to develop the status of women in rural areas, it is indispensable that the required conditions to develop the status of women be put in place. This development can be considered a process in phases starting with satisfying the urgent needs (health, education, food) and until the establishment of wellbeing (the fulfilment of potentials, fair responsibility and fair remuneration, security). In most cases, rural and informal areas in the MP countries are in the first phase. At this level, apart from health, Femise believes that the main question is the eradication of illiteracy, because it leads to the independence of women, their capacity to be informed and to take risks. A second aspect is the income earned by women; which was found to be spent in the best interests of the whole family. Thus, independent decisions taken by women and equal treatment in the family are very effective ways to eliminate abnormal phenomena affecting girls in rural areas. When independence of women is not satisfied, infrastructures related to education and health and social and retirement benefits should be generalised.

The informal sector is the second area that needs specific affirmative action. This sector concerns mostly urban areas, where it is rapidly growing owing to the rural exodus, to the openness policies related to adjustments and the actual incapacity of the formal sector to create the jobs needed to meet the growth of the active population. Whatever the definitions, this "sector" that is entirely or partially supported by the activities of a large number of micro and small enterprises employs a significant number of persons and above all, has a great potential for growth. A study prepared by Femise, based on several interviews of a representative population from micro and small enterprises has emphasised the following: i) the proportion of women, who have chosen to initiate independent work for negative reasons (previous badly paid work, poor working conditions) was twice as high as that of men. They mainly started independent work with a modest capital originated from personal contributions (90% of total), and after the age of 40; ii) in the majority of cases they continue to assume their responsibilities towards their families. Also they consider that their new activity have considerably modified their status and that only 64% of them declared that they

were harassed at work (excluding household chores, 82% of men made the same remark); iii) two thirds of women said that with some support with their family responsibilities they would be able to develop their activities; iv) the most important gender inequality was in education and professional training. Thus we can conclude that encouraging women in the informal sector (and notably the heads of enterprises) is a specific action that will have the twofold advantages of serving as an example by modifying stereotypes and supplying the concerned families with resources while making sure that these "formalisation" actions do not hinder an important element of dynamism during these past years.

Recommendations

In terms of recommendations, the FEMISE underlines the necessity of improving the statistical systems and systematize the distribution according to gender. In order to better understand this multi-from problem, we have to have pertinent and reliable information, that is not available today. This information is essential to elaborate efficient strategies aiming at reinforcing the role of women. On the later, FEMISE proposes a list of recommendations that follows three major categories:

✓ in the area of women's access to education and professional training: women should be encouraged to seek literacy. This could be done by mainly informing them and helping them organise their time; ii) the micro-credit tool can be used as an encouragement: by making literacy a condition ; iii) rural and poor areas should be targeted and school curricula should be more adapted to the needs of the labour market; iv) technical education should be promoted and revalued and acquired skills developed; v) the private sector should be fiscally encouraged to invest in technical training; vi) women's access to professional training throughout life should be consolidated; vii) training programmes that are specially designed for women should be prepared and should be subsidized by grants from the public sector.

✓ as regards to women's participation in the labour force it is recommended that i) good quality systems should be put in place that takes care of their children during working hours; ii) to ensure a professional environment that is suited to women in terms of flexible hours, transport systems and

safety in the workplace; iii) with regard to women entrepreneurs, the "5 As" should be ensured (access to funds, access to markets, access to information, access to training and access to political decision-makers) mainly through microcredit (this is particularly aimed at financial institutions) or public funds for the SME; iv) as regards women in the informal sector, their participation should be encouraged by creating clusters and also by specific administrative procedures, financial grants and exemptions and public training programmes; v) there should be greater involvement of the State, mainly to develop women's participation in the manufacturing sector, with a view to ensuring

the implementation of equality laws, to develop women's mentality so that they can contribute in part to public funding "responsive gender", to coordinate the different actors and to spread access to social security for all, including the unemployed.

√ as regards the consolidation of legal, social and political rights i) legal and social obstacles to laws for equal opportunity should be eliminated; ii) higher quotas for women should be fixed in political and legislative institutions and trade unions; iii) the implicit obstacles to women's movements, mainly in their options and with regard to political participation should be eliminated.

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This report discusses the impact of gender inequality on economic development in the MP countries, in light of international experience. It will then propose recommendations to eliminate the most important aspects of this inequality, from this point of view.

In the MP countries, gender inequality issues are characterised by social, cultural, anthropological or political considerations. These considerations have been addressed in important studies and reports (Institut de la Méditerranée 2005, UNDP 2004, World Bank 2004 and 2005), which emphasise the obstacles to the participation of women in the labour force. This labour force was founded on and recognised by the economic non-discrimination principle. The economic sector itself also has very specific characteristics, particularly in the informal sector and the rural world. These characteristics frequently lead to constraints that are difficult to alleviate, even when the legal framework has been modified and the national strategy clearly affirmed. The concrete implementation of the gender policy in MP countries through specific actions is a question that should also be raised.

The first central issue is to develop an explicit participation of women in the labour force

The relation between the participation of women in the generation of wealth and the per capita income in the world

It is now generally acknowledged that the participation of women in the labour force, over a long period, is a factor of economic development. A modern economy can not operate without the talents of half of its population in the working age group. The results achieved by girls in the field of higher education indicate that, in economies based on services and knowledge, women have a central role to play.

The developments that lead to the explicit recognition of the value of women's work have to first address the improvement in women's condition. This involves important social developments (health, education, independence) which modify the fertility rates and lead to a transitional demographic phase. Once this transition is underway, the question of the explicit inclusion of women in the labour

force should be raised which implies that the value of their work will be recognised. Finally, in order to ensure that the explicit participation of women in the labour force is complete and effective in the long term, it is necessary that all gender discrimination (as regards salaries, positions in public office, and social status) be eliminated.

The figure below, based on a study of 148 countries indicates that the probability of a long term relation between the participation rates of women in the labour force and the per capita GDP income is unquestionable in the industrialised countries. On the other hand, it is less evident in the developing countries (in particular the MP countries). This proves that the modification of social and educational conditions in these countries has not yet produced sufficient results.

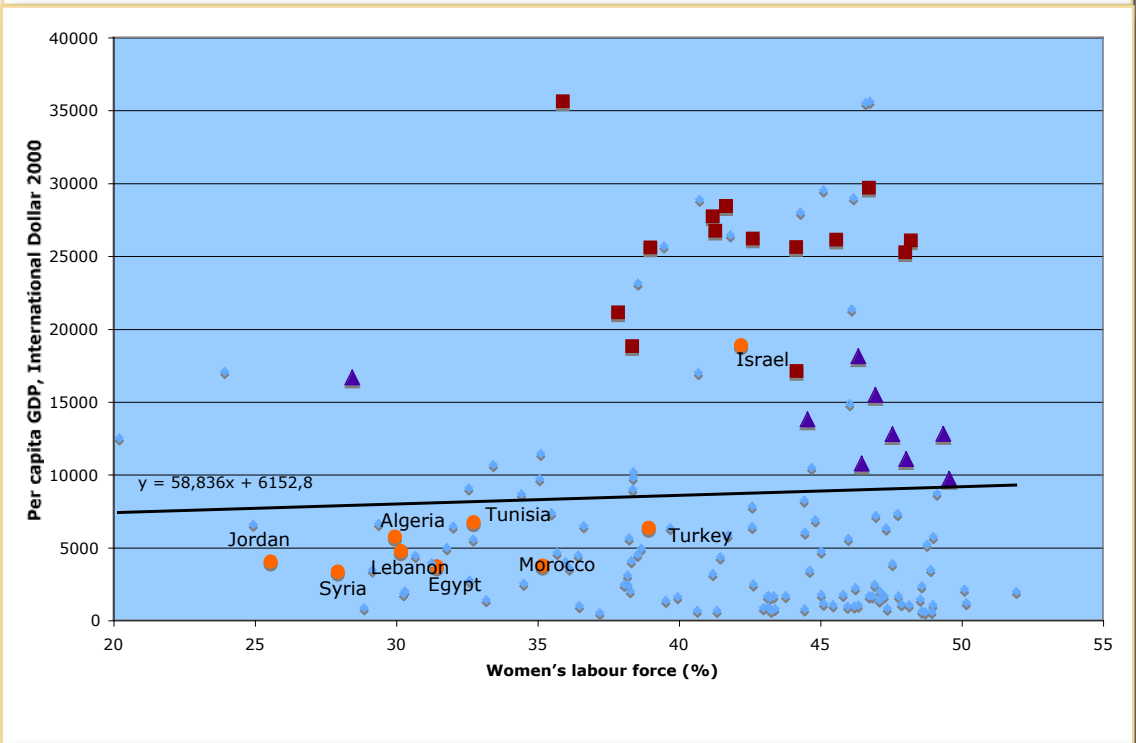
Five Characteristics of the Mediterranean countries

In an international context where several actions are taken place to improve the status of women, it is important to highlight the difference in context between European and Mediterranean countries to promote this dynamic to suit the larger Euro Med Region.

If we consider the situation today, the following facts (cf. annexes) can be emphasised:

First, in the Mediterranean region, we are faced with a paradox that has been clearly emphasised by the World Bank with regard to MENA: while the average conditions of women, with regard to education, fertility development, life expectancy are considerably higher than the average comparable conditions in

Figure 1 : Relation between per capita GDP and rates of women's participation in the labour force in 2003



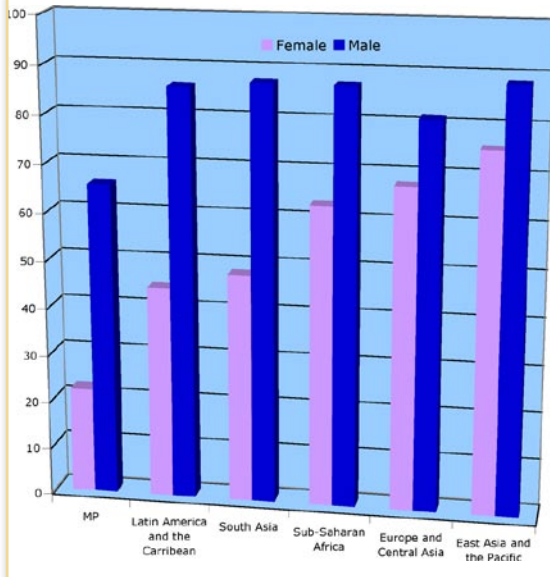
For all the 148 countries in the world, the yellow squares are the EU countries (15) and the violet triangles, the new members.

Source: Calculations of the Institut de la Mediterranee WDI 2005

developing countries, their participation in the labour force is noticeably lower. We note here that within the EU, this paradox also exist in certain members from the Mediterranean but is less

pronounced. This is an anomaly that undoubtedly has important economic and social consequences. To understand the causes of this low participation and to identify the actions that can serve as remedy are, according to Femise, the central elements of all gender policy in the Mediterranean.

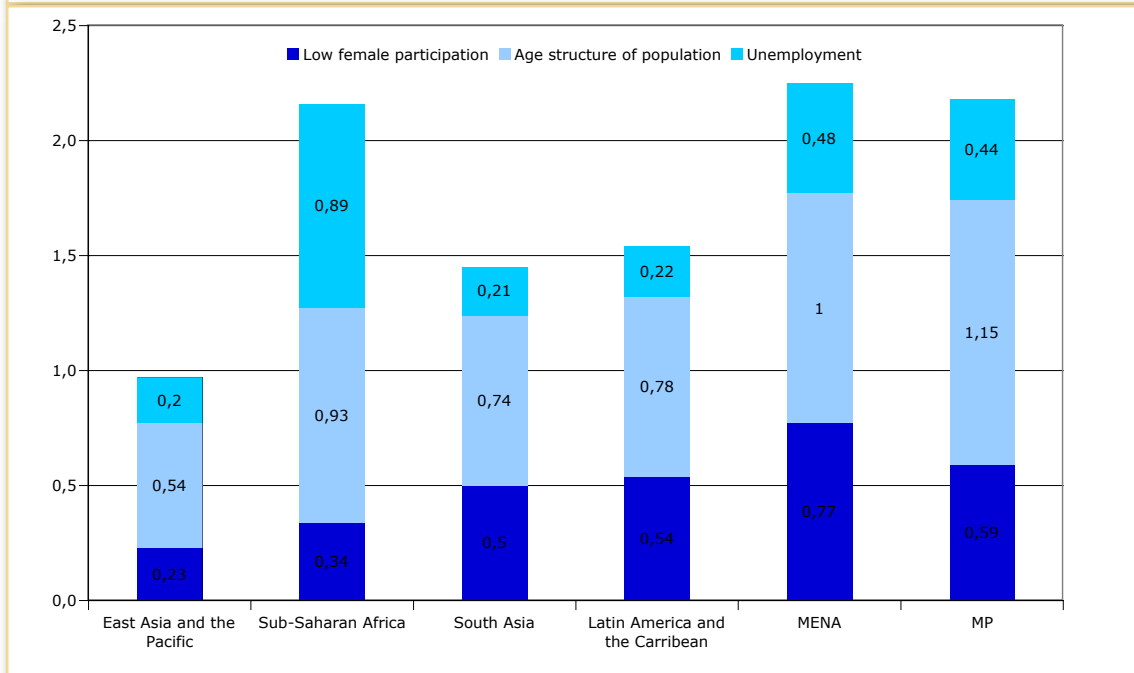
Figure 2 : Participation rates of men - women in geographical zones



Sources: Calculations of the Institut de la Mediterranee for the MP, World Bank, WDI 2005.

Second, the MP are characterised by the burden of the inactive population on the active one (defined here as the relation between, on the one hand, inactive persons, unemployed, too young or too old to work and, on the other, the sector of the population that is employed.) The share of inactive population in the region is considered the highest in the world (this also concerns the EU but for different reasons). This situation makes it imperative to increase the number of effectively working population. The low participation of women, (along with unemployment rates and young popula-

Figure 3 : Impact of unemployment, population structure and low participation of women on workers.



Based on the hypothesis that the rate of women's participation in the Mediterranean countries should reach an average of 50%.

Source: Calculations of the Institut de la Mediterranee WDI 2005

tions), explains a significant part of the high dependency rates. These countries should seize the opportunity to increase the number of active women and mobilise their talents and potential if they wish to increase their wellbeing in a balanced way.

Third, the low participation of women not only has an important economic cost, but also a direct cost on the family. Many simulations made by the World Bank on MENA¹ based on data gathered through household surveys, indicate that, if the participation of women in the labour force corresponded to their age and education, the family income would increase by a quarter, which would mean that many families would join the middle class. At the aggregate level, this development would give a 0.7 gain in the annual GDP growth rate from the beginning of the 1990s (World Bank 2004).

Fourth, this indispensable increase in women's participation in the labour force must take place at a crucial time, when the unemployment rates are high and, when young people are emerging on the labour market. (Femise has estimated that 35 million jobs should be created in the next fifteen years, in order to keep the unemployment rates in the MP countries at their present level.). The situation is very different from that in Europe where the ratio of active persons to pensioners is moving from 4 to 2. This implies an increase in the supply of active persons. This is not the same case in the MP countries where the stock of active population is important. Nevertheless the evaluation of the number of jobs that needs to be created does not consider two important points: (i) the important number of workers in

the agriculture sector, where an important decrease is expected that should be compensated in other promising sectors; (ii) the probable and desired increase in the rate of female employment which means more jobs to be created, in view of the fact that, which will be seen later, that most women work in the agriculture sector. Taking into account the current dynamic that is insufficient to create new jobs, it is fearful that, voluntarily or not, arbitration should be made to maintain the social cohesion between those that occupy these created jobs, an arbitration that is not in favour of female employment. Therefore there is a risk of Malthusian policies being applied to the detriment of women, under the pretext that they would take the place of young men arriving on the job market. We vigorously affirm here, that delaying the implementation of policies, which would encourage women's participation in the labour force, under the pretext that the labour market is relatively stagnant, would postpone for a long time, equal treatment for men and women. This would increase the pressure of obscurantist trends, prevent the MP countries from achieving the millennium goals and would not have insignificant impact on the coherence of the Euro-Mediterranean region.

For instance, the disproportion that we can see in MP countries between the number of girls in higher education and the population (68.2% students as compared to 49.5% population) and their representation in the labour force, (30.8%)² explains the current trends of women's emigration due to unfavourable conditions. This observation has macroeconomic implications, which Femise has previously emphasised namely to modify

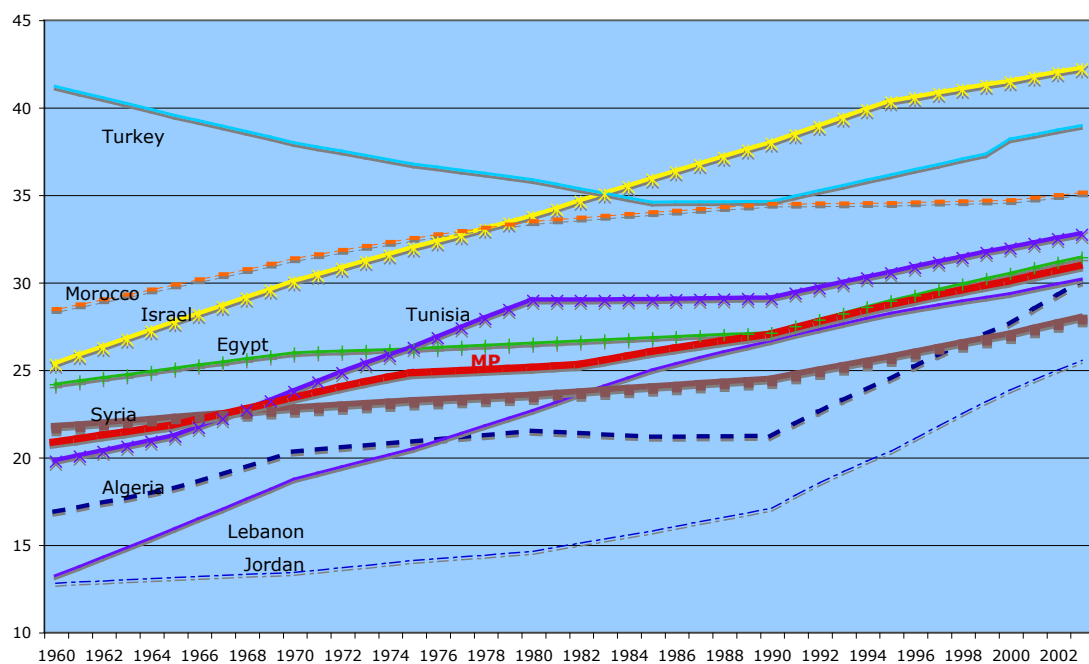
a current low level of economic equilibrium, in view of the potential growth that can be achieved.

Fifth, the MP countries have adopted a new approach to development since the 1980s, that transforms systems, that were mainly dependent on State intervention and a closed approach to foreign trade, into more open systems, based on market mechanisms and efficient macroeconomic management. However, as shown by the experience of countries that had formerly adopted central plans, (Figure 1), the centralised and planned materialist model had produced high rates of women's participation (relative to their wealth), linked to the development of public employment. The impact of the changing economic system that has been absorbed (in the mid 1990s, most MP countries had stabilised their macroeconomic administration and retrieved investment rates comparable to those

of the 1980s, but with the substitution of public investment by private investment) has consequences on women's participation, since they had been employed by public administrations (where gender discrimination is less pronounced).

In this sense, appropriate measures should be taken to ensure that the new development model, oriented towards foreign trade and the private sector, does provide enough opportunity for women employment. To date, this has not been demonstrated naturally. This explains why countries like Turkey, Tunisia and Morocco (Figure 4) witnessed a stabilisation in the rate of women employment and a relative decrease compared to the European movement. In future, it will be necessary to integrate the large informal sector (where women are highly represented) into the formal economy. This may have the same consequences, if suitable specific actions are not taken. Thus, it is clear,

Figure 4 : Development of the Women's Labour Force, 1960-2003



Sources: Calculations of the Institut de la Mediterranee and the World Bank, WDI 2005

that a significant part of the action that should be taken requires focusing on the means to consolidate women's position in the private sector.

A second central question: how to reduce gender discrimination?

Aside from all ethical aspects, the different forms of discrimination against women, have economic effects that accumulates with their low participation in the labour force.

The first group of effects is universal and in the heart of the economic rationale, which stipulates that in all societies, human capital should be used as efficiently as possible, that is according to the abilities of each one. The international experience has demonstrated, particularly in modern activities that increasingly require intelligence rather than strength, the extent to which educated and trained women can contribute to the creation of wealth. The stereotypes which make them choose supposedly feminine jobs: discrimination in salary and hiring, the low quality of the jobs they occupy compared to their capabilities, are factors that prevent the economies under discussion from attaining their potential level of equilibrium. We are clearly faced with an agenda that ranges from the development of regulations, means of orientation in education, incentives, evaluation, control and even coercion.

However, along with this form of discrimination which, in varying degrees, is found in all countries (and particularly European countries), there are more fundamental forms of discrimination that affect the accepted identity

of women in society (and the family), rather than affecting the way in which they live and access to employment.. These forms of discrimination have economic repercussions on the wellbeing of families, poverty in terms of income, security and abilities and even the possibilities of social promotion through education. Rural areas, urban outskirts and the informal sector are particularly concerned.

The need to adopt a more differentiated approach to combat discrimination in heterogeneous societies.

Femise would like to draw attention to a fundamental issue. The fact of distinguishing between the economic impact of gender discrimination, which affects women in the formal labour market on one hand and, on the other, women in the family, in the rural and informal sector, who are the majority, brings up important philosophical and cultural questions.

In the first case, women are considered as individuals, who contribute to production of wealth, and there is no reason for a priori discrimination against them on the labour market. Nor should they be deprived of the environment that will enable them to make good use of their abilities (nurseries, education, maternity benefits, infrastructure etc.).Discrimination against them has consequences on the well being of the whole population and should be eliminated. In this context, women are considered "feminae economica" with all the hypotheses that should be made on their information and rationale. It is clear, as we have indicated before, that the most relevant indicator of results from this

point of view is their effective participation in the labour force. There should be an in-depth consideration of the causes of their low participation and suitable policies should be implemented.

In the second case, which has received much attention in the approach of Arab economists and poverty specialists (UNDP 2004 Duflo and Jameel 2005), the central unit is the family. The questions that arise are, therefore, entirely different. It is important to appreciate the role of women in this fundamental social unit, which is based on a relational rather than an individual system. This involves meeting basic needs, independent decision-making, forms of reactions to external events, children's security issues and the ability to predict and adapt to ensure protection against risks. All the studies that have been conducted on the basis of localised spaces and household surveys reveal that, in many cases, family behaviour is not rational in terms of the modern economy, but they are perfectly rational in the context of the concrete living conditions of the family (curve of atypical work supply beneath a certain line, the supply of work increases when the income decreases cf. Dessing 2004; non-functioning of risk insurance systems cf. Duflo 2003, and no inter-temporal investment strategy etc.).

These observations lead us to certain conclusions:

√ First, the development of gender equality policies that are exclusively geared to the convergence of situations vis-a-vis the labour market, will ignore an important part of the problem that has been raised and could even have contradictory results.

√ Second, the effective changes in legislation aim at ensuring equality in both theory and in practise. In the MP countries changes in legislation (especially the Family Codes) have few noticeable or concrete effects, for instance in the jurisprudence of courts. They are therefore, unsuitable and lack credibility.

To ensure that changes in legislation, aiming at making the citizenship of women less contingent on family relations, are leading to practical tangible modifications, the following conditions are necessary:

√ They should be perceived as significant contributions to concrete problems, particularly in poor environments, and not just as the transfer of a cultural model.

√ They should be accompanied by intensive social policies aimed at improving the living conditions of families in these environments.

√ They should be taken up by the women themselves, which is more likely, if they are informed and they see in them a contribution to the well being of the family and not only a step to their individual freedom as citizens.

Gender discriminations in the economy that are reduced at a slow pace

It is within the economic and technological sphere that the current developments are taking place. This is true in the European society as well as the Mediterranean one. The globalisation

increased the capacity of the economy and the technology that was accompanied by a general emancipation(but very different in terms of their) of the civil societies, including their non-economic aspect, family, individual freedom, etc..

Gender discrimination in the formal economy is in the centre of development. Hence, the rate at which it is reduced is an important indicator of how the societies are adapting to the global world.

These gender discriminations addresses the issue of the capacity of women to participate explicitly (i.e. in the formal sector) in the labor force. This also includes the conditions in which they work after their entry.

1- The primordial elements of women participation in the labor force

Two elements are in the centre of the discrimination against women in the labor force. These are from one side, the development in the fertility rate, and from another, the average education level of women (annex 1).

An analysis that relates to the MP and that links the women participation rate, fertility rate and education has been performed using an econometric model. As expected, fertility rate was found to have a negative impact: a decrease in this rate increases the rate of participation, if all other variables are fixed. The schooling rate in secondary level (taken with a 5 years lag) has a weaker positive effect but very significant. It is clear that the reduction in the fertility rate can explain from 30 to 37% of the increase in the participation rate between 1980 and 2000. The increase in schooling rate in the secondary level explains a smaller part of 11 to 15%. The evolution by female age structure contributes with a total of 30 to 33% with effects that are almost unique in the intermediate level. It is important to precise that this analysis is confirmed by other results obtained in the World Bank report on the status of women (2004) that covers hundreds of countries. These two elements (fertility and level of education) when manifested quantitatively, place the MP on average to a satisfactory level compared to other comparable developing countries.

Table 1 : Fertility rate (number of children by Women)

| | 1972 | 1982 | 2002 | 2003 |
|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Algeria | 7,4 | 6,4 | 2,8 | 2,7 |
| Egypt | 5,5 | 5,1 | 3,2 | 3,1 |
| Israel | 3,8 | 3,1 | 2,7 | .. |
| Jordan | .. | 6,5 | 3,5 | 3,5 |
| Lebanon | 4,9 | 3,8 | 2,2 | 2,2 |
| Morocco | 6,9 | 5,1 | 2,8 | 2,7 |
| Syria | 7,7 | 7,4 | 3,4 | 3,4 |
| Tunisia | 6,2 | 4,9 | 2,0 | 2,0 |
| Turkey | 5,0 | 4,1 | 2,5 | 2,4 |
| Palestinian Authority | .. | .. | 4,9 | 4,9 |

Source : World Bank, WDI 2005.

If we consider, initially, the fertility rate³, which is statistically considered the most significant variable affecting the participation of women, we can see that the development has been marked since 20 years ago.

However, important disparities exist between countries, Tunisia is considered well developed on this front since this country is at the level of the population renewal. Whereas Libya, Syria and the Palestinian authority and Jordan still have high fertility rates. The decrease in the fertility rate has cultural reasons (in Tunisia the average age of marriage of females has increased in two decades from 20 to 27) and is the main factor of the demographic transition within the MP countries.

Additionally, since these countries have implemented policies for development for wage females including allocations of maternity leaves, having children is no longer an obstacle to the work of women in the MP.

Secondly, in terms of education, second reason identified worldwide as in favour of female employment, the MP have marked significant quantitative progress. The region has become the highest in the developing countries to allocate budge-

tary resources to education (around 6.5% of GDP). Moreover, in all levels, female schooling has made considerable progress. The gap with the EU is still wide but is more concerned with the qualitative rather than the quantitative aspects.

√ In the primary level, the gross rate of school enrolment reached 102% for the females and 107.7% for males. These figures are reduced when the net rates are considered (due to the drop outs) to 91.6% for females and 94.3% for males. Morocco and Turkey are still behind in terms of primary school enrolment accounting for 85% for females with a gender differential reaching 6 points.

√ In the secondary level, the gross rate of school enrolment of females is 72.6% while the net is 65% (vs 90% in Europe). However large disparities exist where Morocco and Syria have enrolment rates in the secondary level that are lower than half of the MP average (In Jordan and in Egypt the net school enrolment in the secondary level is higher reached 85%). In Europe, net school enrolment in the secondary level is less than 90%. Whereas in the gender disparity, it represents about 10 points in the MP in favour of males.

Table 2 : Repartition of graduate women among broad field of education in tertiary education for some MP

| | Palestinian authority | Israel | Lebanon | Morocco | Turkey |
|---|------------------------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| In Education | 24,1 | 14,5 | 5,1 | 1,0 | 19,1 |
| In humanities and arts | 16,3 | 9,4 | 21,0 | 34,1 | 6,8 |
| In social sciences, business and law | 27,7 | 25,5 | 44,1 | 15,8 | 26,0 |
| In health and welfare | 11,5 | 3,7 | 13,2 | 5,0 | 8,3 |
| In engineering, manuf. and construction | 5,8 | 2,7 | 5,0 | 2,8 | 8,6 |
| In science | 13,9 | 5,4 | 8,3 | 11,2 | 7,5 |
| In agriculture | 0,3 | 0,5 | 0,6 | .. | 3,9 |
| Others | 0,4 | 38,3 | 2,7 | 30,1 | 19,8 |

Source : calculations of the Institut de la Méditerranée, UNESCO, Institute for Statistics

√ In higher education, females represent 33% of the age class and they are as well represented as men (but they are half those of Europe in the same age category 63%). It is clear that the obstacle is in the secondary education. Once reached the higher education, females remain there more than males. The majority of them are holding diplomas in arts, human sciences, and judicial sciences which naturally lead them to take jobs in the administration and the services.

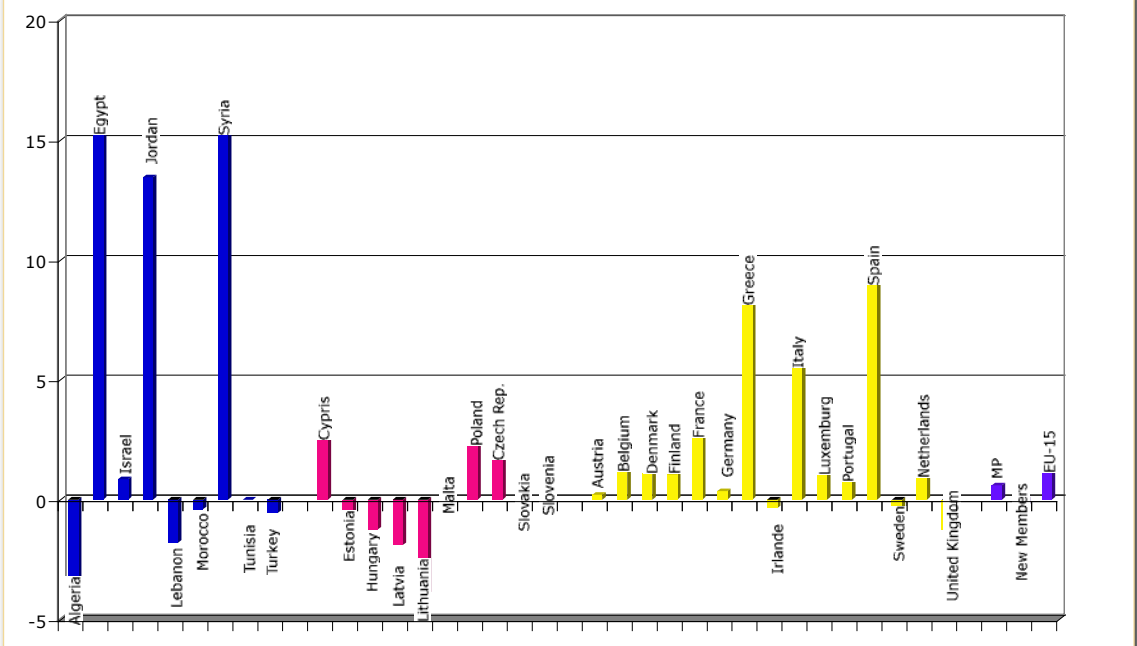
√ The indicators of the effectiveness of the education system converge to indicate that the considerable budgetary effort towards education is not at the level of expected results. The rates of repeaters in the primary education are still about 7% with an average gap of 6 points compared to the UE (they are particularly significant in Algeria and in Morocco). These rates are less for females than those of males. The

rate of completion of education at the primary level is 86% for females and males. Also, 80% of females and males reach the end of the primary education, which represents a variation of 14 points with the UE where it is close to 100%.

2- Discriminations in terms of access to employment and in the position of work that is still considerable

The development on the fertility issue and the considerable efforts achieved in education by the MP should have been translated into a larger and more equal participation of female in the labor force. As explained, it is a paradox that international experts are trying to understand. Cultural reasons, the legal status of women, the way in which they adapt to their new status as implemented by the PM (in particular new family codes), are obviously the determining elements. On the strictly

Figure 5 : Difference between women and men unemployment rates based on the median rate 1999-2003



Sources : calculations of Institut de la Méditerranée, World Bank, WDI 2005.

economic level that is considered in this report, two points play important role: the first relates to discriminations at work which weaken their effective status in the society and the family and do not encourage them to seeking professional inclusion. The second is the structure of the proposed jobs which is the reflection of a type of growth more or less favourable to the employment of women and way in which the women interpret it.

If we consider, initially, female participation in terms of age groups, as per the rate of unemployment and the rate of participation (table 3 and 4), we see, that between the MP countries, the gap in the unemployment rate male-female is relatively narrow in Algeria, Israel, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey. On the other hand we observe a wider gap in the mashrek countries (Egypt, Jordan and Syria). It is advisable nevertheless to consider this proximity relatively, while taking into consideration that the EU employment gender gap is of 1.3 points (the average rate of unemployment among men is 5.8% whereas for women it is account for 8%, figure 5).

However, if in Turkey likewise in Israel the decomposition of age does not show important disparity male-female in terms of unemployment, this is not true for Morocco and Algeria where females between 20

and 30 years are particularly affected and more than men (1,5 time more).

This vulnerability of the age group of 20-30 is also pronounced in Egypt and Syria where the unemployment rates are

Table 3 : Unemployment rates of Men and Women according to age

| | Algeria (2004) | | | | Egypt (2002) | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | |
| Total | 20,1 | 19,8 | 21,3 | 1,5 | Total | 10,0 | 6,2 | 23,8 | 17,6 |
| 15-19 | 49,9 | 52,8 | 33,7 | -19,0 | 15-19 | 25,7 | 19,3 | 41,4 | 22,1 |
| 20-24 | 40,7 | 38,7 | 51,3 | 12,6 | 20-24 | 27,9 | 22,5 | 39,4 | 16,9 |
| 25-29 | 32,7 | 30,2 | 44,5 | 14,3 | 25-29 | 23,8 | 15,1 | 45,8 | 30,7 |
| 30-34 | 16,7 | 17,0 | 15,3 | -1,7 | 30-39 | 5,0 | 1,7 | 16,0 | 14,3 |
| 35-39 | 9,4 | 10,1 | 6,9 | -3,2 | 40-49 | 0,2 | 0,2 | 0,4 | 0,2 |
| 40-44 | 6,4 | 7,2 | 2,8 | -4,4 | 50-59 | 0,1 | 0,1 | 0,5 | 0,4 |
| 45-49 | 5,7 | 6,1 | 3,4 | -2,8 | 60+ | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 50-54 | 4,3 | 4,4 | 3,2 | -1,3 | | | | | |
| 55+ | 2,0 | 2,2 | 0,4 | -1,8 | | | | | |
| | Israel (2003) | | | | Jordan (2004) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | |
| Total | 10,7 | 10,2 | 11,3 | 1,1 | Total | 12,5 | 11,8 | 16,5 | 4,7 |
| 15-17 | 31,2 | 28,6 | 35,2 | 6,7 | 15-19 | 31,6 | 31,9 | 23,3 | -8,6 |
| 18-24 | 21,3 | 21,3 | 21,3 | -0,0 | 20-24 | 24,1 | 22,2 | 33,2 | 11,0 |
| 25-34 | 10,9 | 10,4 | 11,5 | 1,1 | 25-39 | 9,6 | 8,9 | 13,2 | 4,3 |
| 35-44 | 8,8 | 7,9 | 9,8 | 1,9 | 40-54 | 4,1 | 4,4 | 1,6 | -2,8 |
| 45-54 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 0,0 | 55-64 | 3,1 | 2,9 | 7,7 | 4,8 |
| 55-59 | 6,7 | 7,3 | 5,9 | -1,5 | 65+ | 0,9 | 0,9 | 0,0 | -0,9 |
| 60-64 | 6,7 | 7,6 | 5,3 | -2,3 | | | | | |
| 65-69 | 4,0 | 4,1 | 3,8 | -0,3 | | | | | |
| 70+ | 2,6 | 2,7 | 2,4 | -0,4 | | | | | |
| | Morocco (2003) | | | | Tunisia (2001) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | |
| Total | 11,9 | 11,5 | 13,0 | 1,4 | Total | 15,3 | 15,1 | 15,9 | 0,8 |
| 15-24 | 17,0 | 17,4 | 15,9 | -1,5 | 15-19 | 34,1 | 37,4 | 27,0 | -10,4 |
| 25-34 | 18,2 | 16,8 | 22,0 | 5,2 | 20-29 | 25,3 | 26,2 | 23,4 | -2,8 |
| 35-44 | 7,2 | 6,9 | 7,8 | 0,9 | 30-39 | 10,4 | 10,5 | 10,1 | -0,4 |
| 45-59 | 3,2 | 3,7 | 1,8 | -1,9 | 40-49 | 6,2 | 6,3 | 5,4 | -0,9 |
| 60+ | 0,7 | 0,8 | 0,4 | -0,3 | 50+ | 5,8 | 5,8 | 5,8 | 0,0 |
| | Syria (2002) | | | | Turkey (2004) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | |
| Total (15+) | 11,7 | 8,3 | 24,1 | 15,8 | Total | 10,3 | 10,5 | 9,7 | -0,8 |
| 15-19 | 27,8 | 22,7 | 40,0 | 17,3 | 15-19 | 16,7 | 17,6 | 14,9 | -2,7 |
| 20-24 | 24,9 | 20,3 | 37,8 | 17,5 | 20-24 | 21,3 | 21,5 | 21,1 | -0,4 |
| 25-39 | 6,3 | 3,6 | 15,9 | 12,4 | 25-29 | 13,4 | 13,4 | 13,5 | 0,1 |
| 40-59 | 0,9 | 0,6 | 3,0 | 2,4 | 30-34 | 9,0 | 9,1 | 8,8 | -0,3 |
| 60-64 | 1,6 | 1,5 | 3,4 | 1,9 | 35-39 | 7,3 | 7,7 | 6,1 | -1,6 |
| 65+ | 1,3 | 1,3 | 1,4 | 0,1 | 40-44 | 6,3 | 6,8 | 4,7 | -2,1 |
| | | | | | 45-49 | 5,8 | 6,8 | 2,5 | -4,4 |
| | | | | | 50-54 | 5,7 | 6,8 | 2,3 | -4,5 |
| | | | | | 55-59 | 3,4 | 4,6 | 0,4 | -4,2 |
| | | | | | 60-64 | 2,4 | 3,2 | 0,6 | -2,6 |
| | | | | | 65+ | 0,9 | 1,2 | 0,0 | -1,2 |

Sources : Algeria : Laborsta, ILO website, unemployment: persons aged 15 and more, September of each year ; Egypt: Laborsta, ILO website, active population: egyptian population only, except. armed forces, unemployment: May and November of each year, Israel: Laborsta, ILO Website, active population, excl. conscripts; Jordan: Jordanian population census, INS ; Morocco : Laborsta, ILO Website ; Syria : Laborsta, ILO Website, active population, except. armed forces; Tunisia: Employment surveys, INS ; Turkey : Laborsta, ILO Website.

Sources : calculations Institut de la Méditerranée, ILO, Laborsta database, April 2006

double for female that those of males. This is also true in Jordan. Females that have children or those in the age group of possibly having children commit a negative discrimination in the labour

market. The lack of suitable infrastructure and the legislative laws are certainly determinant factors in this issue. This is well confirmed by the rates of participation according to age and gender.

In the context where, as mentioned, these rates are considered particularly low, we notice that the gap between males and females in general is in the age group 25-40 year. Whereas, the rate of female participation are at the highest level in the age category younger than 25 years. The difficulty of re-interring the labour market after the long absence and the maternity leaves should be added to the discrimination on the labour market.

Unemployment that affect more seriously women between 20-25 in these countries, and the participation that is less than that of men, are explained by the pressure of female job seekers in the same age group. That indicates problems:

✓ of valorisation of knowledge on the labour market that is tougher on women who undertake studies that is relatively longer but more theoretical and less flexible.

✓ of discrimination against women due to maternity and marriage, problems of infrastructure in the broad sense, i.e. from nurseries for children to transport facilities, passing by the imposed legislative limits on the freedom of choice

Table 4: Participation rates of men and women according to age

| Algeria (1996) | | | | | Egypt (2002) | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap |
| Total | 27,4 | 47,0 | 7,2 | -39,8 | Total | 29,4 | 46,5 | 12,6 | -33,9 |
| Total (15+) | 44,9 | 77,5 | 11,8 | -65,7 | Total (15+) | 43,2 | 68,7 | 18,4 | -50,3 |
| 0-9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 0-14 | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 10-14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15-19 | 17,2 | 23,5 | 10,3 | -13,2 |
| 15-19 | 30,9 | 50,5 | 10,4 | -40,1 | 20-24 | 49,4 | 61,6 | 34,6 | -27,0 |
| 20-24 | 52,1 | 81,9 | 21,0 | -60,9 | 25-29 | 59,1 | 95,3 | 30,1 | -65,2 |
| 25-29 | 56,3 | 93,2 | 18,7 | -74,5 | 30-39 | 55,7 | 99,0 | 22,6 | -76,4 |
| 30-34 | 54,4 | 96,9 | 11,0 | -85,9 | 40-49 | 57,4 | 99,1 | 19,5 | -79,6 |
| 35-39 | 52,5 | 96,5 | 6,5 | -90,0 | 50-59 | 51,0 | 98,3 | 10,3 | -88,0 |
| 40-44 | 54,9 | 96,9 | 10,3 | -86,6 | 60-64 | 19,1 | 33,7 | 2,1 | -31,6 |
| 45-49 | 52,0 | 95,2 | 8,3 | -86,9 | 65+ | 10,8 | 16,3 | 1,4 | -14,9 |
| 50-54 | 49,6 | 91,0 | 10,3 | -80,7 | | | | | |
| 55-59 | 42,4 | 80,0 | 7,6 | -72,4 | | | | | |
| 60+ | 12,7 | 24,5 | 1,7 | -22,8 | | | | | |
| Israel (2003) | | | | | Jordan (2004) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap |
| Total (15+) | 54,5 | 60,1 | 49,1 | -11,0 | Total | 37,4 | 63,7 | 10,4 | -53,3 |
| 15-17 | 9,2 | 10,9 | 7,4 | -3,5 | 15-19 | 12,9 | 23,7 | 1,0 | -22,7 |
| 18-24 | 41,2 | 37,4 | 45,1 | 7,7 | 20-24 | 44,1 | 67,9 | 16,3 | -51,6 |
| 25-34 | 75,7 | 81,4 | 69,8 | -11,6 | 25-39 | 54,7 | 93,4 | 17,6 | -75,8 |
| 35-44 | 77,3 | 84,8 | 70,0 | -14,8 | 40-54 | 43,7 | 81,3 | 8,8 | -72,5 |
| 45-54 | 76,8 | 84,1 | 69,9 | -14,2 | 55-64 | 22,4 | 43,5 | 1,4 | -42,1 |
| 55-59 | 63,8 | 74,0 | 54,4 | -19,6 | 65+ | 7,6 | 13,9 | 0,3 | -13,6 |
| 60-64 | 40,2 | 54,2 | 28,0 | -26,2 | | | | | |
| 65-69 | 17,7 | 27,2 | 9,8 | -17,4 | | | | | |
| 70+ | 5,8 | 9,5 | 3,1 | -6,4 | | | | | |
| Morocco (2003) | | | | | Tunisia (2001) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap |
| Total | 37,4 | 54,7 | 20,2 | -34,5 | Total (15+) | 50,9 | 76,0 | 25,8 | -50,2 |
| Total (15+) | 51,9 | 77,4 | 27,3 | -50,1 | 0-9 | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 0-14 | 3,8 | 4,2 | 3,3 | -0,9 | 10-14 | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 15-24 | 43,1 | 62,0 | 23,8 | -38,2 | 15-19 | 23,9 | 31,8 | 15,6 | -16,2 |
| 25-34 | 63,8 | 93,9 | 34,7 | -59,2 | 20-29 | 55,4 | 75,2 | 35,4 | -39,8 |
| 35-44 | 61,9 | 95,6 | 31,1 | -64,5 | 30-39 | 63,3 | 97,0 | 31,1 | -65,9 |
| 45-59 | 57,7 | 88,7 | 29,2 | -59,5 | 40-49 | 60,2 | 96,6 | 23,1 | -73,5 |
| 60+ | 26,1 | 41,2 | 10,9 | -30,3 | 50-59 | 48,8 | 84,0 | 14,9 | -69,1 |
| | | | | | 60-64 | 28,6 | 50,0 | 8,2 | -41,8 |
| Syria (2003) | | | | | Turkey (2004) | | | | |
| | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap | | Total | Men | Women | Women-Men Gap |
| Total | 29,3 | 46,2 | 11,6 | -34,6 | Total | 48,7 | 72,3 | 25,4 | -46,9 |
| Total (15+) | 47,5 | 75,3 | 18,7 | -56,6 | Total (15+) | 48,7 | 72,3 | 25,4 | -46,9 |
| 0-9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15-19 | 27,6 | 35,7 | 19,0 | -16,7 |
| 10-14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 20-24 | 51,5 | 73,6 | 32,7 | -40,9 |
| 15-19 | 30,2 | 45,2 | 13,4 | -31,8 | 25-29 | 62,3 | 92,4 | 31,2 | -61,2 |
| 20-24 | 54,9 | 80,8 | 26,3 | -54,5 | 30-34 | 62,6 | 94,9 | 29,3 | -65,6 |
| 25-29 | 56,9 | 94,6 | 24,0 | -70,6 | 35-39 | 63,3 | 95,5 | 30,8 | -64,7 |
| 30-39 | 58,7 | 97,5 | 23,5 | -74,0 | 40-44 | 60,9 | 93,0 | 28,2 | -64,8 |
| 40-44 | 58,5 | 95,9 | 20,8 | -75,1 | 45-49 | 54,0 | 81,4 | 25,5 | -55,9 |
| 45-49 | 56,6 | 97,5 | 15,2 | -82,3 | 50-54 | 44,1 | 65,3 | 22,3 | -43,0 |
| 50-54 | 55,1 | 95,7 | 14,2 | -81,5 | 55-59 | 37,4 | 53,9 | 21,3 | -32,6 |
| 55-59 | 33,1 | 55,4 | 10,1 | -45,3 | 60-64 | 30,1 | 43,0 | 17,9 | -25,1 |
| 60-64 | 30,9 | 52,3 | 6,9 | -45,4 | 65+ | 16,6 | 26,1 | 8,8 | -17,3 |
| 65+ | 24,1 | 37,4 | 4,3 | -33,1 | | | | | |

Sources : calculations of Institut de la Méditerranée, ILO, Laborsta database, April 2006, Cf. note table 3

of women, and also the possibility to make a choice.

- √ of lack of harmonized statistics that would allow deeper analysis. It would be interesting to study if the apparent equality between males and females in the unemployment rates in the age group above 35 years and the stabilization of the gap in the participation are the results of exit of women from the labor force or a trend of valorisation of their experience and more opportunities to undertake an activity. The two factors play an evident role, but it is important to know in what proportion and what are the elements of choice.

The discriminations in the labour market exist in other fields other than the access to the market, with important consequences on the family within the context of MP:

- √ Discriminations related to wage that are more significant in the private sector than the public one. These could be caused by the differences in the level of productivity (due to difference in the level of qualifications) or because of a certain kind of discrimination. A study conducted by the World Bank (World Bank, 2004) on the region estimate that when a man earns 1\$, female earns 73 cents on average, which gives a difference of 27 cents. This difference could be explained by the difference in the qualification and hence productivity (which could justify the case), or by a discrimination related to gender. In the case of MENA countries, the study estimates that if there were no wage discrimination and not discrimination

in the working stations offered to the women with equal competences (level of studies and seniority), the part that is imputable to discrimination from the 27 cents would be 117%. On 1\$, women lose 31 cents. Reciprocally, and considering the initial gap between males and females, this results show that a suppression of the existent discrimination could increase women wages by 32%.

- √ Finally, discriminations relate to the nature of work or posts offered to women which are generally executive jobs, whereas men are represented better in the posts of conception nature. At the national level, this remark exists in a more pronounced way in political and decision making jobs, which is a characteristic shared by all MP countries as well as Europeans. However, to this regard, the weakness of the statistical systems in terms of gender decomposition does not permit an easy deeper analysis of the phenomena.

If we consider, secondly, the nature of occupied employment, one has the result of a cross glance: that of the economy towards the competences of women and that of women towards the jobs that they could occupy. One could show that this latter is related to the idea they develop for their career based on what they have occupied in the past. It is this representation that makes them apply a probability concerning certain jobs in certain sectors not in others. This has created a kind of hysteresis that could play an important role in the female employment structure in the long term. This phenomenon which was observed in the industrialized countries probably

plays an even more acuity role in the MP (Breen and Carica-Penalosa, 2002). This leads to the fact that even if the preferences of women converge towards those of men, their carrier choices would be different.

Several observations emanate from the analysis of the jobs occupied by women in Europe and the MP countries:

✓ Employment of women in Europe, as well as in the MP, is more pronounced in the education, health services and personnel services. Consequently, it is not likely that the economic development in the MP would significantly modifies the rate of activity of women by an increase in their employment in industry as technicians or engineers (this does not obviously mean that one should not encourage women to undertake these jobs). Several partial indications are going to the same direction. In Tunisia for example, a

plan for training of data processing specialists was launched, to which young females have adhered to and it only takes two years on average to find an employment. Moreover, it is important to note that 60% of primary teachers are women (40% of the total employment in education) in the MP. This figure, although significant but, is still below the average of the EU, where 69% of the employment in education is occupied by women.

✓ This results that if we want to obtain significant results, we have to admit that the primordial reason that explains the differences in the rate of activity of women between the EU and the MP is strongly linked to the size and dynamic of the sectors considered. In the European countries, these sectors are largely supported in a way or the other by public resources and the average wealth (specially for the private household employment).

Table 5 : Share of different sectors in women employment (2002-2004)

| | Algeria 2004 | Egypt 2003 | Israel 2003 | Morocco 2003 | Syria 2002 | Turkey 2004 | EU25* 2003 | EU15** 2003 |
|---|-----------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry | 21,8% | 39,0% | 0,8% | 56,8% | 58,1% | 57,2% | 4,2% | 3,1% |
| Fishing | 0,5% | 0,1% | | | | 0,0% | 0,0% | 0,0% |
| Mining and Quarrying | 0,7% | 0,1% | 9,7% | 0,1% | | 0,0% | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Manufacturing | 26,4% | 4,8% | | 18,2% | 5,8% | 13,5% | 13,3% | 12,3% |
| Electricity, Gas and Water Supply | 0,3% | 0,6% | 0,3% | 0,1% | | 0,1% | 0,4% | 0,3% |
| Construction | 0,8% | 0,8% | 1,0% | 0,3% | 1,0% | 0,4% | 1,5% | 1,5% |
| Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repairs etc. | 3,3% | 6,3% | 12,0% | 3,8% | 2,5% | 7,2% | 16,3% | 16,2% |
| Hotels and Restaurants | 0,8% | 0,4% | 3,7% | 1,2% | | 1,6% | 4,9% | 5,2% |
| Transport, Storage and Communications | 1,2% | 1,5% | 4,0% | 0,9% | 0,7% | 1,1% | 3,7% | 3,6% |
| Financial Intermediation | 1,7% | 1,4% | 4,3% | | 1,0% | 1,5% | 3,6% | 3,7% |
| Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities | 1,2% | 1,4% | 11,9% | 1,7% | | 2,3% | 8,8% | 9,5% |
| Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security | 8,4% | 12,8% | 5,4% | 3,5% | 31,0% | 2,2% | 7,4% | 7,5% |
| Education | 19,3% | 22,5% | 20,7% | 13,4% | | 5,3% | 11,3% | 10,9% |
| Health and Social Work | 7,4% | 7,3% | 17,3% | | | 4,0% | 16,4% | 17,4% |
| Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities | 4,9% | 0,9% | 5,6% | | | 1,5% | 5,5% | 5,7% |
| Private Households with Employed Persons | 1,2% | 0,2% | 2,9% | | | 2,1% | 2,1% | 2,4% |
| Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies | 0,1% | | 0,1% | | | 0,0% | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Not classifiable by economic activity | | 0,0% | 0,5% | 0,1% | | | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Total | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 99,5% | 99,6% |

Source : ILO, Laborsta Database (February 2006) ; note see table 6

Consequently, it is not very doubtful that the increase in the rate of activity of women in the MP will depend at the same time on the collective functions that could be implemented by

the community (here we remind that in the EU, the state budgets and the whole public sector represent on average 48% of the GDP- source OECD 2005- as opposed to 27% in the MP-

Table 6 : Sectoral breakdown of women employment (2002-2004)

| | Répartition de l'emploi féminin entre les secteurs : les secteurs les plus concernés | Part des femmes dans l'emploi du secteur |
|--------------|---|--|
| | (% of the sector in total of Women employment) *[entre crochet share of the sector in the total employment Men & Women] | (% of Women employment in the total of the sector) des emplois féminins dans le total du secteur) *[entre crochet share of the sector in the total employment Men & Women] |
| Algeria 2004 | Manufacturing 26% [11%] Agriculture 22% [20%] Education 19% [8%] | Private Households with Employed Persons 45% [<1%] Education 43% [8%] Manufacturing 42% [11%] Average 17% |
| Egypt 2003 | Agriculture 39% [29%] Education 22% [11%] Public Administration and Defence 13% [11%] | Health and Social Work 46% [3%] Education 40% [11%] Agriculture 26% [29%] Average 19% |
| Israel 2003 | Education 21% [12%] Health and Social Work 17% [10%] Trade 12% [13%] | Private Households with Employed Persons 88% [2%] Education & Health and Social Work 76% [12% & 11%] Financial Intermediation 59% [3%] Average 46% |
| Morocco 2003 | Agriculture 57% [44%] Manufacturing 18% [12%] Education & Health and Social Work 13% [11%] | Manufacturing 39% [12%] Agriculture & Financial Intermediation 34% [30% & 1%] Education & Health and Social Work 43% [11%] Average 26% |
| Syria 2002 | Manufacturing 58% [14%] Non merchand Services 31% [21%] | Public Administration & other non merchand services 27% [21%] Financial Intermediation 14% [1%] Average 18% |
| Turkey 2004 | Agriculture 57% [34%] Manufacturing 14% [17%] Trade 7% [15%] | Private Households with Employed Persons 66% [<1%] Health and Social Work 50% [2%] Agriculture 45% [34%] Average 27% |
| EU25* 2003 | Health and Social Work 16% [9%] Trade 16% [15%] Manufacturing 13% [19%] | Private Households with Employed Persons 85% [1%] Health and Social Work 77% [9%] Education 70% [7%] Average 44% |
| EU15** 2003 | Health and Social Work 17% [10%] Trade 16% [15%] Manufacturing 12% [19%] | Private Households with Employed Persons 85% [1%] Health and Social Work 76% [10%] Education 69% [7%] Average 43% |

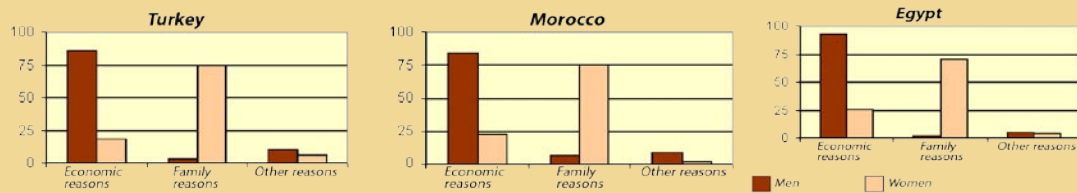
Source : ILO, Laborsta Database (February 2006)

Notes: Algeria : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 years and over, Sep. of each year ; Egypt : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 to 64 years, civilian labour force employed, January, April, July and October ; Israel : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 years and over, civilian labour force employed., agriculture et fishing grouped -A & B of Isic rev. 3- and Mining and Quarrying & Manufacturing grouped -C & D of Isic rev. 3- ; Morocco : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 years and over, agriculture et fishing grouped -A & B of Isic rev. 3-, Financial Intermediation & Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities grouped -J & K of Isic rev. 3-, Education - Health and Social Work - Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities - Private Households with Employed Persons & Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies grouped -M to Q de Isic rev. 3- ; Syria : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 years and over,, using ISIC rev 2, Mining and Quarrying, Manufacturing & Electricity-gas-water grouped - 2 to 4 of Isic rev. 2- ; Turkey : Labour force survey, Total employment, Persons aged 15 years and over, civilian labour force employed ; EU 15 & EU25 : * & ** except Cyprus and Netherlands, Labour force surveys, Total employment, Austria: Persons aged 15 years and over, excl. conscripts. ; Belgium : Persons aged 15 years and over, incl. professional army; excl. compulsory military service ; Tchèque : Persons aged 15 years and over, agriculture et fishing grouped -A & B of Isic rev. 3- ; Denmark : Persons aged 15 to 66 years ; Estonia : Persons aged 15 to 74 years , no data for P: Private Households with Employed Persons ; Finland : Persons aged 15 to 74 years ; France : Persons aged 15 years and over, January ; Germany : Persons aged 15 years and over, May ; Greece : Persons aged 15 years and over, incl. professional army; excl. compulsory military service, 3Second quarter of each year ; Hungary : Persons aged 15 to 74 years, excl. conscripts. ; Ireland : Persons aged 15 years and over, March-May of each year ; Italy : Persons aged 15 years and over, incl. conscripts, incl. permanent members of institutional households ; Latvia : Persons aged 15 to 74 years, excl. compulsory military service, no data for P : Private Households with Employed Persons; Lithuania : Persons aged 15 years and over ; Luxembourg : Official estimates, incl. the armed forces, agriculture et fishing grouped -A & B of Isic rev. 3- ; Malta : Persons aged 15 years and over ; Poland : Persons aged 15 years and over, Excl. regular military living in barracks and conscripts; Portugal : Persons aged 15 years and over, data for B: fishing and C: Mining and Quarrying are considered by ILO as not reliable; coefficient of variation greater than 20% ; Slovakia : Persons aged 15 years and over, excl. conscripts, Excl. persons on child-care leave ; Slovenia : Persons aged 15 years and over, second quarter of each year ; Spain : Persons aged 16 years and over, excl. compulsory military service; Sweden : Persons aged 16 to 64 years ; United Kingdom : Persons aged 16 years and over, March - May of each year.

Box 1 : Euromed Female Migrations

Despite the general low level of the statistical information, there is undoubtedly an increasing "feminization" of migrants since the 60's, women share rising from 46.6% in 1960 to 49.6% in 2005 in the total population of migrant. It is not however the case in North Africa according to the available data of United Nations Population Division, where the women share falls from 49.5% to 43.6% in 2005.

Figure : Main reason for last emigration from country of origin by sex, per sending country



Source : NIDI/Eurostat., 2001

A large share of those women migrates for family reunion reasons (i.e. because the husband or the leader of the family is migrating). This share is estimated at 65% of total migrant women in the EU (European Foundation, 2004).

However, this should not underestimate the somewhat large number of females that migrate to seek work and to move on their own to become the principal wage earners for their families (economic reasons). The increasing level of education of females, the unemployment problems in their home country and trying to escape unfavorable economic and social conditions have contributed to this increasing trend. Some other reasons include studying or training.

| | Participation rates | | | | Unemployment rates | | | |
|----------------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | Men | | Women | | Men | | Women | |
| | Nationals | Foreigners | Nationals | Foreigners | Nationals | Foreigners | Nationals | Foreigners |
| Austria | 78,9 | 85,1 | 62,4 | 63,3 | 3,9 | 8,4 | 3,9 | 8,6 |
| Belgium | 73,3 | 72,4 | 57,0 | 41,0 | 4,6 | 14,2 | 7,0 | 16,5 |
| Czech Rep. | 78,7 | 87,8 | 63,3 | 56,3 | 7,1 | 7,6 | 10,1 | 12,5 |
| Denmark | 84,1 | 71,2 | 76,2 | 53,0 | 3,6 | 12,2 | 4,9 | 7,2 |
| Finland | 79,4 | 83,1 | 74,6 | 60,2 | 10,0 | 24,2 | 11,2 | 29,9 |
| France | 75,1 | 76,6 | 63,3 | 48,6 | 7,1 | 17,1 | 10,7 | 23,9 |
| Germany | 78,9 | 77,6 | 64,7 | 50,7 | 7,2 | 13,4 | 7,8 | 11,7 |
| Greece | 76,2 | 89,2 | 49,0 | 56,0 | 7,2 | 7,6 | 16,2 | 17,6 |
| Hungary | 67,6 | 77,8 | 52,2 | 51,8 | 6,4 | 7,6 | 4,9 | 5,5 |
| Ireland | 79,2 | 77,0 | 55,9 | 56,2 | 4,1 | 5,1 | 3,8 | 6,2 |
| Italy | 73,6 | 87,7 | 46,6 | 50,7 | 8,0 | 7,4 | 13,9 | 21,3 |
| Luxemburg | 74,0 | 79,7 | 47,7 | 57,7 | 1,2 | 2,5 | 1,7 | 3,8 |
| Netherlands | 84,9 | 69,5 | 67,2 | 49,0 | 1,9 | 4,7 | 2,9 | 7,0 |
| Norway | 84,6 | 82,1 | 76,8 | 67,2 | 3,7 | 5,3 | 3,4 | 4,5 |
| Portugal | 79,0 | 81,5 | 64,0 | 65,3 | 3,1 | 8,4 | 5,1 | 9,6 |
| Slovakia | 76,9 | 79,4 | 63,2 | 51,8 | 19,8 | 26,2 | 18,6 | 17,0 |
| Spain | 77,3 | 85,4 | 50,9 | 59,1 | 9,3 | 12,9 | 19,8 | 17,2 |
| Sweden | 78,0 | 63,1 | 74,2 | 60,3 | 5,5 | 16,1 | 4,6 | 13,0 |
| Switzerland | 89,2 | 89,5 | 73,3 | 68,6 | 0,3 | 4,3 | 2,6 | 6,4 |
| United-Kingdom | 83,1 | 75,6 | 68,4 | 55,8 | 5,5 | 9,8 | 4,4 | 7,9 |

Source : Labour Force surveys, Eurostat, quoted in OECD/SOPEMI 2002.

Migrant women in the EU labour force

OECD data on the participation rate of national and foreign (male and female) shows with evidence that female migrants are the most disadvantage group:

- ✓ migrant women suffer on average from the highest unemployment rate;
- ✓ they have (with few exceptions) the lowest participation rates.

In some countries, the gap between male and female participation rates is twice as large for immigrants as it is for nationals. In France, for example, the male participation rate for nationals is 12 points higher than for women, whereas the gap is 28 points among the foreigners. In Finland, the differences are even larger, with a 4.9 points difference between the participation rate of men and women for nationals, and 23 points for foreigners.

One reason that could be behind this low participation of female migrants is the nature of their migration. Women that migrate for family reasons often face obstacles to join the labour market caused by the migration regime of the host country, their legal status and resulting restrictions against the employment of accompanying family members of a migrant worker. This might force them to seek informal employment, e.g. domestic services or home working or to be unemployed.

Policy implications

The feminization of international migration raises crucial policy issues and concerns. From a gender perspective, women should have equal opportunities and treatment as men in immigration and emigration policies and in access to international labor markets. In particular, their status as women, as migrants or non-nationals, makes them particularly vulnerable to various forms of discrimination as they are usually employed in underpaid and non-specialized jobs without, or with poor, legal protection. For instance, in France, 42% of working Moroccan women is on part time contracts while 46% of those who are 20 years of age and above are unemployed. Another example is Spain, where 67% of Moroccan women are working in the domestic line of work (UNDP, Report on human development in Morocco, 2005). Those examples indicate that special policies and programs should be designed to employ migrant women (especially those that are accompanying their employed husband).

Integration policies are addressed to men rather than women, as the former is more visible. However, migrant women are an important share of the foreign population and they need to be integrated in the society as well as the labor markets of the countries of destination. The following measures could be taken in order to protect and support migrant women:

- ✓ Sending countries should assign trained labour attaches and welfare officers, especially women officers, in their embassies in host countries with specific responsibility to protect migrant women.
- ✓ To respond to demand patterns in host countries, labor exporting countries have to promote female overseas contract work.
- ✓ NGOs can be trained and involved more fully and effectively, in activities such as providing pre-departure orientations, networking, and spreading information about protection of migrants.
- ✓ Women migrant workers themselves can be encouraged to build up their own support structures and networks.

source WDI 2005) and the level of GDP per capita. The consequence is that employment of women seems to be largely dependent on the whole economic dynamism which only would allow this rate of development of non-trade and personnel services and that will modify their anticipation.

- √ More specifically, we notice the importance of female employment in the agriculture sector in Egypt, Morocco and Turkey. Also, with the exception of Algeria, an exception which is explained by the importance of its industrial base of public enterprises (the general status of workers that are non-discriminatory still remain), no MP country, nor European country have a significant female employment in manufacturing industries. The main exception to this is the textile and clothing sectors.

Gender discrimination with vital effects in the rural areas and informal sector

Here, we are in the world of poverty, social precariousness, with significant rates of fertility, illiteracy and informal activities that are developed outside the official or formal channels (frequently absence of declaration accompanied with weak social benefits to workers, derogatory working conditions and remunerations, and non-registered activities, etc.). All indicators converge to the fact that this world, marked by a large population, exist with the minimal conditions of survival.

The basic unit is the family and gender inequality affects not only the well-being of women but also all decisions taken in the household that could have signifi-

cant effects on the children and the well being of the whole family.

1- The gender discrimination in the rural world

A significant literature (Duflo and Jameel, 2005) exists on the negative effects of gender discriminations in poor environment, that are often close (which is frequently the case of the rural villages), confronting unforeseen shocks (bad harvests, diseases, and violence) and not having access to a sufficient infrastructures development. The research have made some evidence in the past recent years on this issue. We will address the most important ones:

- √ The most important one underlined by Amartya Sen concerning the issue of 'missing women' (Sen, 1990). In this famous article, Sen showed that the proportion of women in the developing countries is lower (by a 60 to 100 millions of person) than what could have been if those have received the same level of care and nutrition than that of men. It is a successive negligence that has led to the current situation rather than a voluntary choice. In the MP, which is one of the regions of the world that resents vigorously poverty, this phenomenon still exists in rural areas. The high Commissariat of Planning of Morocco in a courageous analysis (Commissariat au Plan, 2005) underlines the existence of sur-mortality of young girls in the age group of 1 to 5 years old "that has increased from 20% in 1982-91 to 37.5% in 1994-2003". The report adds that "the environment of rural residence clearly seems to be a factor that leads to the sur-mortality of children of less than five years".

This reality is linked to "the educational level of the mothers and poverty". For the office of Haut Commissariat, curing to this implies alleviating the «constraints that lies in the importance of the perinatal causes of mortality which constitute 37% of the whole causes of mortality before 5 years, as well as the persistence of infectious diseases responsible for 50% of the mortalities and nutritional diseases (vitamin A and D, iron and iodine)». Adding to those causes «poverty, illiteracy, bad conditions of hygiene in the environment, as well as the insufficiency of infrastructural care and personal health coverage in the rural areas». One would continue by saying, as showed by the anthropologists, that the fact that young small girls die more than young boys, which is contrary to the universal biological evidence, is specifically due to the fact that the parents would voluntary seek medical advise in the care centres if a young boy is sick rather than if the little girl is sick. One finds here observations made in other areas (Khanna and alii, 2003).

√ Gender discrimination can be considered in certain contexts as a prototype of what one can indicate as a «trap of inequality» (the World Bank, 2006). By the standards that they put in place, many societies assign different individual roles. In the typical rural family in the developing country, the male sphere is located outside the household and is supposed to contribute to provide the family with a status. The female sphere is the interior and the everyday life of the family. Consequently, and as showed clearly in the above mentioned report, «the activities of the women serve as inputs to the general wellbeing of the

family, whereas the men are the centermen are the earners and they are the link between the family and the external world where the social and economic statuses are determined". Consequently, all aspects connect to define a perpetuate hierarchy: the laws of marriage which can be often seen as exchanges of wives between the families, rules of heritage, of ownership, the possibilities of mobility, the decision on the use of the resources, etc. It is this reality which leads to the anchoring of stereotypes which, finally, can produce effects on mortality of the small girls like those mentioned above. The consequence to be drawn for this report is that if these stereotypes did not sufficiently disappear preliminary and if laws aiming to gender equality were not installed, the direct funding given, for example to the family, will not affect the behaviour of the poor household which will pay less attention to the disease of the girl than to that of the boy. On the other hand, developing infrastructures of health by generalizing medical insurance and thus provide free care for poor family, will help in a significant way the girls, even if the parents do not modify their attitude towards them.

√ Within the framework of the poor rural families, the satisfaction of pre-conditions is essential to be able to reinforce the status of the women. It is then a question of addressing the development of women capacities of the women as a process that passes by several stages: (i) the satisfaction of the critical basic needs (prevention of the abnormal deaths, having access to basic education, minimal nutrition security), (ii) the development of capacities which make it possible to seize new opportunities (education on a higher level, vocational training, health, capacity

Box 2 : Girl Labour, the case of Egypt

(Based on a paper by Assaad, R. et al. 2001. "The Effect of Child Work on School Enrollment in Egypt", Economic Research Forum, Cairo, Egypt)

The number of girls engaged in work varies according to the definition of labour (A girl is considered 'working' if she spends more than 14 hours or more per week in either market or subsistence work). The narrowest definition "market labour" includes girls that are working in the market only, and those account for only 96 thousand (according to the most recent Egypt Labour Market Survey ELMS, 1998). While if we consider the broader definition "exclusive work" which includes market work and subsistence work in the primary sector (agriculture and animal husbandry), the number of girls almost doubles (170 000). A third and even broader definition of work "inclusive work" should be considered as it includes all exclusive work as well as domestic chores performed by girls at home. The number of girls in this definition is hard to identify. The number of girls that are out of school is more than double that of boys. In contrast, the number of girls engaged in market work is half that of boys. However, if we include subsistence and domestic activities, the number of 'working' girls is almost the same as boys. This shows the extent to which official definitions of work, whether using the market or exclusive definitions, understate the work of girls. In Egypt, more than 2.2 million girls (34.6% of total girls in the age of 6-14) spend time on household chores and an uncounted numbers are engaged in child care.

The Egyptian survey includes information on who decided that the child (boy or girl) should enter the labour market and why. Fathers decided for 62 percent of boys and girls, while mothers decided for almost 12 percent of boys but only 5 percent of girls. Interestingly, over 22 percent of boys and girls are reported to have decided for themselves to enter market work. Girls entered market work primarily due to a need for money (52.0%) and for "family reasons" (32.8%); others started market work to help in a family business (5.7%), because of failing in school (5.0%), or to learn a trade or skill (4.6%).

In terms of location of market work, 63% of working girls work in the fields or farms, 14% work in workshops or factories, 6% are mobile workers (not including street vendors), 4% work in stores.

In terms of Market work categories, girls are concentrated in agriculture category, the difference between the market and exclusive definitions of work is clear here, as more girls work in taking care of livestock. It is important to underline that none of the occupations described here are among those targeted for elimination of child labor under the International Labour Organization's recent Convention on the worst forms of child labor. While some children workers in Egypt are engaged in those activities of the "worst forms" they are not identified, nor can we identify especially abusive conditions of employment, which may exist in any workplace.

Table : Sectors of Child activities, girls & boys

| Industry | Boys | Girls | |
|---|--------|--------|-----------|
| | Market | Market | Exclusive |
| Agriculture | 63,0 | 69,0 | 82,5 |
| Food preparation | 2,1 | 7,0 | 4,0 |
| Textiles | 0,0 | 5,0 | 2,8 |
| Garments | 0,6 | 4,6 | 2,6 |
| Retail | 7,0 | 8,0 | 4,5 |
| Misc. personal services | 3,7 | 6,4 | 3,6 |
| Repair | 9,6 | 0,0 | 0,0 |
| Wood industries, Furniture & Metal manuf. | 8,4 | 0,0 | 0,0 |
| Construction | 5,3 | 0,0 | 0,0 |
| Restaurants | 0,5 | 0,0 | 0,0 |

to act –agency–), (iii) improvement of the legal and institutional environment, (iv) the installation of the well being (realization of the potentials, fair load and fair remuneration, insertion and partnerships, safety) (UNDP, 2004).

√ In many rural families of the MP, they are still in the first stage. And at this stage, apart from the problems relating to health noted above, Femise considers that the primordial question of illiteracy is imposed. Solving the problem of illiteracy is essential as long as this ensures the autonomy of women, their capacity to be informed including what concerns their rights, and to take risks. The effort undertaken by the MP in terms of education, allowed a significant increase in the average rates of literacy of female population of more than 15 years since the beginning of the Seventies (27.6% in 1970 vs. 70.4% in 2003). This phenomenon has accelerated since the beginning of the Nineties. However, these rates are still far from the average of the UE15 (92%) and that of the new members (95%). The countries that are most affected by illiteracy are Morocco and Egypt. Morocco took a manifest delay as many young women (15-24 years) have relatively low rates of literacy. The most advanced countries in the region from this perspective are, by descending order, Jordan, Turkey and Syria (annexes). Gender discrimination is pronounced also here where a gap of 16 points exist between male and female rates of literacy at the end of the period in the MP, whereas it is only of 3 points in the UE15. Here also, Morocco is in a special situation (25 points of gap) which is explained by the large number of population living in the rural world.

√ The decision-making powers of women inside the family also play a major role. When the woman earns an income and has a recognized capacity, the assignment of this income is favourable to the children. It was also shown that the fact that women have their own income reinforces their capacity in the family. Many empirical studies have supported the fact that if the incomes are in the hands of women, this will have a different impact on the allocation of resources within the household. The empirical evidence suggests that compared to the incomes in the hands of the men, those placed in the hands of the women are associated noticeable with improvements of the health of the children since a more significant amount is spend on nutrition, health and housing (Duncan, 1990 and 1992). It is an observation that has inspired the micro-credits directly allocated to women.

√ The generalization of the retirement pensions is an element that was highlighted by several empirical studies (Duflo, 2000). All indicators of girls' development (size, health, nutrition) have shown to be more favourable when the grand mother receives a pension. The effect seems even considerable since the author evaluates that the difference in the size of South-African and American girls is reduced to half when the grand mother receives a pension. Similar evidence does not show up when the recipient of the pension is a man and no similar effects can be observed on boys.

In short, these remarks bring to think, that on one hand, the autonomy women's decisions and the equal treatment in the family are powerful means to eliminate

certain completely abnormal phenomena which affect girls in the rural areas. On the other hand, if the autonomy of women is not satisfied it is necessary to generalize the infrastructures of education and health and the social security benefits and retirements.

2 - The status of women in small and micro enterprises of the informal sector

The informal sector constitutes the second justification of a specific affirmative action. Generally located in the city or the urban periphery, it is a fast growing sector due to rural migration, adjustments implied by the openness, and finally the gap between the growth of formal employment and the growth of working population. We are interested here in the role of women and their development. If this role could be reinforced, it would permit a parallel progress on the issue of gender discrimination and economic development.

The informal sector enterprises are located in the urban world. The informal character of an enterprise is by definition difficult to specify. If we consider the micro and small enterprises (from 1 to 50 employees), all depends on the way these enterprises are registered, fiscally checked and their employees declared. As national legislations differ from one country to another - for some, a simple declaration with the Chamber of Commerce is enough- one perceives the blur which surrounds this field. Retaining the definition of the ICL (International Conference of Labour Statistics, 1993), the enterprises of the informal sector are, (i) enterprises by name only without permanent employees whether registered or not, (ii) enterprises that account

for less than 5 permanent employees whether they are registered or has declared them or not. In this sense, one would find that in Turkey, for example, this sector represents 83% of all the micro and small enterprises (1,363,000 enterprises). Adopting a more strict definition by considering only the not registered enterprises, we reach the rate of 8.6% that belong to the informal sector (70,000 enterprises; Semsal, 2005). The same results can be showed in Egypt where the informal sector is estimated at 80% of the micro and small enterprises of less than 50 employees by applying the definition of the ILO (El-Mahdi, 2005). In Morocco on a total of 750,000 micro and small enterprises, 67% are recorded at the tax authorities, but 40% only with the trade register. The significant point is that only 8% are recorded with the social security, which means that the Social Security cover does not touch 690,000 micro and small enterprises in this country.

These micro enterprises are essentially working in trade (shops, newspaper kiosks, coffees, etc), in the sector of metal and repairs (Turkey, Morocco), in the wood industry (Morocco, Turkey, Lebanon), in the textile, clothing and leather (Morocco), the restoration and other services related to tourism (Morocco, Egypt). They are often localised in a room or a private apartment.

It is only recently that evidence has shown the potential which this sector could represent. It appears, evidently, that the micro and small enterprises are significant providers of employment but especially that they develop rapidly when constraints are imposed on the budgets of the States and suppressions

are made on employment in the labour-intensive sectors (textile, clothing, leather). To give an idea of the impact of this phenomena on employment, in Egypt end of the Nineties, on a working population close to 16.5 million, 10 million were employed by different sectors other than agriculture, among those 4 million work in the micro and small enterprises. The informal sector represents 80% of small and micro enterprises and the number of involved personal reaches about 3 million.

The Femise have conducted a survey including a large number of interviews of a sample population representing the micro and small enterprises in Egypt, Lebanon, morocco and Turkey, with a special focus on women entrepreneurs (El-Mahdi 2005, Semsal 2005, Hamdouch 2005, CRI 2005). In these activities women represent around 15% of the labour force (14% in Egypt, 13% in Turkey) and women entrepreneurs between 6 and 10% entrepreneurs.

In summary, the principal characteristics of women in these activities are as follows:

- √ When women are the owners, the concerned enterprises have very small capitalization, which, in 90% of the cases, originate from a heritage or a personal saving. As two thirds of the women are owners of their enterprises, they encounter significant personal risk,
- √ The enterprises concerned are almost exclusively financed during their exploitation and have very difficult access to banks and public financing supports. The only access available is that offered by the micro-credit which is available in a significant number of banks. However, actually, this access is very difficult and interviewed women declared that this was due to the complexity of the procedures needed to obtain these credits. The question of the financing is indicated to be one of the principal obstacles to the development of these micro enterprises,
- √ Women undertake independent activities for negative reasons (former badly paid work, bad working conditions), reason which is twice more present among women than men. A significant part of them indicates that they did not have other alternatives. Conversely, 30% of the men who established their own enterprises specified that it is for better develop the experience gained from previous work,
- √ More than half of women in this sector have more than 40 years in Egypt and Turkey (only 15% between twenty and thirty years), which indicates that they undertake these activities when the children accomplish the primary and secondary education and when they have the capital and the contacts necessary. Lebanon however, is characterized by the relative youth of women entrepreneurs, which is a significant sign of economic vitality (more than half have less than 40 years). In the large majority of cases, women continue to ensure their family responsibilities, but consider that their new activity has contributed to modify significantly their status. However in Egypt, where women have the double responsibilities evo-

ked above, 64% have declared that they were harassed at their work whereas 82% of men made the same remark without the double task.

- √ Mobility is weak since 90% of these women have established their activities where they were born (this does not seem to be a gender discrimination as 82% of men do the same thing),
- √ The monthly wages are definitely lower than the minimum wage in the small companies (30% lower) and increase with the size of the enterprise. The weekly duration of work is 6.5 days on average. Two thirds of women indicated that a support or help with their family responsibilities would enable them to develop their activities,
- √ The majority of these women are considered in the statistics as mothers, i.e. formally outside the labour force. More the level of development of the country is significant the more the autonomy seems stronger. Thus in Turkey 30% of the interviewed women indicate that they have asked permission to work (from their hus-

band, their brother or their father), in Egypt this rate goes up to 62%. A significant and important fact that in the four countries under investigation, this type of permission is less required in the rural area than in urban ones. That means, as previously noted that in the poorer rural, women have more responsibilities towards their families, which means that when the basic conditions are satisfied, this would give them possibilities to take initiatives,

- √ It is in the education and training that the gender gap is more pronounced. In terms of education, the following table reveals that almost 60% of women entrepreneurs in Egypt have some basic education or illiterate. Whereas in Morocco, the majority of men has more than 7 years of education. One must underline, however, that this phenomenon is not to be generalized, because in Turkey and in Lebanon, women entrepreneurs in the sector of micro and small enterprises are better educated on average (in Turkey for example, the women entrepreneurs have 9.8 years of education vs. 8.7 for men; in Lebanon the same male/female ratio can be

Tableau 7 : Entrepreneurs in Micro and Small Enterprises in Egypt according to the level of education

| | Numbers of years of Education | Men | Women |
|---|--------------------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Illiterates | | 21,2% | 43,3% |
| 1-6 years | | 18,4% | 14,9% |
| 7-9 years | | 10,5% | 7,3% |
| 10-12 years | | 30,8% | 26,5% |
| 13-16 years | | 18,8% | 7,6% |
| 17 years and more | | 0,4% | 0,3% |
| Total | | 100% | 100% |
| Average number of years of Education | | 8,4% | 5,7% |

Source: Femise, from research FEM21-31

showed with an average educational level of 11 years of education),

- √ In the vocational training, the phenomenon is even more accentuated where women entrepreneurs have less vocational training than the urban population working in under the formal sector (paid-worker). However, the survey revealed that a strong demand exists. Thus in Egypt, more than 90% of women entrepreneurs interviewed confirm that they have not received any vocational training and did not take any steps towards this. These women stress that a consultancy help in management would be of a great support. Morocco and Lebanon seem to be better placed from this point of view, where 16% of the entrepreneurs in the sample declared having received a training equal or lower than 6 months.
- √ Financing of this vocational training for those entrepreneurs is mainly private in Egypt (the NGOs practically do not intervene and public centres of formations cover only 16% of the women entrepreneurs). But no discrimination seems particularly to strike the women from this point of view. The vocational training of the workers of these enterprises is done inside their enterprise because no sufficient dedicated centres exist to serve this purpose (the interviews indicate that in Egypt no budget is especially reserved for this task in the enterprises of the sample).

These remarks lead to two conclusions. First, that encouraging women in the informal sector (in particular head of enterprises) is a specific action which

will have the double advantage of being used as an example of modifying the stereotypes and to provide resources to the families concerned. Secondly, the planned steps to formalize the informal sector could be dangerous if they are not accompanied by a significant effort of consolidation this population. A risk exists that the formalization of this sector (moreover necessary for macro-economic reasons) would slow down its expansion while it was obviously an element of significant dynamism in the past few years.

Recommendations

As shown in the analysis, despite the improvement in the condition of women in the MP, in terms of decrease of illiteracy, increase in the level of educations and increase in life expectancy, the rate of participation of women in the labor force is still the lowest in the world. The FEMISE considers that this low participation drag considerable economic and social losses.

The first measure to adopt is to better understand the various reasons of this paradox by improving on the statistical systems. Statistical offices and labour statistics offices have to place a system that is capable of providing information that would guide the technical and political decision making. It is observed indeed that despite the significant increase in the quality and quantity of statistical information on the euro-mediterranean, the question of gender is still far from this improvement. Sources of data are needed, in particular in terms of employment. Femise stresses that the question of the status of woman in the Mediterranean is multiform. Information

that are specific to the Mediterranean region (wages, occupations, distinction rural/urban, informal, etc.) are still lacking significantly, whereas a good knowledge of the subjacent ongoing process would be absolutely necessary in order to improve on the situation. In terms of labour market for example, surveys and data should be presented according to gender, in addition to other distinctions. Information that illustrates the «feelings» will make it possible to

Box 3: The statistical effort for a better understanding of the women activity,

The precise knowledge of the women economic contribution in the MP is today badly known. Several recent programs aim at the improvement of the situation, but harmonized data are not available. Four big gaps must be underlined here.

The first one, on which the UNDP launched a program on the Arabic countries (POGAR), concerns the breakdown men/women in the various types of activity (agriculture, industry, services) and the share of the active women in these activities compared with that of the men. The results are not available for the MP today.

The second concerns the levels of qualification of the posts occupied by the women with regard to the men and the correspondence between these levels of qualification and the competence of women workers seen from their educational level. This information is not available today and, from our knowledge, no systematic surveys is implemented concerning the MP.

The third concerns the rural world on which the FAO launched a program of surveys limited to some countries (National Survey of Rural Household ENHR). Here the difficulty consists in thinking at the family level and in trying to estimate the women economic contribution of the to the family welfare. The concepts held by the ENHR illustrate the difficulty of the exercise, they are the following ones:

Household: person or group of persons (related or not) occupying all or part of a dwelling and who make common provision for food and housing.

Working-age Population: population of 10 years or more.

Labour force (Economically active population): all persons of working age or over who exercised or were seeking to exercise an activity in the production of goods and services.

Employment: persons who exercises a paid productive activity (goods and services) for at least one hour, or unpaid family workers who worked at least 15 hours.

Underemployment: concern the employed persons but who would like to work more for various reasons, the part-time working persons who would like to work more, the persons who seek a first employment.

Economically inactive population: persons of working age who are not participating in activities to produce goods and services, including students, housewives working less than 15 hours per week, retired persons.

The application of these concepts requires household surveys aiming to identify the secondary activities and to measure the effective time of work. The central point is the difficulty in the rural world to separate the individual action of the women of the household conditions of life, and then implies to lead heavy surveys.

Finally, there are few works in the MP allowing to give an scientifically founded idea of the hierarchy of the actions which would allow to improve the women condition in these environments. The most recent research, led from representative rural households, focused on the most relevant actions in several other regions of the world (cf. Esther Dufflo MIT 2005). That is why, household surveys must be completed by finer and more fragmented research at the level of the household itself, surveys which develops in a lot of developing countries but today still unusual in the Arabic world.

address the stereotypes on women and employment. From this point of view, a minimum set of data distinguishing the gender would comprise: calculations of the cost of labor by gender; tendencies in the atypical forms of employment and jobs; the creation and the maintenance of a system of indicators allowing to highlight the variations with a gender perspectives in terms of work, and the quality of employment as well as the tendencies. This also should include information on age group. Lastly, it is a point that is at the same symbolic and with a significant economic interest: that to set up a measurement of the usage of time as an alternative measurement of the household works. This will lead to an economic and social appreciation of this activity and would allow its insertion in the national accounts.

From an economic point of view which is the aspect of this report, several reasons could be behind the low participation of women in the labour market. On the supply side, the implicit social and cultural considerations obviously play a role. The absence of adapted working conditions, the low level of education which confines women to certain activities, or, simply, the absence of the will to work are all significant elements. On the demand side, women are at a disadvantage compared to men. They suffer from a lower level of education, they have less possibilities of following a vocational training, they are confronted with working conditions which makes it difficult to harmonize the family commitments with the working activities. This explains why employers have a distinct preference to employ men, in particular in the private sector.

A lot needs to be done to overcome those barriers. A basic step would be to promote the transformation of the institutional norms to reflect the idea that women can have the choice (to be educated, to participate in the labour market, etc.). The two main agents for this change will be from one side women's advocacy notably through the associations that they represent and from the other side the state.

Based on the analysis and discussion made with a pole of experts in the region, Femise proposes a number of recommendations in how to reinforce women empowerment and promote their participation in the economy. Three main areas need to be addressed: (i) the access of the women to education and the vocational training, (ii) the participation of the women in the labour force, (iii) reinforcement of the legal, social and political rights of women.

1- Women Access to Education & Training

As shown in the analysis, women education in the region has achieved some progress. The number of schooling years for women and the number of graduate women has increase, but a radical problem still exists: there are still 36% (at least) of women population in this region (age 15 and above) that are illiterate (as opposed to 20% of men). Specially designed policies should be developed to target this group. In this perspective, Femise recommends:

- √ More incentives have to be given to encourage women to demand literacy and make it more attractive or at least to reduce the constraints that cause

their reluctance to demand literacy. Social pressures and commitments in the household prevent some women from attending literacy classes while some other, especially those working; find that attending classes will cut their daily income "a luxury that they can't afford". Special programs could be implemented to help women organize their time and increase their awareness of the importance of being literate in promoting their status.

√ Other recommended incentive is to use micro-credit incentives to attack illiteracy of women. A useful and successful tool that encourages women to attend literacy classes in order to receive credit for their small businesses. This incentive was applied successfully in Egypt.

√ On a higher level, enabling women access to education, training and technology is an empowering and transformative policy for women. Despite improvements in women enrollment rates, there are still constraints to their access to education considering that statistics can be misleading as registration of females in schools does not necessarily mean that they are attending school. Several policies can be applied to increase women educational and training levels:

- Incentives could be given to the families, especially in rural and poor areas, for sending their girls to school. This could be an effective policy to increase female school enrollment.
- The contents of school curriculum do not serve the needs of the labour market especially in certain communities. Establishing

specialized schools that fulfill the needs of these communities could also be attractive as it means from one hand, ensuring an employment by the end of the school years and from the other, it satisfies a certain need for the kind of skill in this community. The role of NGOs and donor communities come strongly here to study the specific needs of each community and allocate some funding to develop such schools.

√ Promoting specialized technical and commercial education is also essential. Unfortunately, technical education usually functions as a "parking lot" for those who could not make it into Higher Education Institutes. Despite the fact that unemployment among the technical graduates is less than among the university graduates, this kind of education is not attractive to students as it is regarded as non prestigious. The issue of the link between the diplomas that is supposed to give a certain level of knowledge and the competence to be able to achieve something satisfactorily in a specific given situation. It is important to valorize the competence gained in any way. This would supposedly mean that we need to identify the technical and professional competences and to accredit them, and to put in a place a corresponding diploma and other validation procedures (including professional experience). This procedure, largely applied in Europe, could be beneficiary to women in the MP.

√ The private sector had to be encourage to invest in technical education, with some tax exemptions for instan-

ce. The benefits of private investment in this field is twofold, first it means the use of advanced adapted educational methods and equipments, and two it means that the graduates of those schools will find a tailor-made job in those private sectors firms.

√ Long life training is an essential tool for women to increase their competitiveness in the labour market. Unfortunately, training institutions available in most south med region are dysfunctional as they produce graduates that are not specialized and therefore do not have the capacity to develop relevant skills required by the labor market. This dysfunctional is especially unfair to women as they do not have the informal training apprenticeship system as an alternative. The principal dysfunctions are as follows (Kirchberger, 2005):

- Poor relation between the education and the professional formation from one side, a relative isolation of the professional formation centers with regards to the enterprises from the other side.
- Rigid levels structures with a poor possibility of mobilization between the structures and the levels.
- Teaching methods excessively calling to the memorization, the content remain based on the learned information rather than on the development of the capacities to solve the problems (Knowledge application oriented).
- The teachers and the formatives progress in an old fashioned way and are not incited to move.
- The certifications are based on the principle of elimination and not on the principle of progress.

- The private sector is not considered as an active partner (except in Lebanon and Jordan).
- Financing the professional formation is considered as a public responsibility.
- If the CVT (continuing vocational training) is financed by the employers and the earners contributions, which is the case in many MP, the finance mechanisms are assimilated to additional taxes and not to an investment.

√ Designing specialized training programs for women can be beneficiary especially if it is subsidized by the governments or by donors' agencies (or the private sector). This could be a very special case that justifies the use of subsidies contrary to the general rule, as in this case subsidies would be correcting a "market failure". Moreover, this is a rewarding investment that ensures providing the labour markets with good quality trained females that would have a high productivity and hence high value added output.

Training programs has to be designed to suit women's needs (and fit their schedules), either to help women's re-entry in the workforce or to direct women to new sectors that are in greater market demand.

2 - Participation of Women in the labour markets

Women are facing conflicting roles between their productive and their reproductive roles. The conflicting roles are emphasized by culture. Laws regulating family issues and women in the

region do not keep up with the changing pace of society⁴. To resolve these pressuring conflicts, women in many cases, are forced to give up their work and careers, in order to fulfill their 'basic' reproductive role in the society⁵. Statistics showed that there is a gap in women participation in the labour force in the age interval between 24 and 40 years.

In order to encourage women to participate (or re-participate) in the labor force, and resolve the conflicting roles of women several recommendations could be made:

- √ To secure a good quality family care system: providing quality childcare and nurseries for children that are monitored by the public or private sector.
- √ Providing a suitable working environment for women with flexible hours, good transport and re-enforcing women's own security at work.

The discrimination against women employment is more pronounced in the private than in the public sector. The private sector tends to prefer men because they are less likely to take long leaves or request flexible working hours or quit work to fulfill family commitments. Moreover, although the public sectors have been the major women employers in the past decades, this role has been diminishing.

Given the unfair competition in the labour market between men and women, more incentives has to be given to the private sector to encourage them to hire women. Even more, it is worth considering a law

that obliges the private sector to hire a special percent of women from the total staff. This of course could be applied in a certain number of activities that can be handled by women.

Women entrepreneurs

Both men and women investors are affected by the business environment of the country where they invest. However, additional challenges are faced by women entrepreneur in the region that can be identified as the following 5As, the five Accesses: Access to finance, Access to markets, Access to information, Access to training, Access to and influence on policymaker⁶.

Those women-specific challenges have to be addressed to improve the business climate for women:

- √ Financial institutions should implement best practices in microfinance by tailoring financial products to the specific women needs and assuring their delivery to targeted groups.
- √ Governments should encourage women entrepreneurs to learn about the full range of financial instruments available for them, through the education system, targeted information campaigns and well functioning business networks. In Korea, there is SME development fund that assists MSE women entrepreneur that can't obtain loans from commercial banks or other channels⁷.

Women in the informal markets have to be given special protection, especially that those are considered the most vulnerable group in the society (being female and generally also poor). In a

sample survey covering Micro and Small Enterprises conducted in four South Med countries (Egypt, Lebanon, Morocco and Turkey), more than 70% of women entrepreneurs have expressed the fact that being a woman was the major factor that affected the success of their enterprises as they are unprotected against gender harassment, specially those working in the trade and services activities.

Other challenges include problems of marketing and setting up the enterprise having to deal with bureaucratic and complicated procedures. Encouraging women to participate in the informal market could be the solution to their unemployment and "conflicting roles" problems.

√ Governments should encourage women-led MSEs to set up their enterprises in clusters. This would reduce the problems of women security and marketing by establishing effective networks between women-led MSEs and with big sister companies. This could be a way to reduce the disadvantage of small size and the feeling of isolation that is experienced by some entrepreneurs. Networks of women entrepreneurs can provide an informal, non-threatening environment for women entrepreneurs to exchange views and experiences, whereas networks with big sister companies provide guidance on market needs, open market channels and secure buyers to MSEs' output.

√ Special procedures have to be designed to facilitate and encourage women-entrepreneur to set up their enterprises, such as providing special loans and credits to specific activities

that can be export oriented (such as hand crafts and hand made products). This could overcome the problem of access to micro credit, that is considered a major challenge to women MSE entrepreneur.

√ Subsidizing female headed enterprises, or support them through tax exemptions, capacity building and marketing services can play a major role in increasing participation of women in this sector.

√ Also, focused training programs can assist women in setting up their enterprises and help them in marketing their products. The role of NGOs and national associations can be effective here, working along a national strategy to coordinate positive efforts and prevent inefficiencies, providing an integrated range of business support services in ONE place "one-stop outlets" (like the ones established in the UK).

In general,

The direct involvement of the state is crucial in this respect to ensure that effective measures are taken to overcome social inequality:

√ Within the context of the trade liberalization, there is potential benefit in increasing female workers in manufactured exports. In Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey, there has been a significant absorption of women into the export manufacturing sector, a successful policy that needs to be adopted by other south med countries⁸.

√ Given the pronounced rules and regulations that prohibit the discrimina-

tion against women employment, governments should monitor the application of these regulations and ensures that obstacles to women participation in the labour market are overcome.

- √ As noted before, the existence of a suitable work environment would encourage women to participate, in particular, ensuring the wage equality⁹.
- √ The mentalities of women must be addressed through the appropriate institutions and women's organization to increase women awareness about the value of participating in the labor market and that entering the labor force is an investment to protect themselves and their children in the future providing a kind of a social security through their ability to save. From the experience of working women; it was found that they enjoy more " independence and power" in spending their own earnings. Female entrepreneurs feel empowered by their earning¹⁰.
- √ The government budgeting should be "gender responsive" not only by analyzing the consequences of budgetary allocation towards the participation of women, but also by creating/ devoting lines that support women. Hence, the special safety nets could be designed for women according to their social status, marital status, number of children or income levels irrespective of whether they are employed or unemployed.
- √ There is a need for a rigorous coordination and partnerships between all stakeholders that are involved in the women empowerment process: governments, NGOs, International Organizations, and local communities in order to achieve the most out of the programs and strategies designed for this purpose and the best allocation of resources.
- √ There is a need to overcome cultural barriers, by fostering greater awareness of the benefits of women entrepreneurship. This requires the joint collaboration of governmental, business and non-governmental organizations.
- √ Governments should promote an entrepreneurial culture and a risk-taking spirit and lessen the stigmas attached to failure. This can be done through incorporating such notions in education systems, thus influencing young generations. At the same time, there is also a need to educate investors on the importance of investing in female-led companies. Furthermore, bringing positive female role models into the light may help in building women's self-confidence and encouraging other women to consider becoming entrepreneurs.
- √ A conducive and stable institutional environment that simplifies dealing with government agencies and reduces the cost of doing business is needed to encourage the establishment of women led private enterprises. Such a supportive institutional environment should involve uncomplicated laws and regulations that are easy to comprehend and abide by for the vast majority of the illiterate and semiliterate women.

- √ Social security must be provided to all women whether employed, unemployed or self employed. Families cannot be relied upon to protect the rights and security of women.
- √ A supportive infrastructure that will facilitate women's participation in the public sphere. Women are more constrained than men by their immediate physical environment. Investments in standard infrastructure, such as better transport, and telecommunications, can vastly expand a woman's opportunities, as can expansion in market services that allow women to combine work and family responsibilities through the market.
- √ Promoting women entrepreneurs will often lead to recruiting more women as women employers tend to comply more easily with family-friendly labor regulations and hence encourage women employees to join them.
- √ Raising public awareness on women's issues and creating a broad base of support and understanding of the pivotal role of women in society. In this area, the press and media are key tools for educating the public, creating favorable and supportive opinion on women issues as well as sustaining attitudinal changes over the long run.
- √ Building capacities, both governmental and non-governmental in the areas of gender analysis, gender planning, implementation and monitoring is essential.

Women cannot act alone: support has to be given by the governments, women's

organizations and women-supporting workers' unions to ensure that women are receiving their rights.

3 - Women's social, political and legal rights

The full participation of women in economic development has to be accompanied by a modification in their legal status and practices that relate to their status more or less directly. Despite the fact that this report is concentrated on economic issues, it is clear that the evolution of the regulatory environment is indispensable.

Despite the apparent gender equality announced by most of the South Med countries' laws, there is a large gender gap when it comes to applications. Contradictions exist within the legal systems, especially concerning family legislations, and also between national and international conventions and agreements. A conflict between the application of those laws and the Islamic Sharia has also increased the gender gap.

It is particularly necessary that the situation of the women in the code of the family develops, the majority of them stipulating the need for an authorization of the husband to work (the new Moroccan code of the family removes this obligation), and to travel (issuance of passport) but this law has been cancelled in several countries like Egypt (2004); as well as the obligation to refer to the Charia when the examined concrete case does not correspond to a provision envisaged (Algeria). There is thus a blur surrounding the application of the regulations and which allows the usage of procedures that are not in favour of

the gender equality of kind. Let it be the Code of the Family in Algeria, Majella in Tunisia, Moudawana in Morocco, these codes still reflect the phenomenon of the quasi permanent overlap between the religion and the policy in the life of the States. As Charia is a group of norms applied to particular cases, the Codes of the personal status include a mix strict religious sources, the common law and the specific traditions to each country, all elements when put together generate a legal insecurity, which limits the conditions of life of women and affect their capacity to initiate (for more details cf Institut of the Mediterranean, 2004).

√ Aggressive steps must be taken by governments to eliminate legal and social obstacles to women's economic and political equality; especially ensuring that the basic law of "equal opportunity" is applied. It has to be clear that the right of women in taking part in the decision making is one of her basic rights. There is a weak positive trend indicating an increase in the number of females in senior positions, causing a small crack in the "glass ceiling" that has for many years blocked women from reaching this level. The number of women joining national parliaments is also on the rise reaching 19% in Algeria and 12.7% in Jordan (Egypt still at 5.7%) but this does not represent a drastic change in the traditional pattern of women's employment women in such positions still represent on average less than 10% in most South Med countries. The Egyptian judiciary system has allowed the opportunity for appointing one woman judge, while in Tunisia 25% of judges are women.

√ Setting higher quotas for women's Participation in Political Institutions, legislative bodies and unions may induce the required change towards more equality between men and women.

√ Reforms could also include new legislations in areas such as sexual harassment, part-time employment, informal work conditions, or self-employment, specially tailored for women.

Notes

- 1 The MENA region, as defined by the UNDP and the World Bank, includes the Maghreb and the Machrek countries, the Gulf States, Yemen and Iran, without including Turkey. The conclusions reached on the MENA region can be substantially different than those reached with regard to the Mediterranean countries. This text will confine itself to the Mediterranean countries, where information is documented.
- 2 Apart from Turkey and Israel, secondary school students in 2002, GenderStat data, World Bank web site, apart from WDI World Bank data for 2003, excluding Israel.
- 3 The fertility rate is defined as the number of live births during lifetime (the average number of children a woman will have during her lifetime). It is similar to the birth rate, while this one Il est semblable au taux de natalité, but this last is also influenced by the age structure of the population.
- 4 In a study conducted by the Social Research Center in Egypt, it was found that the average working hours of women is about 15 hours (inside

- and outside the household) while men only work 9 hours (in both).
- 5 Moreover, most females (80% in Egypt and 54% in Lebanon) were found to have a conflict between working in small business and their family obligations.
- 6 Euro-Med TDS news, April 2004
- 7 AFESD, 2004
- 8 UNRISD, 2005
- 9 On average women continue to earn less than men by as much as 25% (Euro-Med TDS news, April 2004).
- 10 According to the MSE survey, 69% in Egypt and 66.5% in Lebanon of surveyed women had this feeling.

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Annexe 1: explanation of the evolution of the participation rate of the women in the Mediterranean countries

To determine elements explaining the evolution of the participation rate of the women, a analysis of the women participation rate has been conducted, with an econometric model including the fertility rate, the women educational level as well as the variables representing the structure by age of the women population.

The following analysis is based on a sample of data having a panel structure. As the level of these variables evolves slowly during time, the model uses a panel with observations separated from 5 years from 1980 till 2000 (the data of ILO on the working and total population by age being available only from 1980). More exactly, the estimated equation takes the following shape:

$$\log(\text{Participation Rate}_{it}) = \alpha_i + \sum \beta_j \text{Share_Clas}_{jit} + \gamma \log(\text{Fertility}_{it}) + \lambda \text{Education}_{it-5} + e_{it}$$

Where it represent a country i in year t and e_{it} is a error term.

The participation rate is calculated from the ILO data by taking the ratio of the number of active women from 15 to 59 years old and the total women population within the same age group. Variables Share_Clas_j are the shares of the age group j in the feminine total population (calculated also from the data of ILO). The fertility rates result from UNSTATS online databases of United-Nations. The used educational variables are those built by Barro and Lee (2000) who propose indicators on the percentages of the women having reached the primary, secondary and superior levels, the women schooling rate by level, as well as the average duration in years by level. This preliminary study with these indicators allowed to detect a positive and significant effect of the schooling rate in higher education. However, the coefficients of variables Share_Clas_j showed changes of signs a priori difficult to explain. So that the rates used in the development of the model were primary, secondary and superior schooling rate of the EDSTATS database of the World Bank, which indicates again a positive and significant effect of the tertiary schooling rate.

This equation in panel was estimated with fixed effects in order to take into account countries' specificities which are invariant in the time. The results of the estimate of the model are presented in the table 1.

According to the following table, we can notice that variables representing the shares of the women total population in the 4 considered age groups have quite a positive effect on the participation rate (the value of the coefficient being interpreted with regard to the omitted age groups 'less than 14 years' and 'over 60 years') with a more marked and significant effects on the most active intermediate age groups. As expected, the fertility rate has a negative effect: a decline of this rate increases the rate of participation, all other things being equal. The schooling rate in the superior (taken with a delay of 5 years) has a weaker but very significant positive effect.

This estimation allows also to decompose the contribution of each of the variables to explain the change in the women participation rate of the Mediterranean countries,

between 1980 and 2000. For that purpose, it is necessary to build the aggregated values of the variables fertility rate and schooling rate from the countries' values by using the relative weight of each Mediterranean country considered within the appropriate age group of the women total population. Because of the atypical evolution of the Turkish participation rate (which falls from 48 % to 28 % between 1980 and 2000), the country is not taken into account in the estimate.

If we try now to decompose the explanation of the evolution of the participation rate in the Mediterranean countries between these various variables, we notice that the decline of the fertility rate explains 31 % of the increase of the participation rate between 1980 and 2000. The increase of the schooling level in the superior explains a weaker share of 11 % whereas the evolution of the structure by age of the women population contributes for a total of 30% with effects almost only in the intermediate classes. There is 27 % of the participation rate trend not explained by the model. This not explained part can be reduced by half if we consider all the Mediterranean countries without Algeria and Syria. For these two countries, the model cannot explain in a more complete way the rate increase (more important variation, between 12 % and 13 % over the period 1980 and 2000, whereas the 5 other considered countries show an increase between 3 % and 9 %). With this second subset of countries, the contribution of the explanatory variables increases appreciably to reach 37 % for the fertility rate and 15 % for the education variable.

Table E1 : estimation of the panel model with fixed effects

| Variable | Coefficient | Standard error |
|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Share 15-24 years | 0.00298 | 0.00592 |
| Share 25-34 years | 0.0246** | 0.00820 |
| Share 35-44 years | 0.0151* | 0.00641 |
| Share 45-59 years | 0.00262 | 0.00853 |
| Fertility rate | -0.162* | 0.06650 |
| Tertiary Education | 0.00418** | 0.00119 |

Table E2 : Breakdown of the explanation of the women participation rate evolution in the Mediterranean Countries between 1980 and 2000.

| Variable | All 7 MP | w/out Algeria and Syria |
|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|
| Share 15-24 years | 1% | 1% |
| Share 25-34 years | 16% | 15% |
| Share 35-44 years | 13% | 18% |
| Share 45-59 years | 0% | 1% |
| Fertility rate | 31% | 37% |
| Tertiary Education | 11% | 15% |
| Not explained | 27% | 13% |

*The standard errors are robust with regards to the heteroscedasticity. * and ** indicate respectively the 5% and 1% significance levels. The panel is composed by 439 observations of 98 countries for 3 to 5 periods.*

Source : calculations Institut de la Méditerranée

| | GDP per capita, PPP (constant dollar 2000) | | | | | | | | | | Labour Force with primary education level | | | Labour Force with secondary education level | | | Labour Force with tertiary education level | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|---|-----------------|-------------|---|-----------------|-------------|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------|
| | 1980 | 1990 | 1995 | 2000 | 2003 | Women (% Women) | Men (% Men) | Total (% total) | Women (% Women) | Men (% Men) | Total (% total) | Women (% Women) | Men (% Men) | Total (% total) | Women (% Women) | Men (% Men) | Total (% total) | | | | | | | |
| | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | 1996 | 2001 | | | | | | |
| Algeria | 5 537,01 | 5 458,07 | 5 027,39 | 5 417,00 | 5 768,84 | .. | .. | 50,2 | .. | .. | 18,7 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| Egypt | 2 990,55 | 2 921,71 | 3 024,88 | 3 534,33 | 3 731,46 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| Israel | 13 484,91 | 15 857,22 | 18 477,10 | 20 615,49 | 18 925,01 | 12,6 | 9,4 | 23,8 | 18,6 | 18,9 | 14,4 | 36,2 | 34,4 | 35,7 | 36,2 | 35,1 | 50,4 | 55,3 | | | | | | |
| Jordan | 4 307,51 | 3 857,44 | 4 056,41 | 3 907,43 | 4 080,86 | 19,6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| Lebanon | .. | 2 177,57 | 4 101,53 | 4 199,85 | 4 793,03 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| Morocco | 2 812,13 | 3 362,93 | 3 214,17 | 3 470,28 | 3 782,75 | 36,7 | .. | 48,3 | .. | .. | .. | 16,7 | .. | .. | 14,4 | .. | 13,0 | .. | | | | | | |
| Syria | 2 780,36 | 2 651,29 | 3 162,47 | 3 331,85 | 3 376,12 | .. | .. | 38,6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7,4 | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| Tunisia | 4 088,58 | 4 541,40 | 5 083,13 | 6 251,55 | 6 765,24 | .. | .. | 43,6 | 46,8 | 41,5 | 44,2 | 29,5 | 30,8 | 27,6 | 29,4 | 28,1 | 29,7 | 28,1 | | | | | | |
| Turkey | 3 986,18 | 5 264,83 | 5 600,61 | 6 246,93 | 6 397,84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | | | | | | |
| MP except Israel average | 4 910,90 | 5 121,38 | 5 749,74 | 6 330,52 | 6 402,58 | 23,0 | 9,4 | 42,0 | 32,7 | 40,5 | 29,3 | 24,2 | 32,6 | 23,5 | 32,6 | 20,2 | 32,4 | 32,2 | 32,1 | 19,1 | 25,7 | 27,2 | 49,6 | |
| MP except Israel mediana | 4 037,38 | 3 857,44 | 4 101,53 | 4 199,85 | 4 793,03 | 19,6 | 9,4 | 43,6 | 32,7 | 43,4 | 29,3 | 23,1 | 32,6 | 22,1 | 32,6 | 17,5 | 32,4 | 31,7 | 32,1 | 16,1 | 25,7 | 27,2 | 49,6 | |
| Germany | 17 818,24 | 21 953,41 | 24 025,61 | 26 074,69 | 26 220,83 | 18,3 | 19,2 | 14,2 | 15,7 | 16,0 | 17,3 | 60,1 | 61,0 | 57,3 | 58,1 | 58,9 | 17,9 | 19,8 | 25,5 | 26,9 | 8,8 | 16,1 | 8,6 | 14,9 |
| Austria | 18 414,12 | 22 672,08 | 24 666,49 | 27 994,92 | 28 429,19 | 29,0 | 23,5 | 21,4 | 17,9 | 24,7 | 20,3 | 62,7 | 63,1 | 69,8 | 66,0 | 64,8 | 8,3 | 13,4 | 8,8 | 16,1 | 25,5 | 26,9 | 8,8 | 14,9 |
| Belgium | 18 608,57 | 22 373,40 | 23 367,31 | 26 490,61 | 26 767,50 | 31,5 | 26,9 | 39,1 | 35,4 | 35,9 | 31,7 | 34,7 | 36,5 | 35,1 | 36,3 | 34,9 | 36,4 | 33,9 | 36,6 | 25,8 | 28,3 | 29,1 | 31,9 | |
| Denmark | 20 549,38 | 24 440,96 | 26 023,79 | 29 336,57 | 29 724,68 | 24,7 | 22,5 | 23,9 | 22,7 | 24,3 | 22,6 | 47,7 | 49,8 | 49,6 | 53,3 | 48,8 | 51,6 | 27,2 | 26,8 | 26,1 | 23,1 | 26,6 | 24,8 | |
| Spain | 12 401,22 | 15 914,68 | 16 934,26 | 19 968,64 | 21 152,35 | 48,7 | 45,0 | 58,4 | 56,5 | 54,6 | 52,0 | 18,5 | 21,2 | 15,4 | 18,6 | 16,6 | 19,6 | 26,3 | 33,4 | 19,1 | 24,5 | 21,9 | 27,9 | |
| Finland | 16 776,18 | 21 980,25 | 20 705,67 | 25 141,25 | 26 091,50 | 27,8 | 22,4 | 30,0 | 26,8 | 29,0 | 24,7 | 51,3 | 41,7 | 47,7 | 45,4 | 49,4 | 43,7 | 21,0 | 35,9 | 22,3 | 27,8 | 21,6 | 31,6 | |
| France | 18 065,01 | 22 110,21 | 22 892,61 | 25 318,22 | 26 145,98 | 29,6 | 22,9 | 38,4 | 30,1 | 34,5 | 26,9 | 46,2 | 48,0 | 41,1 | 46,0 | 43,4 | 46,9 | 24,3 | 29,2 | 20,4 | 23,9 | 22,1 | 26,2 | |
| Greece | 13 671,09 | 13 996,07 | 14 163,24 | 16 714,00 | 18 849,97 | 43,5 | 36,2 | 51,3 | 44,5 | 48,3 | 41,2 | 29,0 | 33,8 | 31,1 | 39,6 | 37,5 | 25,6 | 22,2 | 20,4 | 18,6 | 22,4 | 20,1 | | |
| Ireland | 10 178,60 | 15 284,65 | 19 006,11 | 30 027,15 | 35 650,49 | 29,1 | 23,4 | 48,8 | 36,2 | 41,2 | 30,9 | 38,1 | 43,6 | 27,1 | 38,4 | 31,3 | 40,6 | 32,4 | 30,5 | 23,7 | 22,4 | 27,1 | 25,8 | |
| Italy | 17 202,52 | 21 811,64 | 23 072,75 | 24 936,17 | 25 619,44 | 46,8 | 39,4 | 58,1 | 51,4 | 53,9 | 46,7 | 40,9 | 45,4 | 31,7 | 36,9 | 35,1 | 40,2 | 11,0 | 14,1 | 8,9 | 10,5 | 9,6 | 11,9 | |
| Luxemburg | 22 941,51 | 31 437,08 | 36 441,14 | 56 267,48 | 58 852,37 | 64,4 | 36,0 | 65,0 | 33,0 | 64,8 | 34,2 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 18,8 | 43,9 | 20,1 | 43,3 | 12,2 | 19,4 | 15,1 | 21,3 | 14,0 | 20,6 | |
| Netherlands | 18 315,82 | 22 010,88 | 23 159,22 | 27 228,82 | 27 746,70 | 32,5 | 30,0 | 32,8 | 31,6 | 32,6 | 30,9 | 44,2 | 46,5 | 42,7 | 44,1 | 43,3 | 45,2 | 23,2 | 23,0 | 24,3 | 23,8 | 23,9 | 23,5 | |
| Portugal | 10 124,15 | 13 483,50 | 14 360,55 | 17 346,12 | 17 123,01 | 62,1 | 63,9 | 71,7 | 74,7 | 67,4 | 69,8 | 11,8 | 13,3 | 11,0 | 11,4 | 11,4 | 12,3 | 14,3 | 12,3 | 9,2 | 7,0 | 11,5 | 9,4 | |
| United Kingdom | 16 007,02 | 20 345,58 | 21 600,87 | 24 675,17 | 25 645,11 | 26,7 | 19,1 | 20,6 | 16,3 | 23,3 | 17,5 | 43,1 | 46,4 | 47,6 | 48,2 | 45,7 | 47,4 | 22,8 | 27,2 | 22,8 | 26,6 | 22,8 | 26,8 | |
| Sweden | 17 142,29 | 21 097,55 | 21 389,76 | 24 525,53 | 25 270,81 | 21,7 | 16,1 | 25,2 | 20,5 | 23,6 | 18,5 | 49,1 | 54,0 | 48,8 | 57,9 | 48,9 | 56,0 | 28,8 | 29,2 | 25,4 | 20,9 | 27,0 | 24,9 | |
| EU-15 average | 16 456,82 | 20 639,90 | 21 984,56 | 26 855,09 | 28 076,36 | 37,0 | 30,5 | 41,8 | 35,5 | 39,9 | 33,4 | 38,5 | 42,3 | 36,7 | 41,6 | 37,4 | 41,8 | 22,2 | 25,2 | 19,5 | 21,1 | 20,6 | 22,9 | |
| EU-15 mediana | 17 172,41 | 21 895,94 | 22 246,74 | 25 229,73 | 26 118,74 | 30,6 | 25,2 | 38,8 | 32,3 | 35,2 | 30,9 | 42,0 | 44,5 | 38,1 | 44,0 | 39,2 | 43,5 | 23,8 | 27,0 | 21,4 | 22,8 | 22,3 | 24,9 | |
| Chypre | 7 573,59 | 12 434,36 | 14 501,68 | 17 106,71 | .. | 36,8 | 26,2 | 41,2 | 26,2 | 39,6 | 26,2 | 35,2 | 39,1 | 37,7 | 42,8 | 36,8 | 41,3 | .. | 31,1 | .. | .. | .. | 28,9 | |
| Estonie | 9 373,43 | 7 179,11 | 10 253,15 | 12 789,73 | .. | 12,7 | 8,5 | 18,4 | 14,3 | 15,7 | 11,5 | 40,6 | 53,5 | 47,3 | 62,0 | 66,9 | 57,8 | 49,0 | 37,9 | 36,4 | 23,4 | 17,4 | 30,7 | |
| Hongrie | 9 396,67 | 11 171,51 | 10 000,33 | 12 705,23 | 13 777,17 | 26,7 | 19,7 | 22,1 | 17,0 | 24,1 | 18,2 | 56,8 | 61,6 | 64,1 | 68,2 | 60,8 | 65,2 | 16,5 | 18,7 | 13,9 | 14,8 | 15,0 | 16,5 | |
| Lettonie | 7 416,42 | 9 159,85 | 5 526,18 | 7 616,97 | 9 701,56 | .. | 13,8 | .. | 21,2 | 15,9 | 17,6 | .. | 61,6 | .. | 63,1 | 67,0 | 62,4 | .. | 24,6 | .. | 15,6 | 17,1 | 19,9 | |
| Lituanie | .. | 11 407,59 | 6 749,15 | 8 716,38 | 11 055,08 | 20,8 | 10,9 | 19,7 | 21,9 | 20,2 | 16,6 | 33,4 | 35,3 | 45,1 | 39,6 | 39,3 | 37,5 | 45,8 | 53,8 | 35,2 | 38,5 | 40,5 | 46,0 | |
| Malte | 7 206,66 | 10 711,32 | 14 167,51 | 17 862,20 | 16 657,99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | |
| Pologne | .. | 7 396,02 | 7 796,40 | 9 935,11 | 10 749,49 | 21,5 | 14,9 | 20,7 | 15,6 | 21,1 | 15,3 | 61,9 | 70,0 | 68,1 | 73,4 | 65,2 | 71,8 | 16,6 | 15,2 | 11,2 | 11,0 | 13,7 | 12,9 | |
| Republique tchèque | .. | .. | 12 629,13 | 13 966,56 | 15 452,57 | 15,8 | 13,1 | 8,1 | 8,0 | 11,5 | 10,2 | 75,6 | 76,6 | 80,0 | 79,4 | 78,1 | 78,1 | 8,5 | 10,3 | 11,9 | 12,6 | 10,4 | 11,6 | |
| Slovaquie | .. | 11 095,79 | 9 441,08 | 11 445,92 | 12 747,19 | .. | 10,7 | 20,0 | 7,4 | 12,7 | 8,9 | 30,4 | 77,1 | 43,4 | 81,7 | 75,6 | 79,6 | 47,2 | 12,3 | 36,6 | 10,8 | 11,7 | 11,5 | |
| Slovenie | .. | .. | 13 404,43 | 16 612,72 | 18 090,88 | 25,7 | 23,1 | 22,3 | 19,2 | 23,9 | 21,0 | 58,2 | 56,6 | 65,6 | 67,2 | 62,2 | 62,3 | 15,9 | 20,0 | 12,1 | 13,7 | 14,0 | 16,6 | |
| New Members average | 7 898,33 | 10 343,74 | 10 139,50 | 12 622,01 | .. | 22,9 | 15,7 | 21,6 | 16,8 | 20,5 | 16,2 | 49,0 | 59,1 | 56,4 | 64,2 | 61,3 | 61,8 | 28,5 | 24,9 | 22,5 | 18,7 | 17,5 | 21,6 | |
| New Members mediana | 7 495,00 | 10 903,55 | 9 720,71 | 12 075,57 | .. | 21,5 | 13,8 | 20,4 | 17,0 | 20,2 | 16,6 | 48,7 | 61,6 | 55,7 | 67,2 | 65,2 | 62,4 | 16,6 | 20,0 | 13,9 | 14,8 | 14,5 | 16,6 | |
| EU-25 average | 14 726,69 | 17 115,73 | 17 328,18 | 21 130,68 | 22 512,98 | 31,7 | 24,5 | 33,5 | 27,7 | 31,6 | 26,3 | 43,1 | 49,3 | 44,4 | 50,7 | 47,2 | 50,0 | 24,0 | 24,9 | 20,7 | 20,4 | 19,2 | 22,4 | |
| EU-25 mediana | 16 776,18 | 15 914,68 | 16 934,26 | 19 968,64 | 23 211,58 | 28,4 | 22,7 | 25,2 | 22,3 | 24,5 | 21,8 | 43,1 | 47,3 | 45,1 | 47,1 | 47,3 | 47,2 | 23,0 | 23,8 | 21,4 | 21,9 | 17,4 | 23,7 | |

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| | Literacy (% 15 years and old) | | | | | | Youth Literacy (% 15-24 years old) | | | | | | Repeater ratio (% Primary) | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------|
| | Women | | Men | | Total | | Girls | | Boys | | Total | | Girls | | Boys | | Total | |
| | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1970 | 2002 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 |
| Algeria | 11,6 | 59,6 | 32,7 | 78,0 | 21,5 | 68,9 | 26,2 | 85,6 | 56,7 | 94,0 | 41,3 | 89,9 | 8,8 | 9,0 | 14,6 | 14,2 | 9,2 | 11,7 |
| Egypt | 16,8 | 33,6 | 46,4 | 60,4 | 31,6 | 47,1 | 27,7 | .. | 57,7 | .. | 43,0 | .. | 4,7 | 3,8 | 7,1 | 6,3 | .. | 5,1 |
| Israel | 72,5 | 93,4 | 87,1 | 97,3 | 79,8 | 95,3 | 93,4 | 99,4 | 96,8 | 99,6 | 95,2 | 99,5 | .. | 1,2 | .. | 2,1 | .. | 1,7 |
| Jordan | 36,8 | 85,9 | 72,3 | 95,5 | 55,1 | 90,9 | 64,4 | 99,5 | 91,9 | 99,3 | 79,0 | 99,4 | 0,7 | 0,5 | 0,7 | 0,5 | 5,4 | 0,5 |
| Lebanon | .. | .. | .. | 101,4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7,7 | 7,2 | 10,5 | 10,1 | .. | 8,7 |
| Morocco | 8,2 | 38,3 | 31,9 | 63,3 | 19,8 | 50,7 | 17,2 | 61,3 | 49,4 | 77,4 | 33,1 | 69,5 | 10,2 | 10,8 | 14,1 | 14,1 | 11,1 | 12,6 |
| Syria | 21,0 | 74,2 | 60,7 | 91,0 | 41,1 | 82,9 | 36,1 | 93,0 | 79,3 | 97,1 | 58,3 | 95,2 | 5,6 | 5,7 | 7,3 | 7,7 | 7,0 | 6,8 |
| Tunisia | 14,8 | 63,1 | 40,9 | 83,1 | 27,4 | 73,2 | 34,7 | 90,6 | 70,3 | 97,9 | 52,2 | 94,3 | 16,4 | 8,0 | 20,0 | 11,5 | 19,8 | 9,8 |
| Turkey | 39,5 | 78,5 | 73,1 | 94,4 | 56,5 | 82,1 | 64,0 | 93,2 | 92,1 | 97,8 | 78,4 | 95,5 | 13,0 | 10,0 | 13,0 | 10,0 | 13,0 | 10,0 |
| MP except Israel average | 27,6 | 65,8 | 55,6 | 84,9 | 41,6 | 74,4 | 45,5 | 88,9 | 74,3 | 94,7 | 60,1 | 91,9 | 8,4 | 6,3 | 10,9 | 8,5 | 10,9 | 7,4 |
| MP except Israel mediane | 18,9 | 68,7 | 53,5 | 91,0 | 36,3 | 78,0 | 35,4 | 93,0 | 74,8 | 97,8 | 55,3 | 95,2 | 8,2 | 7,2 | 11,7 | 10,0 | 10,1 | 8,7 |
| Germany | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 1,5 | 1,6 | 1,9 | 1,9 | .. | 1,7 |
| Austria | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 1,3 | .. | 1,8 | .. | .. | .. |
| Belgium | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 9,0 | .. | 13,0 | .. | .. | .. |
| Denmark | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Spain | 88,2 | 97,0 | 95,2 | 98,7 | 91,5 | 97,8 | 97,6 | 99,8 | 98,7 | 99,8 | 98,2 | 99,8 | 1,0 | .. | 1,0 | .. | 1,0 | .. |
| Finland | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 0,3 | 0,3 | 0,6 | 0,6 | 0,4 | 0,5 |
| France | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 4,2 | .. | 4,2 | .. | 5,0 | .. |
| Greece | 79,0 | 96,2 | 94,7 | 98,6 | 86,5 | 97,4 | 88,2 | 99,8 | 98,9 | 99,8 | 98,5 | 99,8 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Ireland | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 1,6 | 1,1 | 2,1 | 1,4 | .. | 1,2 |
| Italy | 93,2 | 98,2 | 95,8 | 98,9 | 94,5 | 98,5 | 98,9 | 99,8 | 99,2 | 99,8 | 99,1 | 99,8 | 0,3 | 0,2 | 0,5 | 0,4 | .. | 0,3 |
| Luxembourg | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Netherlands | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Portugal | 68,1 | 90,8 | 80,2 | 95,2 | 73,7 | 92,9 | 93,8 | 99,8 | 96,0 | 99,8 | 94,9 | 99,8 | 12,0 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| United Kingdom | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Sweden | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| EU-15 average | 94,8 | 98,7 | 97,5 | 99,3 | 96,1 | 99,0 | 99,1 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,3 | 99,9 | 3,7 | 1,3 | 3,3 | 1,9 | 6,3 | 1,6 |
| EU-15 mediane | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 99,9 | 1,4 | 0,7 | 1,8 | 1,0 | 5,0 | 0,8 |
| Cyprus | 74,6 | 95,1 | 92,8 | 98,6 | 83,4 | 96,8 | 97,7 | 99,8 | 99,0 | 99,7 | 98,3 | 99,8 | 0,3 | 0,2 | 0,5 | 0,3 | 0,4 | 0,3 |
| Estonia | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,7 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 1,4 | 1,0 | 3,5 | 2,9 | .. | 2,0 |
| Hungary | 97,7 | 99,2 | 98,5 | 99,5 | 98,1 | 99,4 | 99,2 | 99,8 | 99,5 | 99,8 | 99,3 | 99,8 | 2,2 | 2,0 | 2,1 | 3,0 | 2,5 | 2,5 |
| Latvia | 99,8 | 99,1 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,7 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 99,7 | 99,8 | 99,8 | 1,3 | 1,1 | 2,7 | 2,7 | .. | 1,9 |
| Lithuania | 97,7 | 99,6 | 99,0 | 99,6 | 98,3 | 99,6 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 0,5 | 0,4 | 1,3 | 0,8 | .. | 0,6 |
| Malta | 77,0 | 93,4 | 78,2 | 91,8 | 77,6 | 92,6 | 93,6 | 99,8 | 89,7 | 97,6 | 91,6 | 98,7 | 1,8 | 2,0 | 2,4 | 2,6 | 1,3 | 2,3 |
| Poland | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2,0 |
| Czech Rep. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,1 |
| Slovakia | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2,5 |
| Slovenia | 99,2 | 99,6 | 99,4 | 99,7 | 99,3 | 99,7 | 99,6 | 99,8 | 99,7 | 99,8 | 99,6 | 99,8 | 0,7 | 0,6 | 1,3 | 0,9 | .. | 0,8 |
| New Members average | 92,2 | 98,2 | 95,4 | 98,6 | 93,7 | 98,4 | 98,5 | 99,8 | 98,2 | 99,5 | 98,3 | 99,6 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 2,0 | 1,9 | 1,6 | 1,5 |
| New Members mediane | 97,7 | 99,4 | 99,0 | 99,7 | 98,3 | 99,7 | 99,6 | 99,8 | 99,7 | 99,7 | 99,6 | 99,8 | 1,3 | 1,0 | 2,1 | 2,6 | 1,6 | 1,5 |
| EU-25 average | 94,2 | 98,6 | 96,9 | 99,1 | 95,5 | 98,8 | 98,9 | 99,8 | 99,0 | 99,7 | 99,0 | 99,8 | 2,4 | 1,2 | 2,5 | 1,9 | 4,2 | 1,5 |
| EU-25 mediane | 99,9 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 99,8 | 1,3 | 1,1 | 1,9 | 1,6 | 2,0 | 1,2 |

| | Primary School Enrolment | | | | | | Secondary School Enrolment | | | | | | Tertiary School Enrolment | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|---------------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Girls (% gross) | | Boys (% gross) | | Girls (% net) | | Boys (% net) | | Girls (% gross) | | Boys (% gross) | | Girls (% net) | | Boys (% net) | | Women (% gross) | | Men (% gross) | | |
| | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | 1990 | 2001 | |
| Algeria | 92,0 | 104,3 | 108,6 | 112,5 | 86,9 | 93,7 | 99,3 | 96,3 | 96,3 | 54,2 | 79,6 | 67,3 | 75,8 | 47,6 | 67,4 | 59,6 | 64,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Egypt | 82,8 | 93,8 | 99,8 | 99,9 | 76,2 | 88,3 | 90,9 | 92,2 | 62,4 | 84,8 | 78,8 | 91,3 | .. | 78,5 | .. | 83,1 | 11,6 | .. | 21,7 | .. | .. |
| Israel | 99,5 | 113,2 | 96,4 | 113,5 | 93,4 | 100,0 | 90,5 | 99,7 | 91,5 | 93,8 | 84,9 | 95,0 | .. | 89,4 | .. | 88,5 | 36,0 | 67,1 | 35,5 | 48,7 | .. |
| Jordan | 100,9 | 98,8 | 100,3 | 98,4 | 94,4 | 91,7 | 93,9 | 90,9 | 64,8 | 87,5 | 62,1 | 85,7 | .. | 81,5 | .. | 79,6 | 25,5 | 31,3 | 22,7 | 30,7 | .. |
| Lebanon | 110,9 | 100,9 | 115,4 | 104,6 | 76,2 | 89,4 | 79,3 | 90,1 | .. | 81,0 | .. | 73,9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 47,6 | .. | 41,8 | .. |
| Morocco | 52,9 | 100,6 | 77,0 | 113,2 | 46,6 | 85,1 | 66,5 | 91,6 | 29,9 | 38,5 | 40,9 | 47,3 | .. | 31,5 | .. | 37,5 | 8,1 | 9,2 | 13,6 | 11,4 | .. |
| Syria | 96,6 | 107,8 | 107,6 | 115,4 | 87,7 | 94,9 | 96,8 | 100,0 | 41,1 | 42,3 | 56,3 | 46,8 | .. | 36,6 | .. | 49,4 | 14,4 | .. | 22,4 | .. | .. |
| Tunisia | 106,8 | 109,3 | 120,2 | 113,8 | 89,8 | 96,6 | 97,7 | 97,1 | 39,0 | 80,7 | 49,5 | 77,6 | .. | 69,1 | .. | 66,7 | 6,9 | 21,4 | 10,4 | 22,0 | .. |
| Turkey | 95,0 | 90,7 | 103,2 | 98,2 | 85,7 | 84,8 | 93,1 | 91,0 | 37,0 | 65,5 | 58,8 | 86,2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9,1 | 20,9 | 17,0 | 28,5 | .. |
| MP except Israel average | 93,1 | 102,1 | 103,2 | 107,7 | 81,9 | 91,6 | 89,8 | 94,3 | 52,5 | 72,6 | 62,3 | 75,5 | 42,1 | 64,9 | 54,5 | 65,8 | 15,9 | 32,9 | 20,5 | 30,5 | 30,5 |
| MP except Israel mediane | 96,6 | 100,9 | 103,2 | 112,5 | 86,9 | 91,7 | 93,1 | 92,2 | 47,6 | 80,7 | 60,4 | 77,6 | 42,1 | 69,1 | 54,5 | 66,7 | 11,6 | 26,4 | 21,7 | 29,6 | 29,6 |
| Germany | 101,6 | 100,2 | 100,5 | 100,7 | 85,6 | 87,1 | 83,0 | 85,5 | 96,9 | 99,1 | 99,5 | 100,4 | .. | 88,3 | .. | 87,9 | .. | 47,7 | .. | 49,6 | .. |
| Austria | 100,6 | 102,6 | 100,7 | 103,4 | 88,5 | 90,6 | 86,9 | 89,2 | 98,1 | 96,8 | 105,4 | 101,4 | .. | 88,1 | .. | 88,9 | 30,4 | 52,6 | 34,7 | 44,2 | .. |
| Belgium | 100,6 | 104,7 | 99,2 | 105,6 | 97,1 | 100,0 | 95,3 | 100,0 | 102,2 | 166,3 | 101,4 | 148,3 | .. | 88,2 | .. | 85,3 | 94,5 | 37,9 | 64,7 | 39,0 | 55,1 |
| Denmark | 98,3 | 104,6 | 98,2 | 104,5 | 98,3 | 100,0 | 98,2 | 100,0 | 109,8 | 131,9 | 108,5 | 125,8 | .. | 88,0 | .. | 85,7 | 91,5 | 38,6 | 73,4 | 33,8 | 52,2 |
| Spain | 108,0 | 106,4 | 109,1 | 108,2 | 100,0 | 99,4 | 99,7 | 100,0 | 107,5 | 119,4 | 100,9 | 112,1 | .. | 95,9 | .. | 92,2 | 38,6 | 64,2 | 35,5 | 53,9 | .. |
| Finland | 98,5 | 101,8 | 99,1 | 102,3 | 98,1 | 100,0 | 98,5 | 99,9 | 127,0 | 133,5 | 106,3 | 119,8 | .. | 93,9 | .. | 92,2 | 93,7 | 50,6 | 94,6 | 44,6 | 77,1 |
| France | 107,6 | 104,1 | 109,2 | 105,2 | 100,0 | 99,7 | 100,0 | 99,6 | 101,1 | 108,2 | 95,9 | 107,5 | .. | 94,2 | .. | 92,4 | 42,8 | 60,0 | 36,7 | 47,4 | .. |
| Greece | 98,1 | 98,8 | 98,7 | 99,3 | 94,3 | 96,7 | 94,8 | 96,9 | 92,9 | 96,6 | 94,7 | 94,8 | .. | 83,9 | .. | 82,4 | .. | 35,6 | 72,1 | 36,5 | 64,7 |
| Ireland | 102,7 | 105,2 | 102,2 | 104,9 | 91,1 | 96,3 | 89,7 | 94,7 | 104,7 | 109,7 | 95,9 | 100,2 | .. | 81,6 | .. | 77,8 | 79,4 | 29,1 | 56,4 | 32,3 | 43,7 |
| Italy | 103,5 | 99,7 | 103,8 | 101,7 | 99,7 | 99,0 | 100,0 | 99,4 | 83,0 | 96,1 | 83,4 | 100,1 | .. | 90,7 | .. | 90,4 | 31,0 | 61,0 | 33,1 | 45,6 | .. |
| Luxembourg | 94,0 | 99,9 | 86,6 | 100,9 | 85,3 | 96,2 | 77,8 | 99,5 | .. | 99,5 | .. | 92,9 | .. | 77,0 | .. | 77,0 | .. | 12,2 | .. | 10,8 | .. |
| Netherlands | 104,1 | 106,5 | 100,8 | 108,8 | 97,2 | 98,8 | 93,4 | 100,0 | 114,7 | 120,5 | 124,1 | 123,9 | .. | 84,6 | .. | 82,7 | 90,2 | 35,0 | 59,1 | 42,2 | 55,0 |
| Portugal | 120,0 | 114,0 | 126,0 | 118,2 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 99,5 | 99,6 | 72,2 | 116,9 | 62,3 | 110,5 | .. | 87,4 | .. | 81,8 | 26,7 | 61,5 | 20,7 | 44,9 | .. |
| United Kingdom | 105,0 | 100,3 | 109,2 | 100,4 | 96,5 | 99,9 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 88,1 | 198,2 | 88,0 | 159,1 | .. | 81,2 | .. | 81,7 | 94,4 | 28,3 | 70,2 | 32,1 | 57,0 |
| Sweden | 99,9 | 111,9 | 99,7 | 109,0 | 99,9 | 99,6 | 99,7 | 100,0 | 92,3 | 160,2 | 88,2 | 132,0 | .. | 85,8 | .. | 84,7 | 98,2 | 35,0 | 92,9 | 28,6 | 60,2 |
| EU-15 average | 103,0 | 104,3 | 103,0 | 105,2 | 96,1 | 98,3 | 95,2 | 98,3 | 99,5 | 125,3 | 96,5 | 116,3 | 85,9 | 92,1 | 84,1 | 89,6 | 35,4 | 63,9 | 34,6 | 50,8 | 50,8 |
| EU-15 mediane | 101,7 | 104,3 | 100,8 | 104,7 | 97,6 | 99,5 | 98,3 | 99,8 | 101,1 | 118,1 | 95,9 | 111,3 | 85,2 | 94,2 | 83,7 | 91,5 | 35,0 | 62,8 | 34,7 | 53,0 | 53,0 |
| Cyprus | 89,8 | 97,8 | 90,2 | 97,7 | 86,8 | 96,1 | 87,1 | 95,8 | 72,8 | 98,0 | 71,4 | 95,9 | .. | 69,9 | .. | 68,2 | 90,3 | 13,3 | 28,4 | 12,0 | 22,8 |
| Estonia | 109,1 | 99,5 | 112,5 | 103,2 | 98,9 | 95,2 | 100,0 | 96,4 | 103,8 | 96,9 | 93,6 | 95,0 | .. | 88,2 | .. | 85,5 | 27,2 | 80,1 | 26,4 | 48,3 | .. |
| Hungary | 94,5 | 100,1 | 94,6 | 101,5 | 91,8 | 90,1 | 90,8 | 91,4 | 78,9 | 104,1 | 78,2 | 103,2 | .. | 76,3 | .. | 73,3 | 92,0 | 14,8 | 49,8 | 14,0 | 38,6 |
| Latvia | 96,2 | 95,0 | 96,8 | 96,8 | 91,5 | 87,9 | 92,7 | 87,3 | 91,2 | 94,9 | 90,9 | 94,2 | .. | 88,1 | .. | 87,0 | 28,8 | 85,5 | 22,4 | 52,0 | .. |
| Lithuania | 91,6 | 100,5 | 96,3 | 101,8 | .. | 93,9 | .. | 94,7 | .. | 99,9 | .. | 101,2 | .. | 93,2 | .. | 92,6 | 38,5 | 79,1 | 29,8 | 50,2 | .. |
| Malta | 105,8 | 104,8 | 109,9 | 105,8 | 96,5 | 96,7 | 97,4 | 96,6 | 80,1 | 90,8 | 85,4 | 91,8 | .. | 78,1 | .. | 78,5 | 81,4 | 11,7 | 28,7 | 14,2 | 20,4 |
| Poland | 97,9 | 99,3 | 98,9 | 100,1 | 96,7 | 98,1 | 96,6 | 97,9 | 83,5 | 99,9 | 79,6 | 102,6 | .. | 79,0 | .. | 72,8 | .. | 25,4 | 70,2 | 19,0 | 49,2 |
| Czech Rep. | 96,5 | 102,9 | 96,2 | 104,3 | 86,8 | 88,4 | 86,6 | 88,5 | 89,7 | 97,1 | 92,5 | 94,5 | .. | 90,1 | .. | 88,9 | 14,9 | 35,2 | 18,5 | 32,2 | .. |
| Slovakia | .. | 101,1 | .. | 101,7 | .. | 87,8 | .. | 86,2 | .. | 89,9 | .. | 89,0 | .. | 87,2 | .. | 86,1 | .. | 34,1 | .. | 30,2 | .. |
| Slovenia | .. | 102,8 | .. | 103,8 | 100,0 | 92,8 | 99,4 | 94,8 | .. | 107,8 | .. | 107,4 | .. | 93,3 | .. | 92,1 | 27,7 | 78,1 | 21,5 | 54,6 | .. |
| New Members average | 97,7 | 100,4 | 99,4 | 101,7 | 93,6 | 92,7 | 93,8 | 92,8 | 85,7 | 97,9 | 84,5 | 97,5 | 75,8 | 89,8 | 73,2 | 88,4 | 22,5 | 56,9 | 19,7 | 39,9 | 39,9 |
| New Members mediane | 96,4 | 100,3 | 96,6 | 101,7 | 94,1 | 93,3 | 94,7 | 94,0 | 83,5 | 97,6 | 85,4 | 95,4 | 77,2 | 90,1 | 73,1 | 88,9 | 25,4 | 60,0 | 19,0 | 43,5 | 43,5 |
| EU-25 average | 101,1 | 102,6 | 101,7 | 103,6 | 94,8 | 95,6 | 94,2 | 95,6 | 94,8 | 113,3 | 92,7 | 108,1 | 82,5 | 91,0 | 80,4 | 89,1 | 30,1 | 60,5 | 28,5 | 46,4 | 46,4 |
| EU-25 mediane | 100,6 | 101,8 | 99,7 | 103,2 | 96,7 | 96,7 | 96,6 | 96,6 | 92,9 | 99,9 | 93,6 | 101,4 | 82,8 | 90,7 | 82,0 | 90,3 | 29,7 | 61,5 | 31,0 | 49,2 | 49,2 |

| | Secondary, students (% Girls) | | Primary Gross Intake (% of the population age group) | | | | Primary Completion rate (% corresponding age group) | | | | Primary, Students (% Girls) | | | Primary, teachers (% Women) | | Girls/Boys ratio, primary and secondary (%) | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------------|--------------|---|--------------|------|
| | 2001 | 2001 | Total | | Male | | Girls | | Boys | | 1998 | | 2001 | | 1998 | | 2001 | |
| | | | Female | Male | Female | Male | 2003 | 2003 | 1998 | 2001 | 1998 | 2003 | 1998 | 2001 | 1998 | 2003 | 1990 | 2001 |
| Algeria | 51,2 | 51,2 | 95,8 | 94,5 | 97,0 | 92,4 | 93,0 | 46,6 | 47,0 | 45,9 | 48,6 | 83,3 | 97,7 | 83,3 | 97,7 | 83,3 | 97,7 | |
| Egypt | 48,0 | 48,0 | 95,7 | 94,8 | 96,5 | 88,3 | 92,4 | 46,7 | 47,4 | 52,3 | 53,9 | 81,3 | 93,3 | 81,3 | 93,3 | 81,3 | 93,3 | |
| Israel | 50,6 | 50,6 | 97,7 | 98,5 | 97,0 | 101,7 | 101,6 | 48,5 | 48,7 | 83,1 | 87,1 | 104,5 | 99,3 | 104,5 | 99,3 | 104,5 | 99,3 | |
| Jordan | 50,4 | 50,4 | 100,2 | 100,6 | 99,8 | 93,7 | 93,8 | 48,8 | 48,8 | .. | 64,0 | 101,4 | 101,1 | 101,4 | 101,1 | 101,4 | 101,1 | |
| Lebanon | 53,2 | 53,2 | 101,4 | 101,3 | 101,4 | 90,4 | 84,9 | 48,0 | 48,1 | 82,5 | 87,4 | 102,0 | 101,8 | 102,0 | 101,8 | 102,0 | 101,8 | |
| Morocco | 44,0 | 44,0 | 103,7 | 101,5 | 105,9 | 64,8 | 72,9 | 44,0 | 46,2 | 39,4 | 43,6 | 70,1 | 86,6 | 70,1 | 86,6 | 70,1 | 86,6 | |
| Syria | 46,6 | 46,6 | 124,8 | 123,1 | 126,4 | 85,4 | 90,5 | 46,8 | 47,2 | 67,7 | 67,7 | 84,8 | 92,3 | 84,8 | 92,3 | 84,8 | 92,3 | |
| Tunisia | 50,5 | 50,5 | 98,5 | 99,3 | 97,8 | 94,9 | 94,9 | 47,4 | 47,6 | 49,5 | 50,4 | 85,6 | 99,6 | 85,6 | 99,6 | 85,6 | 99,6 | |
| Turkey | 43,5 | 43,5 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | |
| MP except Israel average | 48,7 | 48,7 | 102,2 | 101,7 | 102,7 | 88,9 | 90,5 | 47,1 | 47,6 | 60,1 | 62,8 | 88,2 | 95,3 | 88,2 | 95,3 | 88,2 | 95,3 | |
| MP except Israel mediane | 50,4 | 50,4 | 99,3 | 99,9 | 98,8 | 91,4 | 92,7 | 47,1 | 47,4 | 52,3 | 59,0 | 84,8 | 97,7 | 84,8 | 97,7 | 84,8 | 97,7 | |
| Germany | 49,8 | 49,8 | 100,6 | 100,4 | 100,7 | 99,4 | 99,2 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 81,5 | 82,8 | 98,5 | 98,9 | 98,5 | 98,9 | 98,5 | 98,9 | |
| Austria | 49,8 | 49,8 | 106,4 | 105,2 | 107,6 | 99,7 | 99,0 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 88,5 | 90,1 | 95,3 | 96,7 | 95,3 | 96,7 | 95,3 | 96,7 | |
| Belgium | 51,0 | 51,0 | 101,6 | 102,0 | 101,2 | .. | .. | 48,6 | 48,7 | 78,3 | 77,7 | 101,1 | 106,7 | 101,1 | 106,7 | 101,1 | 106,7 | |
| Denmark | 51,8 | 51,8 | 100,1 | 100,0 | 99,9 | 106,1 | 105,7 | 48,7 | 48,7 | 63,0 | 64,0 | 100,7 | 102,5 | 100,7 | 102,5 | 100,7 | 102,5 | |
| Spain | 50,3 | 50,3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 48,3 | 48,3 | 68,3 | 70,5 | 103,7 | 102,8 | 103,7 | 102,8 | 103,7 | 102,8 | |
| Finland | 52,5 | 52,5 | 98,9 | 98,2 | 99,5 | 101,4 | 101,5 | 48,8 | 48,9 | 71,2 | 74,8 | 109,4 | 105,9 | 109,4 | 105,9 | 109,4 | 105,9 | |
| France | 50,6 | 50,6 | 97,8 | 97,2 | 98,4 | 97,3 | 98,5 | 48,6 | 48,6 | 77,7 | 80,6 | 102,4 | 100,0 | 102,4 | 100,0 | 102,4 | 100,0 | |
| Greece | .. | .. | 94,3 | 91,2 | 97,1 | .. | .. | 48,4 | 48,3 | .. | .. | 98,7 | 100,9 | 98,7 | 100,9 | 98,7 | 100,9 | |
| Ireland | 51,0 | 51,0 | 106,4 | 107,4 | 105,5 | 96,8 | 95,7 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 84,8 | 86,0 | 104,3 | 104,0 | 104,3 | 104,0 | 104,3 | 104,0 | |
| Italy | 48,4 | 48,4 | 97,9 | 97,3 | 98,4 | 102,3 | 101,0 | 48,5 | 48,1 | 94,6 | 95,3 | 99,5 | 96,8 | 99,5 | 96,8 | 99,5 | 96,8 | |
| Luxembourg | 51,4 | 51,4 | 98,3 | 98,7 | 97,9 | 84,6 | 81,8 | 49,2 | 48,6 | 66,5 | 69,3 | 103,2 | 103,0 | 103,2 | 103,0 | 103,2 | 103,0 | |
| Netherlands | 49,4 | 49,4 | 97,5 | 96,7 | 98,4 | 97,4 | 98,4 | 48,3 | 48,3 | .. | .. | 97,0 | 97,6 | 97,0 | 97,6 | 97,0 | 97,6 | |
| Portugal | 51,1 | 51,1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 47,7 | 47,8 | 82,1 | 81,2 | 102,7 | 102,1 | 102,7 | 102,1 | 102,7 | 102,1 | |
| United Kingdom | 49,2 | 49,2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 48,8 | 48,8 | 75,6 | 81,4 | 98,4 | 116,0 | 98,4 | 116,0 | 98,4 | 116,0 | |
| Sweden | 52,8 | 52,8 | 98,5 | 98,7 | 98,3 | 100,6 | 101,2 | 49,4 | 49,4 | 79,9 | 80,4 | 102,4 | 112,4 | 102,4 | 112,4 | 102,4 | 112,4 | |
| EU-15 average | 50,7 | 50,7 | 99,8 | 99,3 | 100,2 | 98,5 | 98,1 | 48,6 | 48,5 | 77,5 | 79,3 | 101,4 | 103,4 | 101,4 | 103,4 | 101,4 | 103,4 | |
| EU-15 mediane | 51,0 | 51,0 | 98,5 | 98,7 | 98,4 | 99,7 | 99,0 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 78,0 | 80,5 | 101,8 | 102,6 | 101,8 | 102,6 | 101,8 | 102,6 | |
| Cyprus | 51,3 | 51,3 | 99,1 | 99,0 | 99,1 | 103,2 | 99,4 | 48,4 | 48,6 | 66,8 | 83,2 | 100,4 | 101,2 | 100,4 | 101,2 | 100,4 | 101,2 | |
| Estonia | 52,2 | 52,2 | 97,3 | 97,6 | 97,0 | 102,2 | 106,6 | 47,9 | 47,8 | 85,8 | 86,0 | 104,0 | 99,3 | 104,0 | 99,3 | 104,0 | 99,3 | |
| Hungary | 49,8 | 49,8 | 100,0 | 99,5 | 100,4 | 98,1 | 98,6 | 48,4 | 48,5 | 85,5 | 84,3 | 100,3 | 100,1 | 100,3 | 100,1 | 100,3 | 100,1 | |
| Latvia | 50,7 | 50,7 | 88,4 | 87,3 | 89,5 | 97,3 | 98,8 | 48,3 | 48,4 | 96,6 | 96,9 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |
| Lithuania | 49,8 | 49,8 | 93,6 | 93,6 | 93,6 | 105,5 | 105,3 | 48,4 | 48,6 | 97,9 | 97,6 | 99,4 | 98,7 | 99,4 | 98,7 | 99,4 | 98,7 | |
| Malta | 50,3 | 50,3 | 100,0 | 98,0 | 101,8 | 104,8 | 104,8 | 48,6 | 48,2 | 86,6 | 85,2 | 95,2 | 98,9 | 95,2 | 98,9 | 95,2 | 98,9 | |
| Poland | 52,2 | 52,2 | 95,4 | 97,5 | 97,4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 83,5 | 84,7 | 100,5 | 98,1 | 100,5 | 98,1 | 100,5 | 98,1 | |
| Czech Rep. | 51,1 | 51,1 | 93,5 | 93,0 | 94,1 | 100,8 | 102,7 | 48,5 | 48,4 | 84,6 | 84,0 | 98,0 | 101,2 | 98,0 | 101,2 | 98,0 | 101,2 | |
| Slovakia | 50,1 | 50,1 | 95,3 | 94,2 | 96,4 | 100,9 | 102,1 | 48,5 | 48,7 | 92,6 | 92,1 | 101,1 | 100,5 | 101,1 | 100,5 | 101,1 | 100,5 | |
| Slovenia | 51,1 | 51,1 | 117,1 | 115,9 | 118,2 | 99,0 | 99,9 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 96,5 | 96,5 | 101,7 | 100,0 | 101,7 | 100,0 | 101,7 | 100,0 | |
| New Members average | 50,8 | 50,8 | 97,6 | 98,8 | 97,2 | 101,3 | 102,0 | 48,4 | 48,4 | 87,6 | 89,1 | 100,1 | 99,8 | 100,1 | 99,8 | 100,1 | 99,8 | |
| New Members mediane | 50,9 | 50,9 | 96,3 | 97,6 | 97,2 | 100,9 | 102,1 | 48,4 | 48,5 | 86,2 | 85,6 | 100,3 | 100,0 | 100,3 | 100,0 | 100,3 | 100,0 | |
| EU-25 average | 50,7 | 50,7 | 99,0 | 98,6 | 99,6 | 99,9 | 100,0 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 82,1 | 83,7 | 100,7 | 101,8 | 100,7 | 101,8 | 100,7 | 101,8 | |
| EU-25 mediane | 50,8 | 50,8 | 98,4 | 98,1 | 98,4 | 100,6 | 99,9 | 48,5 | 48,5 | 83,5 | 84,0 | 100,5 | 100,5 | 100,5 | 100,5 | 100,5 | 100,5 | |

Sectors where the women work

Share of the sector in the total women employment

| | Algeria 2004 | Egypt 2003 | Israel 2003 | Morocco 2003 | Syria 2002 | Turkey 2004 | EU25* 2003 | EU15** 2003 |
|---|-----------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry | 21,8% | 39,0% | 0,8% | 56,8% | 58,1% | 57,2% | 4,2% | 3,1% |
| Fishing | 0,5% | 0,1% | | | | 0,0% | 0,0% | 0,0% |
| Mining and Quarrying | 0,7% | 0,1% | 9,7% | 0,1% | | 0,0% | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Manufacturing | 26,4% | 4,8% | | 18,2% | 5,8% | 13,5% | 13,3% | 12,3% |
| Electricity, Gas and Water Supply | 0,3% | 0,6% | 0,3% | 0,1% | | 0,1% | 0,4% | 0,3% |
| Construction | 0,8% | 0,8% | 1,0% | 0,3% | 1,0% | 0,4% | 1,5% | 1,5% |
| Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repairs etc. | 3,3% | 6,3% | 12,0% | 3,8% | 2,5% | 7,2% | 16,3% | 16,2% |
| Hotels and Restaurants | 0,8% | 0,4% | 3,7% | 1,2% | | 1,6% | 4,9% | 5,2% |
| Transport, Storage and Communications | 1,2% | 1,5% | 4,0% | 0,9% | 0,7% | 1,1% | 3,7% | 3,6% |
| Financial Intermediation | 1,7% | 1,4% | 4,3% | 1,7% | 1,0% | 1,5% | 3,6% | 3,7% |
| Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities | 1,2% | 1,4% | 11,9% | | | 2,3% | 8,8% | 9,5% |
| Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security | 8,4% | 12,8% | 5,4% | 3,5% | 31,0% | 2,2% | 7,4% | 7,5% |
| Education | 19,3% | 22,5% | 20,7% | 13,4% | | 5,3% | 11,3% | 10,9% |
| Health and Social Work | 7,4% | 7,3% | 17,3% | | | 4,0% | 16,4% | 17,4% |
| Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities | 4,9% | 0,9% | 5,6% | | | 1,5% | 5,5% | 5,7% |
| Private Households with Employed Persons | 1,2% | 0,2% | 2,9% | | | 2,1% | 2,1% | 2,4% |
| Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies | 0,1% | | 0,1% | | | 0,0% | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Not classifiable by economic activity | | 0,0% | 0,5% | 0,1% | | | 0,1% | 0,1% |
| Total | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 99,5% | 99,6% |

Source : Ilo Laborsta database ; Notes : see table 6

Isic Rev2

«Feminisation» of the sector of activity

Women employment/total employment ratio

| | Algeria 2004 | Egypt 2003 | Israel 2003 | Morocco 2003 | Syria 2002 | Turkey 2004 | EU25* 2003 | EU15** 2003 |
|---|-----------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry | 18,7% | 25,7% | 20,1% | 34,1% | 35,3% | 44,7% | 36,7% | 33,7% |
| Fishing | 22,3% | 1,2% | | | | 3,7% | 11,2% | 11,1% |
| Mining and Quarrying | 6,8% | 6,3% | 27,5% | 3,9% | | 1,9% | 11,2% | 10,8% |
| Manufacturing | 42,2% | 8,4% | | 38,6% | 7,8% | 20,5% | 30,1% | 28,3% |
| Electricity, Gas and Water Supply | 5,7% | 8,8% | 17,8% | 7,3% | | 6,0% | 20,3% | 20,1% |
| Construction | 1,1% | 2,1% | 8,1% | 1,0% | 1,4% | 2,4% | 8,3% | 8,3% |
| Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repairs etc. | 3,9% | 10,2% | 41,1% | 7,8% | 3,0% | 12,5% | 48,5% | 47,7% |
| Hotels and Restaurants | 6,2% | 5,1% | 42,8% | 16,9% | | 10,3% | 54,4% | 53,5% |
| Transport, Storage and Communications | 3,7% | 4,5% | 27,9% | 6,3% | 2,3% | 5,6% | 25,7% | 25,4% |
| Financial Intermediation | 33,1% | 24,0% | 59,0% | 33,9% | 14,1% | 35,4% | 50,4% | 48,5% |
| Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities | 22,7% | 14,1% | 42,7% | | | 24,0% | 44,6% | 44,8% |
| Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security | 10,3% | 22,0% | 45,5% | 18,1% | 27,2% | 10,3% | 43,4% | 42,8% |
| Education | 41,3% | 39,5% | 76,1% | 31,3% | | 37,4% | 70,7% | 69,1% |
| Health and Social Work | 42,6% | 46,2% | 76,3% | | | 49,5% | 76,8% | 76,4% |
| Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities | 32,1% | 7,9% | 52,8% | | | 14,9% | 53,4% | 53,5% |
| Private Households with Employed Persons | 45,0% | 16,0% | 87,8% | | | 65,9% | 84,5% | 84,7% |
| Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies | 28,2% | | 41,2% | | | 50,0% | 44,1% | 43,4% |
| Not classifiable by economic activity | 19,8% | 20,0% | 35,4% | 23,7% | | | 43,4% | 42,9% |
| Moyenne | 17,4% | 19,1% | 46,0% | 26,3% | 18,4% | 26,5% | 43,5% | 43,2% |

Source : Ilo Laborsta database ; Notes : see table 6

Isic Rev2