



**InFocus Programme on Socio-Economic Security**  
Seeking Distributive Justice – Basic Security for All



## **Socio-Economic Security in Africa: An Overview**

*by*

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## Introduction

During the last three years, the InFocus Programme on Socio-Economic Security (IFP/SES) has collected information and developed a database on socio-economic security and social security in the world. This centralized database is a compilation of primary and secondary data on the seven forms of security as defined in the Programme's terms of reference at macro level (Socio-Economic Security {SES} questionnaire) and is enhanced by surveys carried out in enterprises in ten or more countries (Enterprise Labour Flexibility Surveys {ELFS} - meso level) and households (People Security Surveys {PSS} – micro level).

One of the chief results is “exploratory” work in developing a series of indicators and synthetic indices. The ultimate goal is to construct a decent work index, classifications and any other indicators that might contribute to the policy debate on socio-economic security at international, regional and national level.

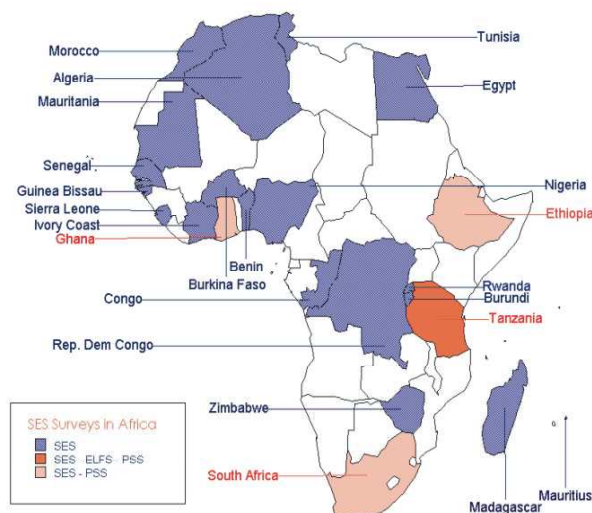
This summary offers an overview of the programme's activities concerning Africa. It is intended to complement the more detailed information presented in country profiles or papers based on the results of national household and enterprise surveys.

The results presented in this document are based on data from the SES databases. The objective is to give a picture of the situation in Africa from the point of view of availability of information and socio-economic security in all its aspects.

More specifically, this note presents some of the results for Africa based on information gathered through the SES questionnaire and secondary data compiled from other sources. The first part is devoted to an evaluation of the availability of relevant information on workers security, especially in Africa. The second part seeks to provide an overview of the national social security systems in Africa. Finally, part three presents a few of the indices on socio-economic security calculated for selected African countries.

## 1. Projects in the IFP/SES Programme in Africa and availability of information

The IFP/SES programme is present in Africa at the following three levels of analysis:



### 1.1 Micro level: PSS households surveys

The objective of PSS surveys is to study the socio-economic security of households, based on objective and subjective factors. This situation is evaluated by studying:

- the socio-economic situation of the interviewee and the household;
- the interviewee's perception of security and insecurity;
- sources of socio-economic insecurity among groups presenting different demographic and social characteristics;
- knowledge of policies and measures taken concerning socio-economic security;
- perceptions of these policies and measures;
- action and reaction mechanisms adopted by households in the face of such insecurity.

PSS surveys were carried out in 2001 and 2002 in Ethiopia, Ghana, South Africa and Tanzania.

### 1.2. Meso level: Surveys on labour flexibility and socio-economic security in enterprises

These surveys at company level examine the process of job creation, use of labour, pattern of employment, conditions of work and employment relations. An ELFS survey was carried out in Tanzania in 392 enterprises (year 2002).

### 1.3. Macro level: Databases on socio-economic security

The SES programme has three databases at macro level:

- 
- the primary database on socio-economic security developed from the SES questionnaire;
  - the secondary SES questionnaire database which complements and extends the primary SES database by adding factors specific to the country's social and economic environment;
  - the SES social security database, which gives a picture of the situation of social security systems by country.

### **1.3.1 SES questionnaire and the primary SES database**

The SES questionnaire was designed to gather data at macro level on the seven forms of socio-economic security as defined in the programme's terms of reference: labour market security, employment security, work security, job security, skill reproduction security, income security, representation security.

The objective, by analysing these textual and quantitative data, is to construct indicators, statistics and indices on the situation relating to trends and institutions in the security of workers around the world.

Nearly 100 countries have completed the questionnaire which has 80 questions for 1990 and 1999, the majority broken down by gender. Twenty-three African countries are currently covered.

### **1.3.2 Secondary SES database**

The secondary SES database, developed from international data sources (ILO, UNESCO, World Bank, UNDP, OECD, Eurostat, etc.) fulfils two objectives: (i) to complement and check the data in the primary SES database; and (ii) provide contextual indicators. The secondary database covers all the countries available in the selected international databases.

### **1.3.3 SES social security database**

Social security, its institutions and mechanisms, are an essential component of socio-economic security. The available information is mainly textual, unsuited to statistical analysis. In order to alleviate this constraint, a coding system has been created to provide a database that can be used for statistical analysis.

This database gives a general overview of the situation of social security systems in the world, together with a detailed description of the mechanisms on which the various systems are based. It relates to 1999 and covers 102 countries, 25 of them in Africa.

The information comes from two sources: (i) the 1999 edition of "Social Security Throughout the World", and (ii) the ILO website on the cost of social security. The data are presented broken down by branch of social security. ILO Convention No. 102 defines minimum criteria for the nine main branches of social security: (i) medical care, (ii) sickness benefit, (iii) maternity benefit, (iv) old-age benefit, (v) invalidity benefit, (vi) survivors' benefit, (vii) family benefit, (viii) employment injury benefit, and (ix) unemployment benefit. However, only compulsory national social security systems paying cash benefits

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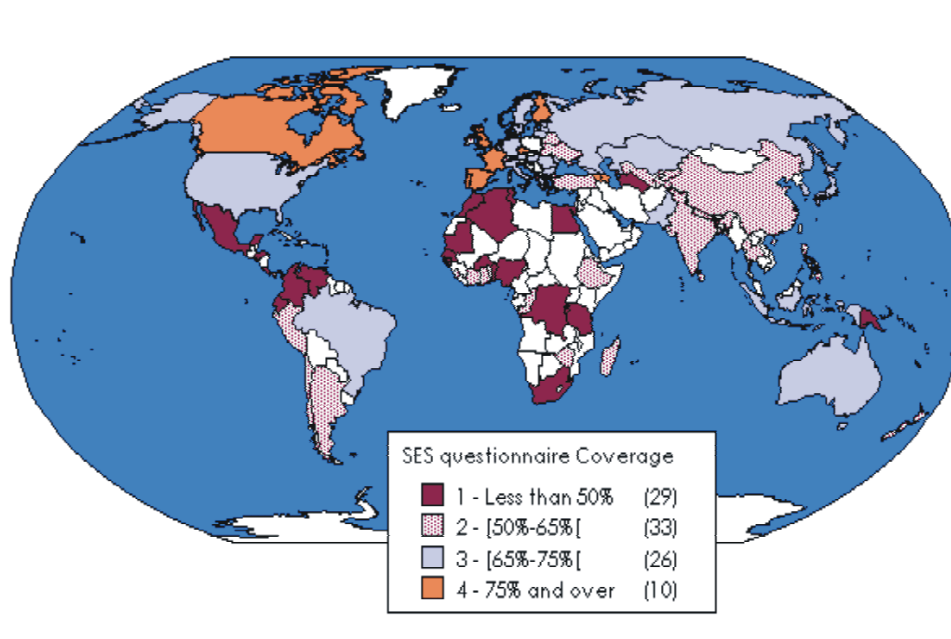
are included in the database.<sup>1</sup> Each includes quantitative (cover, contribution rates, etc.) and qualitative variables.

### 1.3.4 Availability of information at macro level

#### Global coverage of SES questionnaires

An analysis of the percentage of replies for the whole SES questionnaire allows an initial evaluation of the availability of information on socio-economic security in Africa and the situation in African countries compared with the other countries covered.

**Figure 1. SES questionnaire: comparison of response rates for the reference year 1999**



On a global level, the picture of countries according to data availability on socio-economic security shows:

- a considerable variation in levels of coverage: a few industrialized countries stand out for their high coverage rates, over 75 and even 80 per cent. The average rate in Western Europe and North America is over 70 per cent;
- some of the lowest rates in Africa: on average, the response rate for 1999 is 45 per cent compared with an average for all the countries covered of 60 per cent;
- contrasting situations within the African continent, since the scarcity of information does not affect all African countries equally.

<sup>1</sup> Medical care, housing and social assistance schemes are not included because they operate essentially at local level. Like the majority of social assistance schemes, they consist of benefits in kind, or rely on different arrangements, such as housing schemes.



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## The particular case of Africa: contrasting situations

The francophone African countries are well represented among the lowest coverage rates: Senegal, Burundi, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Benin, Mauritania, Morocco and Rwanda have coverage rates of under 50 per cent for 1999. These rates are still low, despite taking into account information available elsewhere in international secondary databases.

Conversely, the island of Mauritius stands very much apart from the other countries with a coverage rate of over 70 per cent.

**Table 1. Coverage rate for the SES questionnaire for African countries (reference year 1999)**

Country	Coverage rate	Country	Coverage rate
Mauritius	71	Congo, Democratic Republic of	44.75
Sierra Leone	58.75	South Africa	44.5
Ghana	58	Guinea-Bissau	44
Côte d'Ivoire	56	Rwanda	44
Madagascar	55.5	Mauritania	42.25
Zimbabwe	55.5	Benin	41.75
Congo	51.25	Burkina Faso	41.5
Ethiopia	50.75	Morocco	37.5
Algeria	49.5	Tanzania, United Republic of	37.25
Nigeria	49.25	Burundi	35.25
Egypt	48	Senegal	32
Tunisia	46.25		

In Africa, as in other countries included in the primary SES database, certain questions and even some sections of the questionnaire are barely covered, but more than elsewhere there is a striking lack of data.

The qualitative questions generally show a higher coverage rate than purely quantitative questions, which are potential indicators of the “actual situation” or “state”. This is especially the case of information necessary to ascertain the existence and extent of the legislative framework, institutions or means of action. This type of information is available for the majority of countries, including those in Africa. For example, questions on whether there is a law against discrimination against women in terms of occupation, or a law guaranteeing maternity leave to women employees are covered by all the countries. On the other hand, statistics to determine the extent of the population affected by a particular form of security are rarely available. Also, less than 50 per cent of African countries have information on the number of workers employed in professional or technical work, especially when it comes to information broken down by gender.

Coverage rates also differ according to the form of security covered. This observation is true for all countries, in Africa or elsewhere. The most characteristic case is the job security section. This section seeks to determine security in terms of “content” of the work performed and the notion of career and professional development. Work has been carried out on this topic, in Europe notably, through surveys. A commonly used indicator available at national level is the distribution of the actively employed population by occupation. However,

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the availability of such information is very relative. In fact data are scarce and the different classifications make it difficult to draw comparisons between countries.

The sections on skill reproduction security and income security are also not very well covered in countries generally. Conversely, the section on labour market security shows the highest response rate. This section includes all the indicators commonly used to characterize a country's workforce: actively employed population, unemployment, employment by sector and status in employment.

Nevertheless, while the ranking of forms of security by coverage is the same for Africa and other countries, the absolute response rates are very much lower in Africa, even for the most common statistics. Indeed, Africa has a certain number of peculiarities in terms of availability and comparability of information. Apart from the lack of information already mentioned, the user of labour statistics is also faced with considerable differences for a single indicator, depending on the source used, including for the most common indicators. The rate of unemployment is an example. The definition of the population entering in the calculation varies from one country to another, and from one source to another. Thus it may involve a rate of unemployment related to only the formal active population, at most 20 per cent of the population, or an unemployment rate at national level or solely in urban areas. In Tanzania, for example, according to ILO-KILM data, the unemployment rate was 3.5 per cent in 1991. It was 22 per cent in 1999 (ILO, 2001b). In 1991 the unemployment rate was shown only for Tanganyika. What can one make of this pattern? How much can be attributed to real change and how much simply to the change in the population and definitions considered?

Differences can be seen between official unemployment statistics in Laborsta (the ILO's database of labour statistics) and estimates produced outside the ILO, or the results obtained from SES data. According to the Laborsta statistics, in Burkina Faso the number of job seekers fell six-fold between 1991 and 2000 (from 34,821 to 6,617). In the Laborsta database, the unemployment rate was estimated at 18 per cent in 1991, yet according to a more recent estimate, the rate was 26.2 per cent for 1999. In the face of these difficulties, choices are not only limited in terms of a group of indicators but also difficult for a single indicator and a given country. Whatever the form of security, the lack of information makes any attempt to develop a complex index a utopian dream.

## Alternatives

The PSS (People's Security Surveys) surveys conducted at micro level provide more detailed information for each of the seven forms of security. These surveys at present cover only a limited number of countries, four in Africa, but they allow an in-depth analysis of each form of security by country. However, these analyses apply only to the population selected in the sample and in some cases cannot be extrapolated to the whole country. Indeed, depending on the country, there has been a bias towards some sectors, regions or population sub-groups. Nevertheless, the data contain a wealth of information and provide valuable indications of the state of security or insecurity of the people concerned.

Thus, these surveys allow an analysis of the forms of security not picked up or little developed at macro level. This is the case, for example, of job security or the perception of insecurity, which are not conveyed by the macro data.

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## 2. Social security in Africa

We read in the report of the Director-General on decent work in Africa that “working conditions, social protection and the health and safety situation of workers are precarious in most African countries, particularly in the rural and informal sectors”.... “In addition to their poor working conditions, social protection in Africa is limited to a minute fraction of the labour force. In some countries social protection systems cover less than 10 per cent of the total labour force, and this coverage is for a limited number of hazards”. While it is true that social protection systems in Africa are generally little developed, situations vary.

This section presents an overview of the chief characteristics of the social security models in the region and the links between those models, related costs and different social and economic development indicators.

### 2.1 Overview of the situation

For each of the 25 African countries covered, the database provides information by country for the year 1999 for the following eight branches of social security: sickness, maternity, pensions, invalidity, survivors, family allowances, work injuries and unemployment benefit. This information covers institutional aspects such as the existence of a law and a programme, and more operational characteristics such as costs, type of programme (insurance or assistance) and the related conditionalities or eligibility criteria.

Although information is available on the formal and institutional aspects, there is, on the other hand, little or no information as to the impact or effectiveness of such aspects. Only a few countries, indeed, have data on the number or actual ratio of beneficiaries, the number of protected persons or contributors. Because of this constraint, the picture presented in this section and the index developed rely essentially on (a) the institutional and (b) operational forms of social security, adjusted by an indicator of potential beneficiaries of social protection systems.

#### 2.1.1 Institutional arrangements

##### Legislation

Depending on the branch of social security, specific laws and programmes have been adopted since the beginning of the 20th century. It was in South Africa, then North Africa (Algeria and Tunisia) between 1914 and 1921 that the first laws were passed laying down the first provisions on work injuries. In 1995, except in Zimbabwe (1990), all the selected African countries had passed a law on work injuries. In the 1950s, many countries, including francophone Africa, were introducing maternity legislation. Concerning the pensions, survivors and invalidity branches, the majority of countries passed laws in the 1960s. Sickness protection provisions are not covered by a law in the majority of the countries.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> The lack of a law does not mean that no provision has been made. Some countries leave it up to the employer to compensate the employee, especially in the case of sickness or unemployment. This is not a case of a programme, but a limited provision generally set out in the Labour Code.

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The countries of North Africa passed a law in the late 1950s and early 60s. Only two countries in francophone Africa (Burundi in 1993 and Congo in 1975) and Mauritius (1975) did likewise.

Irrespective of the branch of social security, the countries of North Africa and South Africa were the first to introduce a social security system. Many countries in sub-Saharan Africa do not yet have social security programmes in some branches, especially unemployment.

## International Conventions

Several ILO international Conventions concern either social security in general –Convention No. 102 (Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952) – or a specific branch, chief among them being:

- for the maternity branch – the Maternity Protection Convention (Revised), 1952 (No. 103);
- for the work injuries branch – the Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121);
- for the pensions, invalidity and survivors branches – the Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention, 1967 (No. 128);
- for the sickness branch – the Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention, 1969 (No. 130).

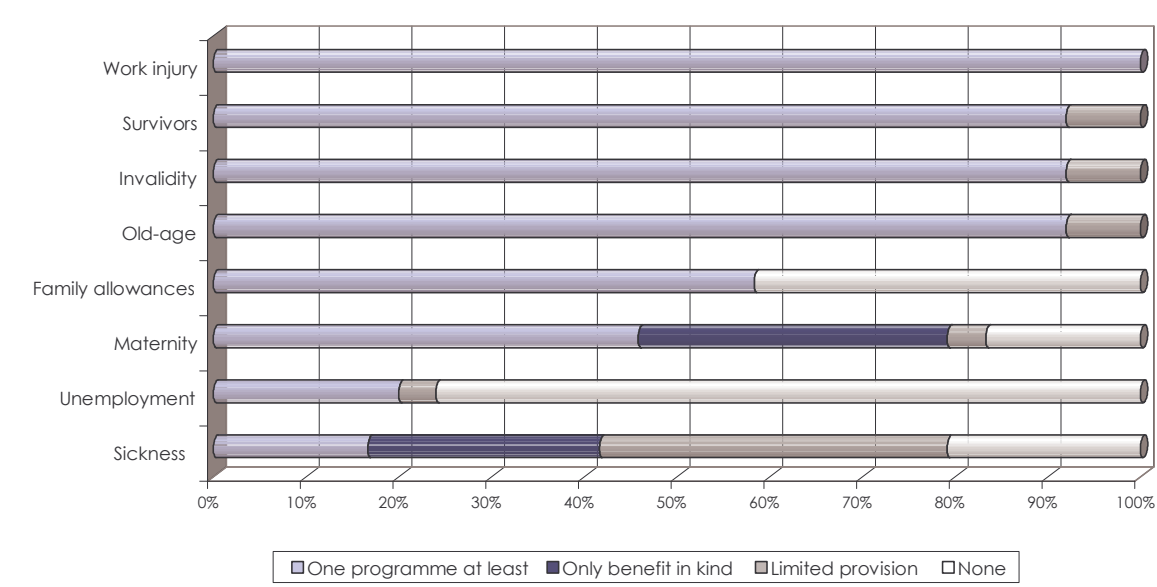
Conventions Nos. 128 and 130 have so far been ratified by only a minority of countries, none of them in the African continent. Among the African countries covered by the social security database, only Ghana has ratified Convention No. 103 on maternity and only two countries (Senegal and the Democratic Republic of Congo) have ratified Convention No. 121 on the work injuries branch. Finally, concerning Convention No. 102, only a few countries in francophone Africa have ratified it in part (Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Senegal and Mauritania). In view of the legislative provisions and programmes adopted elsewhere, in particular by the countries of North Africa, South Africa and Mauritius, countries which have not ratified any of these Conventions, the link between ratification and the effective introduction of a social security system seems far from consistent.

## Existence of a programme

Figure 2 below shows for each of the 8 selected branches the existence of a programme, limited provision or, conversely, the absence of any provision to date.

The first thing to note is that the various branches of social security are not uniformly covered. All the countries have a work injury programme. Programmes on pensions, survivors and the disabled are also very widespread. Conversely, only a minority of countries have introduced a programme, or even just a law with limited scope (limited provision) specifically for the unemployment branch. Only 5 out of the 25 countries offer a programme of unemployment: unemployment insurance in Algeria, Egypt and South Africa, while Tunisia and Mauritius, for their part, have a means-tested assistance programme. Finally, in four countries, including Tanzania, the Labour Code mentions the employer's obligation to pay a minimum termination compensation to employees with a minimum number of years of service in the enterprise.

**Figure 2. Existence of a programme by social security branch for 25 selected African countries**



### The particular case of the health branch

**Table 2. Existence of a programme for the sickness branch**

Programme	Limited provision (eg. labour code only)	Only benefit in kind (eg. medical benefit)	None
Algeria	Benin	Ghana	Burkina Faso
Egypt	Burundi	Mauritania	Côte d'Ivoire
Morocco	Congo	Senegal	Nigeria
Tunisia	Congo, Dem. Rep. of	Somalia	Sudan
	Ethiopia	Tanzania, United Rep.	Uganda
	Madagascar	Zimbabwe	
	Mauritius		
	Rwanda		
	Sierra Leone		

In the case of sickness leave, only the countries of North Africa have a programme (Algeria, Egypt, Tunisia and Morocco). The majority of countries have limited provision mentioned in the labour code or benefit in kind.

Source: SES Social Security Database

Few countries in Africa have a programme containing provisions as to the length and amount of the compensation or the conditions for payment of sickness benefit. On the other hand, many of them mention limited provision, usually in the Labour Code.

### Number of branches covered

The number of branches covered can be considered as an indicator of the extent of institutional provision adopted in relation to social security and the concern in a country at national level or among local authorities about people and workers' security.

Only two countries cover all the branches of social security. The highest number of branches covered is in North Africa. Algeria and Tunisia have a social security system in which all branches are covered, while Egypt and Morocco are

characterized by the absence of a programme of unemployment or family benefits.

**Table 3. Number of social security branches covered**

1 branch	4 branches	5 branches	6 branches	7 branches	8 branches
Sierra Leone	Ethiopia	Burundi	Benin	Egypt	Algeria
Somalia	Ghana	Congo, Democratic Rep of	Burkina Faso	Morocco	Tunisia
	Nigeria		Congo		
	Rwanda		Côte d'Ivoire		
	Sudan		Madagascar		
	Tanzania, United Rep. of		Mauritania		
	Uganda		Mauritius		
	Zimbabwe		Senegal		
			South Africa		

Source: SES Social Security Database

Sierra Leone and Somalia have only one programme, covering the specific issue of work injuries. In Sierra Leone, the employer is responsible for the programme. In Somalia, the employee is covered by insurance but is only compensated in the event of a minimum degree of incapacity fixed at 13 per cent.

In the second group of countries, four branches of social security are covered. In all of them, these branches are work injuries, pensions, survivors and invalidity. The most widespread type of programme is social insurance except in Tanzania and Uganda, where the system of pension funds was retained for the pensions, survivors and invalidity branches.

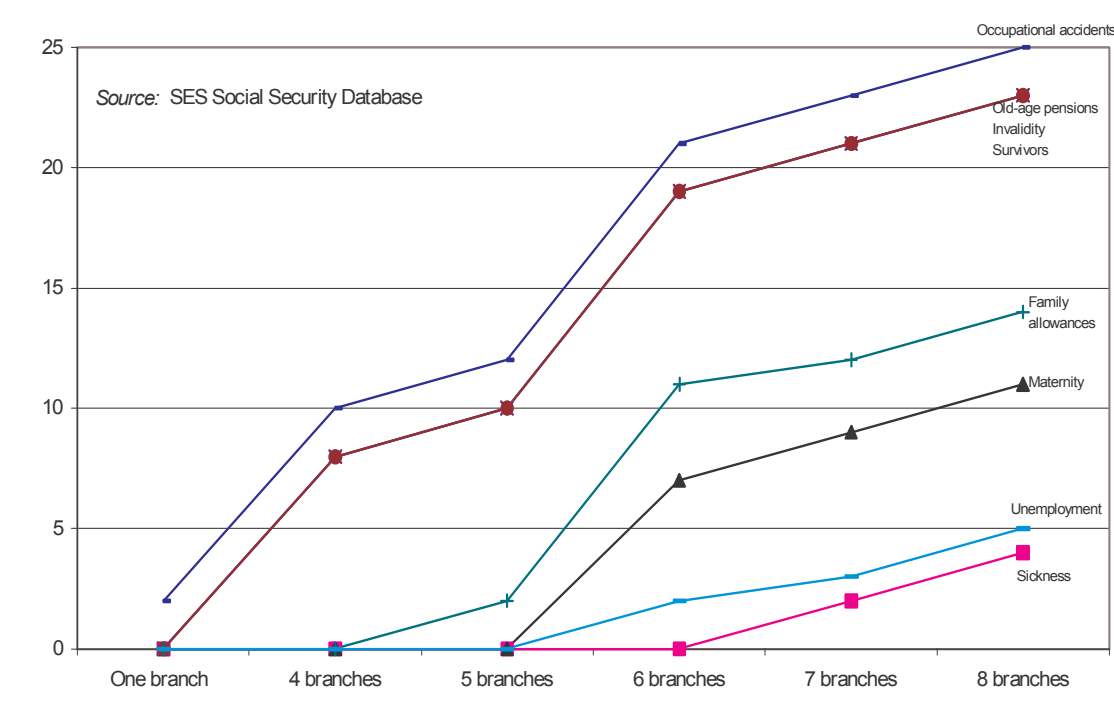
Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo have established a programme for the four branches mentioned above as well as family allowances.

In the next group, nine countries have a programme for six social security branches. Except for Mauritius and South Africa, these countries cover all the programmes apart from unemployment and sickness, which is covered by a limited provision in the Labour Code. In the case of Mauritius and South Africa, a programme of unemployment cover was proposed, and adopted in 1993, but is still little developed in Mauritius, and a social insurance type in South Africa. On the other hand, in both these countries, maternity is not covered by a specific programme.

Analysis of the extent of the social security system in place in a country shows the stages already completed and to be completed for many of them. It also shows the branches most commonly covered and the way in which they have been gradually integrated in the overall social security system. The order observed in Africa differs little from that found in other countries covered by the SES social security database. Figure 3 below shows that the work injuries branch is the most widespread and covered by all the countries. The pensions, invalidity and survivors group is then addressed, usually globally and simultaneously. The majority of African countries encompass these four branches. The other four social security branches are significantly less represented. Africa is distinguished from the other regions by the very few countries with a programme for the sickness branch. As indicated earlier, however, the majority of them at least have a reference to it in the Labour Code or benefits in kind, chiefly in the form of medicines or medical consultations. On the other hand, in line with the general

pattern, risk of unemployment is the least covered, the case of Africa being the most extreme.

**Figure 3. Cumulative number of countries by number of branches covered**



### 2.1.2 Operational provisions: Mechanisms and instruments

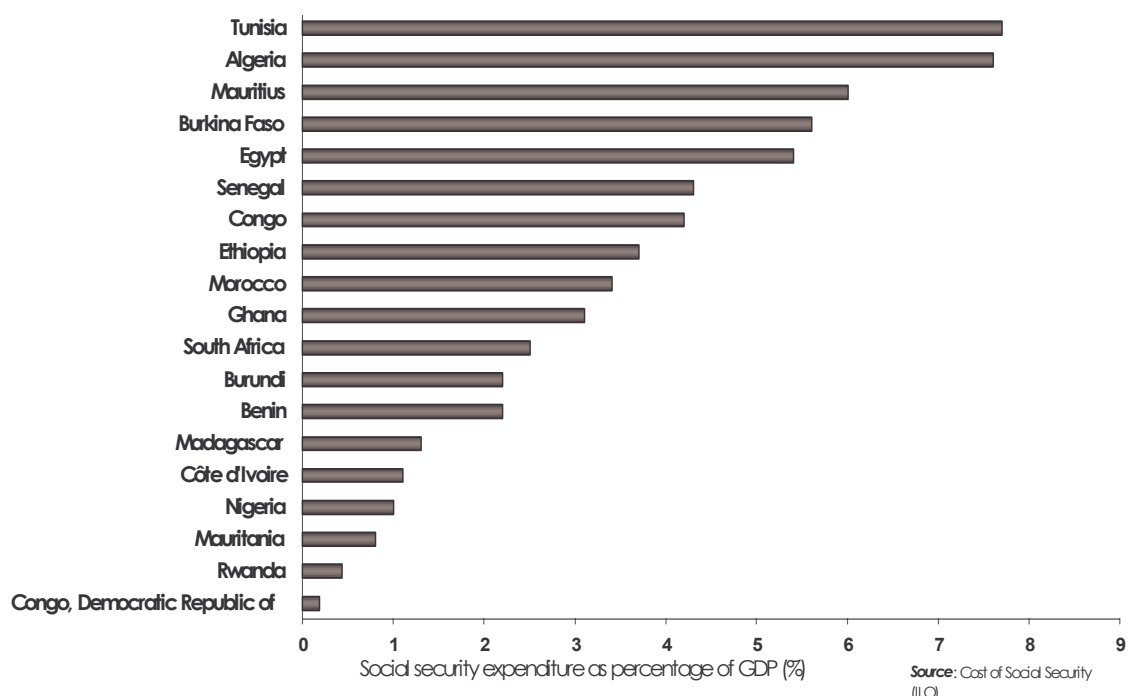
#### Social security expenditure as a percentage of GDP

Information on total expenditure on social security as a percentage of GDP is available for only a few countries in North Africa and 15 of the 21 countries in the rest of Africa. The average total expenditure as a percentage of GDP is 3.1 per cent (median value 3.3 per cent). However, the average percentage varies considerably from 2.6 per cent for the countries of sub-Saharan Africa<sup>3</sup> to 6 per cent in North Africa.

<sup>3</sup> The countries of sub-Saharan Africa are considered to be all the countries of Africa, apart from the countries of North Africa.



Figure 4. Total expenditure on social security as a percentage of GDP in selected African countries



A study of the correlation between social security expenditure as a percentage of GDP and other indicators shows a positive correlation with the Human Development Index (HDI) and a slight negative correlation with the Gini coefficient. In the 102 countries covered by the SES social security database, the correlation between the Gini coefficient and social security expenditure as a percentage of GDP was higher than that measured for the African continent alone. This would suggest that investment in social security is linked to the country's degree of social development. Moreover, even if only slight, the negative correlation with the Gini coefficient would tend to show that a country with the least income inequalities would also tend to invest more in social protection. Interpreting this way and assuming a causal link, we might envisage that greater investment in social security would result in less inequality of incomes among the population.

## Types of social security programmes

### *Significance and scope of the programmes*

There are three main categories of social security programmes:

- Employment-related social insurance programmes:
  - eligibility may depend on length of employment or simply the existence of an employment relationship;
  - the basis of calculation of the benefit (unemployment, sickness, maternity, work injury) generally depends on the wage level and length of service;



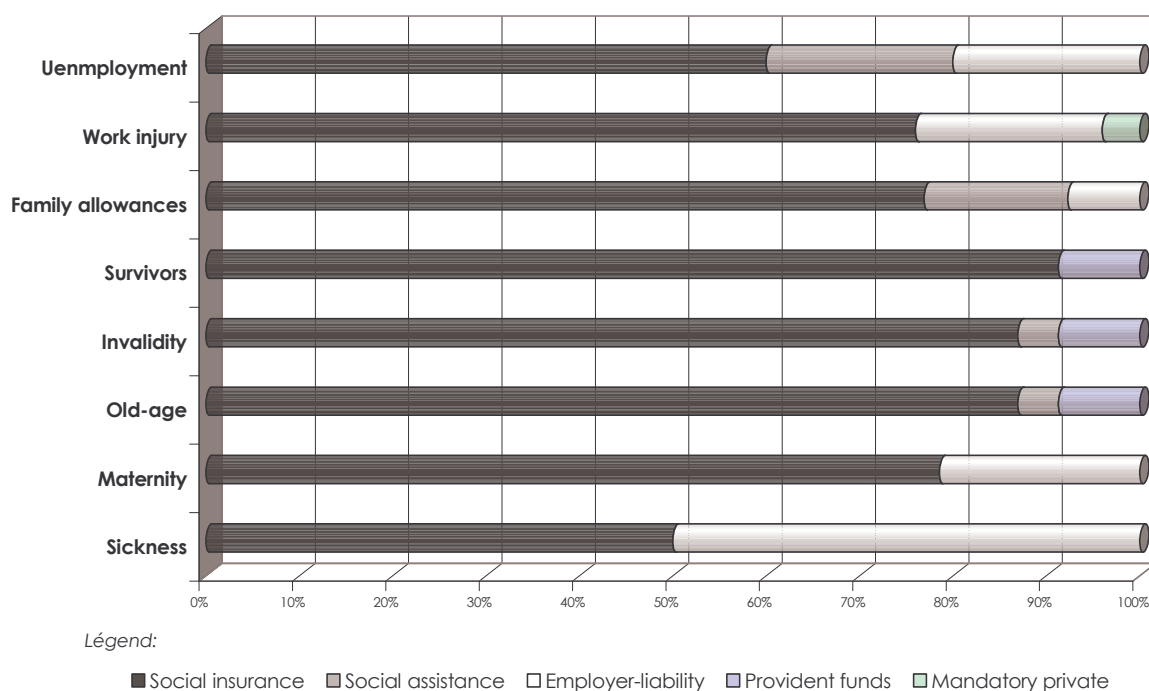
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- insurance systems are financed by employers' or employees' contributions or both. The government may participate in the financing and is in practice the ultimate guarantor of the contributions.
  - Universal systems or programmes financed from taxation provide fixed benefits to residents or citizens of the country concerned, irrespective of income or employment. The amounts paid are often low and reserved for certain specific cases such as retirement pensions for people over a fixed age-limit or pensions for disabled workers. These programmes are most often linked to other types of programmes.
  - Means-tested programmes establish eligibility for benefits dependent on the resources of the individual or the family. These assistance programmes are generally aimed at people or households on low incomes. The limits fixed by a law may vary considerably from one country to another. These programmes are most often financed from taxes raised by the government.

The majority of social security systems fall into these three categories of programme. However, three other systems exist and are used, especially in Africa:

- compulsory private insurance systems: these programmes have the same characteristics as the social insurance which they replace or complement, but are private. These systems are financed by the employee (sometimes with a contribution by the employer).
- savings or provident funds, especially in developing countries. They consist of compulsory savings by the employee, repaid either as a lump sum or an annuity.
- programmes based on employer-liability are usually defined in the Labour Code. The compensation or benefit is paid directly by the employer.

As shown in Figure 5, the most common type of programme is social insurance, irrespective of the branch of social security, apart from sickness. However, in Africa more than elsewhere employer-liability programmes and provident funds are also used. The latter two types of programme generally offer very limited cover.

Figure 5. Main types of programme by social security branch (main programme) in Africa



### 2.1.3 Towards a global social security index for Africa

The SES data set has enabled the construction of a synthetic index of social security systems for Africa. This index meets the need for a general analysis of the socio-economic situation of a country or region and allows classification of countries according to the extent to which they have developed their social security system.

The available data are essentially of an institutional and operational order. The picture drawn by this index thus reflects a view of the institutions and mechanisms in place rather than their actual application in practice. This limitation is the result of a lack of data, not only for Africa, but globally, concerning the effective coverage of the provisions adopted and thus the level of impact.

The following criteria or indicators have been adopted in the construction of such an index for the 25 African countries at present covered by the SES database:

#### Institutional indicators

**Existence of a programme for the different social security branches,** meaning that there is at least a law for each of them. The chosen indicator is the number of branches covered by a programme. This indicator seeks to ascertain the awareness and will of the country and authorities to propose measures to provide a certain security to workers and citizens generally.

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## Operational indicators (mechanisms and instruments)

**Social security expenditure as a percentage of GDP.** This criterion is used to classify countries according to the amount of resources allocated to social security, irrespective of the strategy adopted.

**Number of branches covered by a social insurance type programme** as the main programme. Social insurance is the most beneficial type of programme for workers in terms of benefits, other advantages and limitation of risks. This criterion tends to take account of the “quality” and “policy content” of the choices made by countries.

**Having a programme for the unemployment and/or sickness branch** (and not just a limited provision or benefits in kind). These two branches were chosen because their coverage is marginal and they seem to represent the ultimate stages in a global system offering full social cover.

## Result or outcome indicators

As mentioned above, little or no information about the actual number of beneficiaries of social security provision by branch and overall is available. For instance, among the 25 countries, only a minority have statistics on pensions and work injuries.

Consequently, the result indicator selected is wage employment as a proportion of total employment, assuming as a principle that the potential beneficiaries of social security systems (mainly social insurance and employer-liability type) are employees.

Figure 6 below<sup>4</sup> shows the breakdown by country according to the score obtained from the index constructed on the basis of these three dimensions and suggests the following comments:

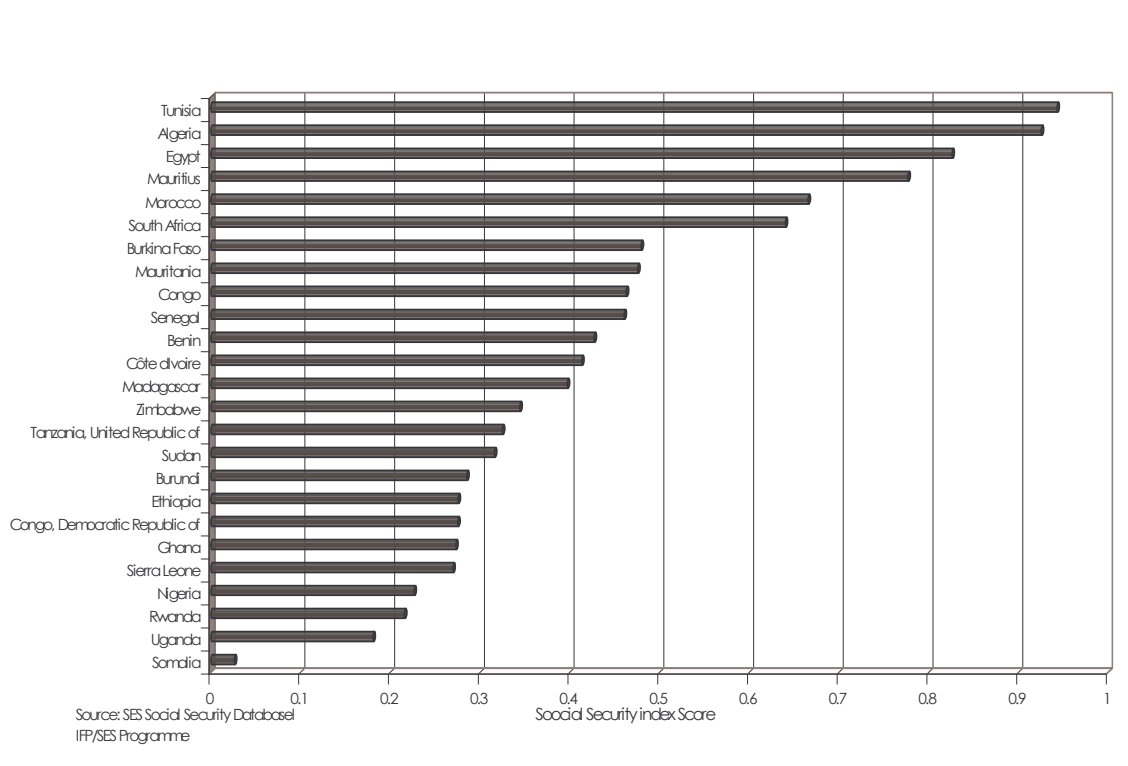
- The scores show a step between the countries of North Africa, Mauritius and South Africa, which have the highest scores, and the other selected countries of Africa.
- A second group, the countries of francophone sub-Saharan Africa (Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Congo, Senegal, Benin, Côte d'Ivoire and Madagascar) are in an intermediate situation. Institutional arrangements have been put in place for the majority of the social security branches. Only the unemployment and sickness branches are not covered by a programme or a law. Irrespective of the branch, the programmes adopted are of the social insurance type. Unlike the first group, in these countries the proportion of wage employment used as an indicator of “potential” coverage is very low.
- In the third group of countries, the scope of the institutional provision is even more limited and the type of programme adopted offers less beneficial conditions. The resources allocated to social security as a percentage of GDP are less than 1 per cent (except in

<sup>4</sup> The corresponding data can be found in Annex I.

Ghana, Ethiopia and Burundi). The social security system is still little developed, and in some countries, the first laws were passed only very recently, in the early 1990s in the case of Zimbabwe. Somalia is an extreme case. There, only work injuries are covered.

Finally, the index shows significant positive correlation with the human development index, and negative correlation with the Gini coefficient.

**Figure 6. Social security index scores for the 25 selected African countries**



### 3. Socio-economic security in Africa

#### 3.1 Socio-economic security indices: general principles and methods

The IFP/SES programme has developed an index for each of the seven forms of socio-economic security, the objective being to provide comparative measures of a country's strengths and weaknesses in this area. The approach and method of calculation are identical for each of these seven indices.

Their construction involved a set of choices and also compromises. The availability of data is a major constraint in many countries and to some extent limits the reliability or scope of the indices. For most of the forms of security, two indices were produced; a more detailed one for the industrialized countries and a simplified one covering all the other countries. There were two reasons for this decision: different environments justifying a different approach and the lack of information already mentioned.

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Ideally, the choice of each indicator depends on the conceptual approach adopted for each form of security. It should provide precise, quantifiable information about an element or factor identified as important to a particular aspect of socio-economic security. In practice, especially in the case of developing countries, lack of information forces one to make limited choices, use “proxies” or make estimates on a regional basis, using information available elsewhere.

Each index is divided into three components<sup>5</sup>:

- “input” or institutional component: “input” indicators refer to laws, regulations and government commitments in particular relating to principles set out in the ILO International Conventions. These indicators seek to ascertain the existence of an institutional provision in respect of a particular form of socio-economic security;
- “process” or operational indicators refer to mechanisms and instruments in place to protect, provide and strengthen a particular form of security, such as the means deployed to enforce laws;
- “outcome” or result indicators which measure the application and effectiveness of the measures adopted. These are data on the extent of the population covered by the provisions and actions taken for the form of security concerned.

This distinction between “input”, “process” and “outcome” allows in particular the strengths and weaknesses of the different countries to be identified for each of the components. It is then possible to identify different configurations and suggest the most appropriate level of intervention in each case.

### **3.2 Main characteristics of the labour market in Africa**

This section presents the results for Africa for the three indices calculated for the region.<sup>6</sup> Two other indices are summarized in the annex. For a better interpretation of these results, an overview of the main features of the labour market in Africa is presented by way of introduction. This is not an analysis of the labour market but simply a reminder of certain characteristics of the market, some common, some different, according to the country, which may directly or indirectly affect the construction of indicators and facilitate their interpretation.

<sup>5</sup> Details of the method of calculation are presented in the annex.

<sup>6</sup> A decent work index was constructed for a few countries in the group of industrialized countries and presented at a seminar in December. The majority of forms of security also have an index covering the industrialized and developing countries. The detailed results are contained in the documents produced at that time.

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### **3.2.1 Differentiated activity rates: high in most parts of sub-Saharan Africa, and fairly low in North Africa**

An analysis of activity rates<sup>7</sup> provides some significant elements.

In **North Africa**, more than the rest of Africa, the activity rate shows a downward trend,<sup>8</sup> in Tunisia, for example, from 58.8 per cent to 51.4 per cent over the 1990s.

Another characteristic of North Africa is the low participation of women in the labour market. The highest rate of women's participation is in Morocco, just over 30 per cent, rather low compared with other countries with comparable levels of education and fertility. This is true even for highly educated women.

In the countries of **sub-Saharan Africa**, the downward trend in activity rates is much more modest. The higher population growth rates (estimated at almost 3 per cent per year) and the rise in urbanization rates in some countries have a significant impact on the growth in the active population. It is likely that this rate will double in number over the next 25 years and exert considerable pressure on urban labour markets.

The countries of sub-Saharan Africa show high activity rates (over 70 per cent), for men and women alike. Women's participation is particular high in the less developed countries where the majority of the active population lives in rural areas. That is the case of Rwanda and Burundi, which have activity rates of around 90 per cent for women.

### **3.2.2 An imbalance in supply and demand for labour**

Several adjustments appear to have occurred in the labour market in Africa in response to the major imbalance between supply and demand for labour: an increase in unemployment and under-employment and an increase in informal employment. However, there is a perceptible difference between the situations in North and sub-Saharan Africa.

The employment situation in **North Africa** is still unfavourable in most of the countries and even worsened in 2001. Economic growth (ranging from 2.6 to 5.1 per cent annually over the period 1995-2001) did not generate enough employment opportunities to absorb the unemployed and the newcomers to the labour market. This situation was aggravated by the mismatch, both qualitative and quantitative, between the education and training system and the productive system.

<sup>7</sup> See Table in annex 2.

<sup>8</sup> Demographic growth reduces the potentially active proportion of the population while at the same time progress in health increases life expectancy. In addition, the rise in school attendance, both in numbers and length, means that young people enter the labour market later.

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The countries of **North Africa** show the highest unemployment rates<sup>9</sup> in the region and developing countries as a whole. In Algeria, the unemployment rate rose from 19.8 per cent in 1990 to 28.7 per cent in 1991. In Morocco, the rate rose from 15.8 to 22.0 per cent between 1990 and 1999. This rise was accompanied by an increase in urban long-term unemployment.<sup>10</sup>

Except in Algeria, the unemployment rate is higher for women, despite their low level of participation in the labour market.<sup>11</sup>

The share of the informal economy is estimated at 48 per cent for non-agricultural employment in North Africa. Self-employment is estimated at 31 per cent, compared with 23 per cent ten years earlier (ILO, 2002). Finally, the informal economy contributes 27 per cent to GDP in this region.

In the countries of **sub-Saharan Africa**, the recent economy recovery has had little effect in stimulating job creation. Indeed, although the economic repercussions of structural adjustment programmes are regarded as positive, the social consequences are negative. The reforms carried out in the context of these programmes have led to staff reductions both in the public services and in the formal private enterprise sector.

The percentage of the active population officially unemployed is often fairly low. Statistics are scarce or limited to the formal economy, which employs hardly more than 20 per cent of the active population in some countries. These relatively low unemployment rates mask the scale of the employment problem in Africa. Given the extreme poverty and the absence of unemployment benefit in most of the countries, no one can allow himself to remain unemployed.<sup>12</sup> The spread of self-employment, and informal employment generally, urban and rural, was essential to absorb the labour surplus, and led to a comparative decline in wage employment.

In the countries of sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, the informal economy contributes 41 per cent of GDP. The upward trend in self-employment is one of the major characteristics of the countries of sub-Saharan Africa, especially among women. The share of self-employment in the non-agricultural sectors doubled for women from 44 per cent in 1980 to 90 per cent in 1990. The majority of these women work in family in micro-enterprises.

<sup>9</sup> See Table annex 3.

<sup>10</sup> In Morocco, for example, the proportion of long-term unemployed was estimated at 74.4 per cent in 1998.

<sup>11</sup> In Egypt, for example, the unemployment rate for women is almost four times higher than for men (19.9 per cent for women against 5.1 per cent for men in 1998). In Egypt and Morocco, it appears that women graduates (tertiary level) are more vulnerable to unemployment than men. Unemployed women are either newcomers to the labour market, or women who have lost their jobs as a result of restructuring or privatization, especially in Tunisia and Morocco.

<sup>12</sup> Moreover, a positive correlation can be seen between declared unemployment rates and the existence of an unemployment protection system in the country (the case notably of the countries of North Africa, South Africa and Mauritius).

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### **3.2.3 The pattern of employment by status and by sector (agriculture, industry, services): a contrasting situation**

Regular wage employment, unlike in the industrial countries, is not the predominant form of employment in many African countries. Regular wage employment accounts for no more than 5 to 10 per cent of total employment in the selected sub-Saharan francophone countries.<sup>13</sup> This proportion, however, varies. The countries of North Africa, South Africa and Mauritius are marked by much higher ratios of wagedworkers than the rest of Africa.<sup>14</sup>

In **North Africa**, the distribution is fairly even between the three main sectors, albeit with a strong predominance of services in Morocco. The agricultural sector in all these countries (Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria) is less productive than the industry and services sectors, which together contribute over 90 per cent of GDP.

In **sub-Saharan Africa**, the agriculture sector still accounts for the highest share of employment in several countries: around 90 per cent in Burkina Faso, Rwanda, Tanzania and Ethiopia. In other countries, economic growth and the rural exodus are accompanied by structural changes with an increase in the share of the services sector and a decline in the agriculture sector. Such is the case of Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Congo and Ghana, countries characterized by a chiefly urban population, unlike Rwanda.

### **3.3 Employment security index<sup>15</sup>**

The Employment security index is related to the characteristics of the labour market and takes account of certain of the characteristics described above.

For wagedworkers, employment security is generally defined as protection against unfair or unjustified dismissal. However, in a context where atypical forms of work are proliferating and the watchword is flexibility in response to less certain labour market, merely looking at regular wage employment does not give a satisfactory understanding of employment security, in Africa even more than elsewhere. The study of employment security as analysed in the context of the programme refers to the “worker” and not just the “employee” and is then defined as protection against loss of income-generating work (wage employment or other).

<sup>13</sup> The predominant forms are either self-employment (small-scale agriculture, small-scale production in the informal sector) or casual wage employment. In many countries, only one worker in 10 is employed as a wagedworker in the industry or services sector. They very often work on a seasonal or intermittent basis and for this reasons it is not unusual for workers to have several jobs at once.

<sup>14</sup> See, annex 3, Table 3.

<sup>15</sup> A employment security index was developed in the IFP/SES programme. The concepts and approach adopted and the results obtained are shown in great detail in a document footnote. The results for Africa are briefly reproduced here.



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As with all the indicators developed under the SES programme, the “input”, “process”, “outcome” approach is used.

### **3.3.1 Input: Institutional variables or measures adopted to ensure employment security**

Two institutional indicators are used for the employment security index: ratification of an international convention and the existence and nature of national legislation on notice of dismissal.

#### **Ratification of the Termination of Employment Convention, 1982, No. 158**

Ratification of Convention No. 158 on termination of employment assumes that the country concerned has adopted the legislation and necessary measures concerning the principles set out in the Convention, such as the sector and employment status concerned, the main applications or limitations on permissible grounds for dismissal.

In 2003, only 33 countries have ratified Convention No. 158, 11 of them African countries, namely: Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Lesotho, Malawi, Morocco, Namibia, Niger, Uganda and Zambia.

In constructing the index, the score is 1 if Convention No. 158 has been ratified and 0 if not.

#### **From international convention to national legislation**

The length of prior notice of dismissal is used as the second institutional indicator. While a minority of countries have ratified Convention No. 158, all the countries selected have legislation on the legal period of notice of dismissal.<sup>16</sup>

The minimum period of notice in weeks is shown in the summary table at the end of this section. The most common period is 4 weeks (one month) but can be as much as 3 months (Mauritius, Egypt and the Republic of Tanzania).

The score for the institutional component of the employment security index is the average of the combined scores obtained for indicators a1 and a2.

It should be noted that as a matter of principle this legislation applies to wage employees in the formal sector. A country's score cannot in itself be a significant indicator of employment security but will be adjusted when this “institutional” or “input” score is combined with the scores for each of the two other components of the index.

<sup>16</sup> The legal requirement for notice and its length depend according to the country on the type of contract (fixed-term as against indefinite, hourly or monthly); the employment status (manual worker, clerical, managerial) or the length of employment with the same employer (a minimum period being required). In the case of Benin and Burkina Faso, for example, notice of dismissal is required only for indefinite term contracts. The period of notice varies depending on the mode of payment (hourly or monthly) and in Benin, on the employment status (one month for manual and clerical workers, and 3 months for supervisors, managers and the like). In Senegal, the legal period of notice depends on a combination of employment status and length of employment with the same employer.

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### **3.3.2 Process: Mechanisms and instruments**

The two indicators used evaluate workers' opportunities for access to institutions responsible for the protection of workers and enforcement of legal provisions, especially concerning unjustified or unfair dismissal.

#### **Collective agreements**

The first indicator is a scale constructed on the basis of the proportion of workers covered by collective agreements.<sup>17</sup> A score of 0 means coverage is “insignificant - (0-5 per cent)” and a score of 5 means coverage is “very high - (over 85 per cent)”.

#### **Access to independent employment protection courts**

Access to independent courts means the existence of structures and procedures at national level that allow workers to complain and defend their individual rights. The existence of courts goes beyond the field of employment security alone<sup>18</sup>.

The score for the “process component” is the simple mean of the normalized scores by country for the two process indicators above.

### **3.3.3 Outcome: The result or outcome dimension**

The result indicators evaluate the worker's employment security in the light of the arrangements at institutional and process level. The following indicators are used to construct the result component of the job security index; (i) proportion of employment considered as less vulnerable. In practice, this is the proportion of formal employment; (ii) proportion of employment in the public sector.

<sup>17</sup> These data on the proportion of workers covered by collective agreements come from three sources: The primary SES database except for Ghana, Mauritius, Zimbabwe - ILO World Labour Report 1997/1998, Table 3.2 "Collective bargaining coverage rates in selected countries", p.248) and Botswana: Ministry of Labour/Central Statistics Office. Where data are missing, an estimate has been made based on the percentage of wage employment.

<sup>18</sup> The information collected by the IFP/SES programme is coded as follows:

- |     |  |
|-----|--|
| 0   | workers do not have free and cost-free access to an independent court at national level; |
| 0.5 | the court exists but involves a cost to the worker;                                      |
| 1   | the court exists and there is no cost to the worker.                                     |

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## Proportion of “protected” employment or more broadly formal employment<sup>19</sup>

There are two reasons for choosing this result indicator: (i) it takes account of the particular environment of development of countries and adjusts the results for the institutional (input) and process components in relation to their scope, i.e. the proportion of potential beneficiaries; (ii) the lack of data<sup>20</sup>, in the sphere of formal employment and even more so of informal employment, on the proportion of fixed-term contracts, temporary work or any other form of work, declared or otherwise, but different from an indefinite term contract. In Africa, the distinction is more between formal and informal employment that is, between workers covered by the legislative measures adopted, effectively covered by collective agreements and in a position to assert their rights in national institutions established for that purpose and the rest. The introduction of this distinction seeks to identify the population potentially affected by the institutional provision and measures adopted in the field of employment security.

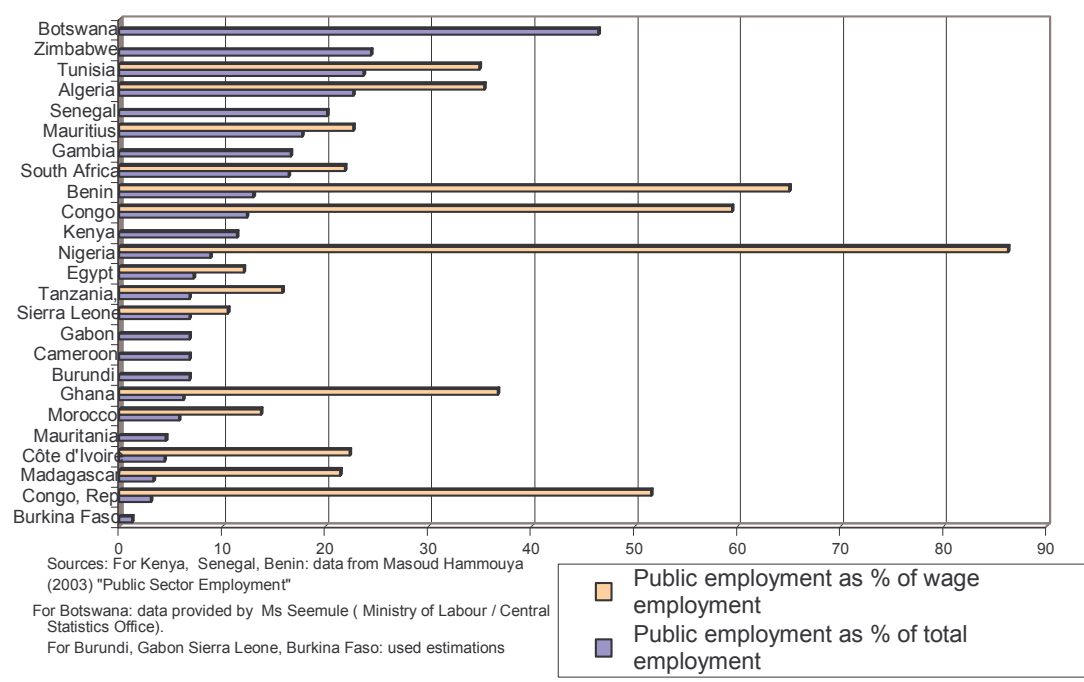
## Public sector employment

Among the countries selected, public employment as a proportion of total employment averages 14.8 per cent in North Africa and 9.7 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa. In terms of employee numbers, public employment in many countries accounts for the majority of wage employment. The situation nevertheless varies from country to country. In sub-Saharan Africa, since 1980, almost all the countries have agreed economic stabilization and structural adjustment programmes with the IMF and the World Bank. These operations intensified during the period 1985-1992. One of the consequences, especially in francophone Africa, has been a considerable fall in the number of public employees over the 1990s. The private sector has not always been in a position to absorb these workers. In some North African countries, this proportion of total employment is close to 25 per cent (Tunisia and Algeria), similar to that found in European countries. However, in this region the restructuring of the public service still remains to be addressed and that will not be without its consequences for employment.

<sup>19</sup> This indicator is used taking full account of the heterogeneity and sometimes disparate and not easily comparable worlds to which these data relate. Indeed, differing coverage (urban, rural, including or excluding agriculture), theoretical definitions of the informal economy based on ad hoc concepts, approximations, derived from equally different research approaches, all tend to make any comparison of these data tentative. In consequence, the results presented below should be treated with the utmost caution.

<sup>20</sup> Targeted surveys exist (see for example “Marché du travail et exclusion sociale en Afrique francophone: quelques éléments d’analyse”, J-P Lachaud (Université Montesquieu Bordeaux IV, France).

**Figure 7. Public employment as a percentage of total employment and total wage employment**

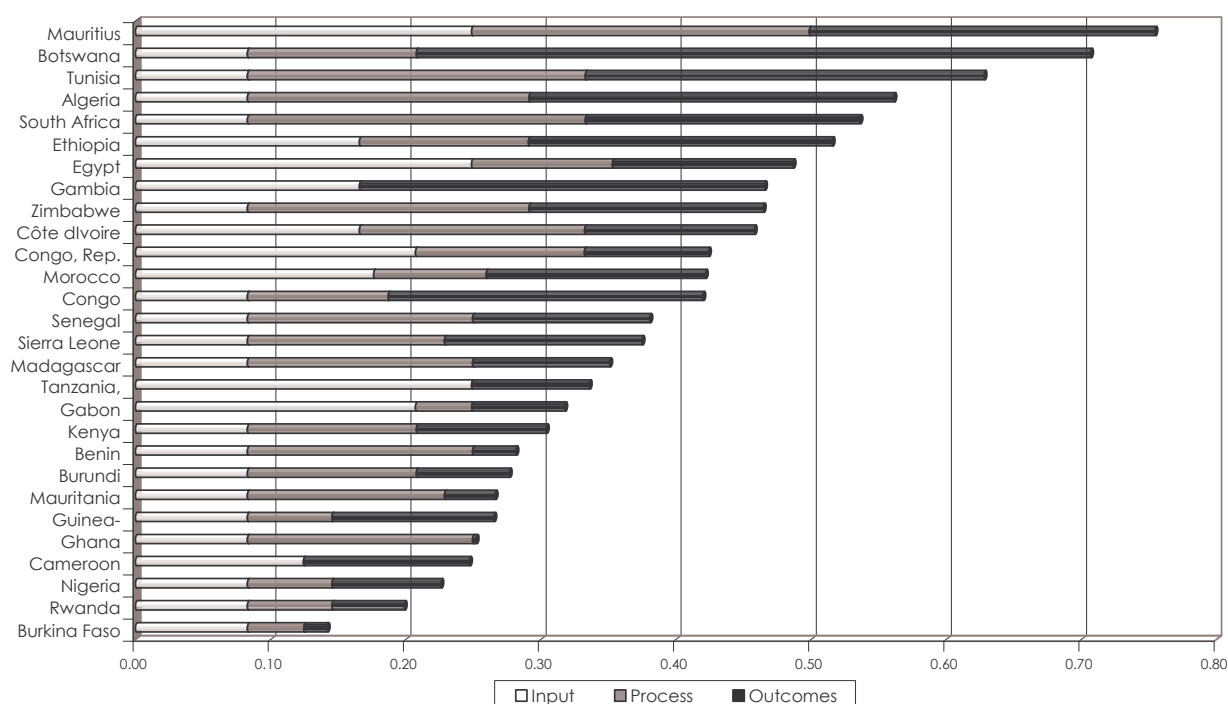


### 3.3.4 Main results

According to Figure 8, which shows the scores, obtained for the Employment Security Index, three countries stand out: Mauritius, Botswana and Tunisia.<sup>21</sup> Botswana is a special case with a high percentage of public employment. In some countries, the contribution of each component to the final index is balanced: Mauritius is the most obvious case. Conversely, several countries, such as Tanzania, which is the most extreme case, show an institutional framework which is apparently fairly favourable to employment security but without the necessary means to implement it in practice, which is reflected in a limited number of beneficiaries, i.e. it is less effective. The majority of sub-Saharan African countries are characterized by a low contribution of the result component.

<sup>21</sup> The data for each of the indices used and the final index score are shown in the annex.

**Figure 8. Employment Security Index**



### 3.4 Skill reproduction security in Africa

The results presented come from exploratory work which led to the construction of a synthetic index of skill reproduction security or, to be more precise, two indices: a detailed index for the industrialized countries and a simplified index covering all those countries for which insufficient information was available. The latter index covers almost 100 countries and has been calculated for the purpose of this note on African countries. The results are abridged.

Skill reproduction security is considered as a set of opportunities for formal training, apprenticeship or education that allows individuals to acquire and develop their knowledge and skills. This means offering a system and means of access to basic education, vocational training, thus allowing the population as a whole to acquire the skills and qualifications necessary to engage in a socially and economically worthwhile occupation. There are two dimensions to this definition: the objective, technical content of skills and the related social, or subjective, dimension.

Given the lack of information in many developing countries, the simplified index presented in this note is based essentially on objective criteria.

Consistent with the methodology adopted by the IFP socio-economic security programme, the selected indicators reflect the three dimensions: input, process and result or outcome.

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### **3.4.1 Input: Institutional variables or measures adopted to ensure skill reproduction security in Africa**

These are indicators intended to ascertain a country's legislative and institutional framework: ratification of international conventions, adoption of laws and principles.

Four indicators were chosen. Three were based on ratification of Conventions Nos. 138, 142 and 140. The fourth institutional indicator is the length in years of compulsory schooling.

#### **International conventions**

The Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No.138).<sup>22</sup> This Convention is considered as a basic Convention of the ILO. For this reason, its contribution is double that of the two other Conventions chosen.

Of the 30 countries selected, 14 have ratified this Convention. The results by country are shown in the table at the end of the section.

The Paid Educational Leave Convention, 1974 (No.140) sets out the principle of paid educational leave, i.e. leave granted to a worker for education purposes for a given period, during working hours, with payment of appropriate financial benefits.<sup>23</sup>

Only 33 countries have ratified this Convention, of which two are African (Zimbabwe and Kenya).

The Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142) sets out the principle of a better balance between guidance, vocational training and employment by taking account of the national context, whether environment and conditions of work, social and economic environment.<sup>24</sup> In 2003, 62 countries have ratified this Convention. Among the countries selected, Algeria, Egypt, Kenya, Niger and Tunisia have ratified it.

<sup>22</sup> Convention No. 138 states: "Each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to pursue a national policy designed to ensure the effective abolition of child labour and to raise progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons". Under Article 2 of this Convention, "The minimum age specified ... shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, shall not be less than 15 years".

<sup>23</sup> Convention No. 140 requires a country to formulate and apply a policy designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice and by stages as necessary, the granting of paid educational leave for the purpose of: (a) training at any level; (b) general, social and civic education; (c) trade union education.

<sup>24</sup> Under the provisions of Convention No. 142, "Each Member shall adopt and develop comprehensive and co-ordinated policies and programmes of vocational guidance and vocational training, closely linked with employment, in particular through public employment services".

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### Length of compulsory schooling (in years)

On average, the legal length of schooling in the countries selected is seven years (8.5 years in the countries of North Africa and 6.8 years in the countries of sub-Saharan Africa). The minimum length is five years, in Sierra Leone, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Thus, for a given country, the score for the institutional dimension is derived from the combination of the three conventions and an indicator of national legislation, the length of compulsory schooling.

The institutional scores are highest in North Africa, Kenya and Congo.<sup>25</sup> Conversely, Sierra Leone, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo have the lowest scores, which indicate a less developed institutional provision.

### **3.4.2 Process: Mechanisms and instruments**

#### Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP

These are instruments and mechanisms to implement the principles and laws, which define the institutional framework. In the context of African countries few data are available. Only one indicator is used – public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP. This indicator evaluates the involvement of the public sector in education, on the assumption that allocation of resources implies provision of the means and facilities for education (schools and teachers for formal and vocational education).

As shown in Figure 9, public expenditure on education varies considerably from one country to another. It averages 4 per cent for the selected countries as a whole. The average expenditure is 5.7 per cent in the countries of North Africa and 3.9 per cent in the other selected African countries.

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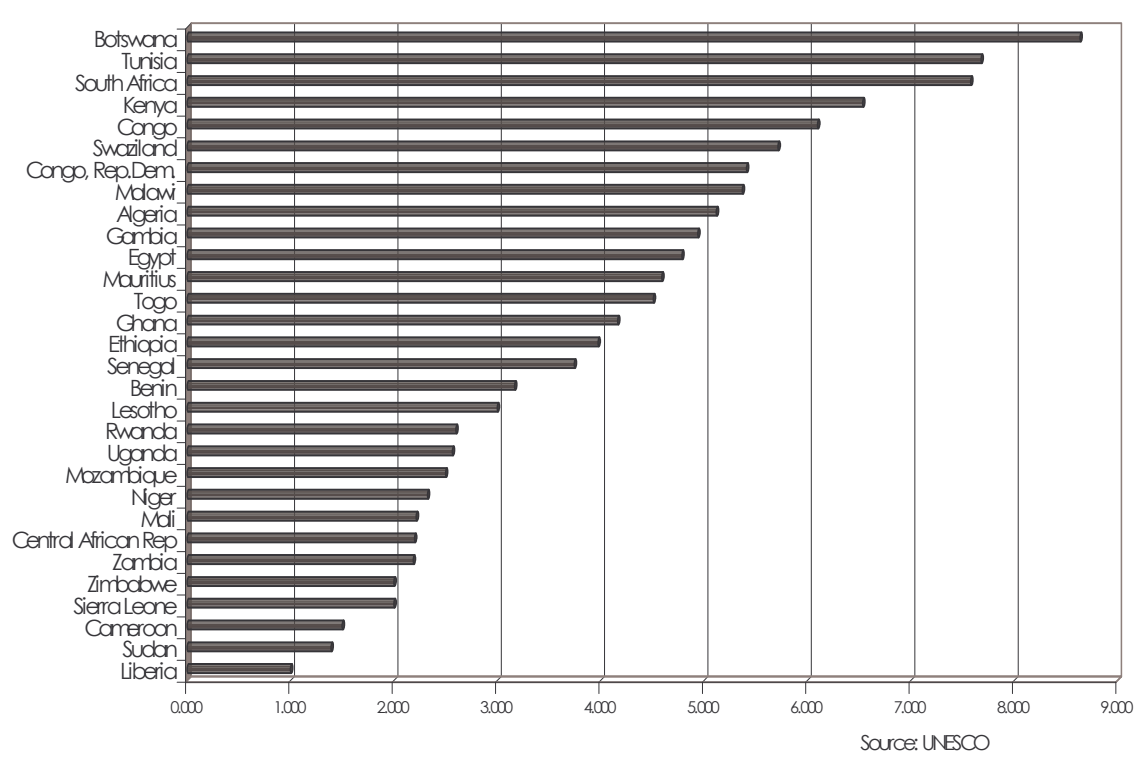
<sup>25</sup> The score for the institutional component of the skill reproduction security index is calculated as follows:

$\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Normalized score for conventions} + \frac{1}{2} \times \text{normalized score for the legal length of compulsory schooling.}$

Where score for conventions =  $\frac{1}{4} \times (2 \times C138 + C140 + C142)$

The weighting of Convention C138, considered an ILO Basic Convention, is higher.

**Figure 9. Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP**



### 3.3.3 Outcome: The result dimension

The result indicators measure and evaluate the impact and effectiveness of the national systems in place. In the context of skill reproduction security, four indicators were selected, each analysed overall and from a gender perspective:

- Illiteracy rate of the population aged 15 and over by sex (source: Barro and Lee 2000).
- Median length of schooling of the population aged 25 years and over (source: Barro and Lee 2000);
- Proportion (%) of population aged 25 years and over, by sex, having completed secondary education (source: Barro and Lee 2000);
- Proportion (%) of population aged 25 years and over, by sex, having completed post-secondary education (source: Barro and Lee 2000);

These four indicators relate to basic formal education, due to a lack of data on vocational training. The table 4 below presents the mean and medians for each of the four tables.



**Table 4. Result indicators: mean and median**

		Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Median	Valid N
Africa except Northern Africa	Illiteracy rate - TOTAL 1999	84.5	12.1	39.6	34.5	N=27
	Percentage Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	25.8	0.7	4.7	2.1	N=27
	Percentage Post Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	8.1	0.1	1.6	1.2	N=27
	Average years of school - 25+ TOTAL - 1995/1999	7.9	0.8	3.2	2.8	N=27
Gender	RATIO Illiteracy rate - FEMALE/MALE 1999	2.3	0.2	1.6	1.6	N=26
	Ratio SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total - 2000	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.6	N=27
	Ratio POST SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total 2000	1.1	0.2	0.5	0.4	N=27
	Ratio Female/TOTAL - Median year of schooling 25+ - TOTAL 1999	1.1	0.5	0.8	0.8	N=27
Northern Africa	Illiteracy rate - TOTAL 1999	45.4	30.2	36.4	33.4	N=3
	Percentage Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	12.4	9.6	11.0	10.9	N=3
	Percentage Post Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	9.4	4.2	6.3	5.3	N=3
	Average years of school - 25+ TOTAL - 1995/1999	5.1	4.2	4.7	4.7	N=3
Gender	RATIO Illiteracy rate - FEMALE/MALE 1999	2.1	1.7	1.9	2.0	N=3
	Ratio SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total - 2000	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	N=3
	Ratio POST SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total 2000	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.6	N=3
	Ratio Female/TOTAL - Median year of schooling 25+ - TOTAL 1999	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	N=3
Table Total	Illiteracy rate - TOTAL 1999	84.5	12.1	39.3	34.2	N=30
	Percentage Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	25.8	0.7	5.3	2.8	N=30
	Percentage Post Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000	9.4	0.1	2.1	1.4	N=30
	Average years of school - 25+ TOTAL - 1995/1999	7.9	0.8	3.4	3.1	N=30
Gender	RATIO Illiteracy rate - FEMALE/MALE 1999	2.3	0.2	1.6	1.7	N=29
	Ratio SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total - 2000	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.7	N=30
	Ratio POST SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Total 2000	1.1	0.2	0.5	0.5	N=30
	Ratio Female/TOTAL - Median year of schooling 25+ - TOTAL 1999	1.1	0.5	0.8	0.8	N=30

Sources: Illiteracy rate: UNESCO estimates and SES primary Database Levels of schooling and median years of schooling (Barro and Lee)

The results for the selected result indicators show:

- High rates of illiteracy for the whole region. In sub-Saharan Africa and the selected countries, the adult illiteracy rate was around 40 per cent in 1999 with major differences from country to country.
- A significantly higher proportion of adults aged 25 years and over with secondary or post-secondary education in North Africa.
- The average length of schooling is also significantly higher in North Africa (4.7 years against 3.2 years for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole).
- A study of the ratios by sex shows the persistence of inequalities between the sexes as regards access to education and the level of education achieved. The illiteracy rate among women is higher than for men, irrespective of the region of Africa, but the differential is even higher in North Africa.

- The ratios for level of education for the adult populations aged 25 years and over correspond to the ratio of women to the total population. A result lower than “1” means a lower proportion of women compared with the population as a whole. The adverse differential of women is even more marked the higher the level of education. Concerning the post-secondary level, the difference is present but less marked in North Africa than the rest of Africa.

### 3.3.4 Main results

The results for Africa for the skill reproduction security index<sup>26</sup> appear consistent with the human development index developed by UNDP. The correlation<sup>27</sup> between the scores obtained for the HDI is very high (0.817).

Figure 10 Skill Security Index

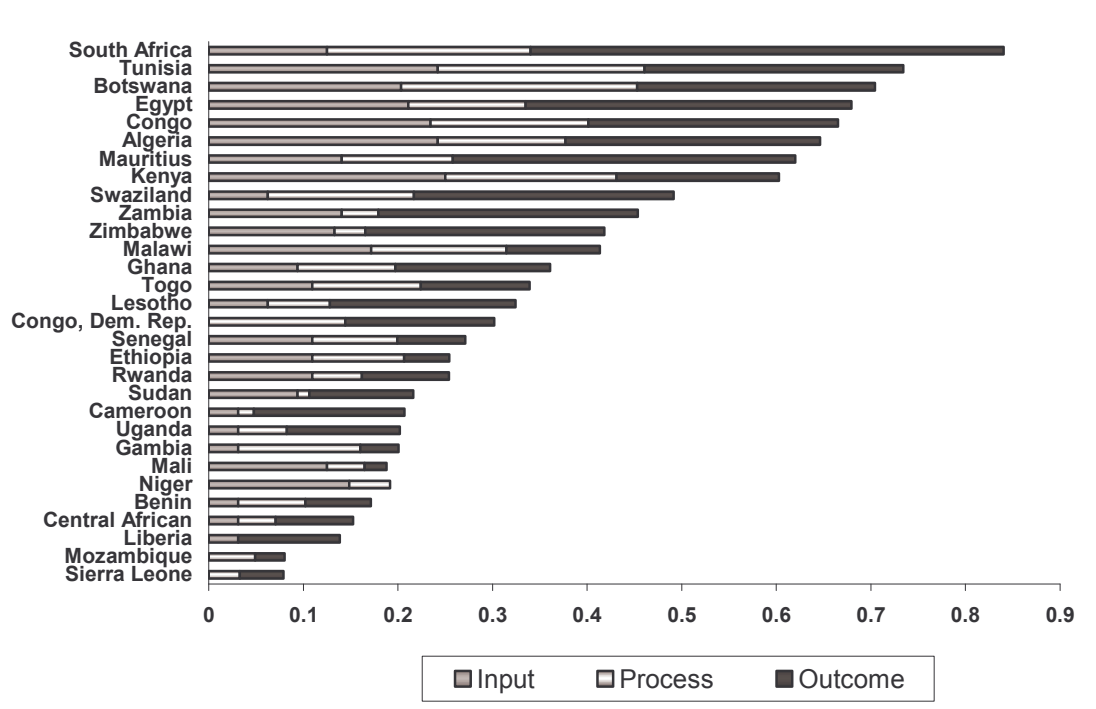
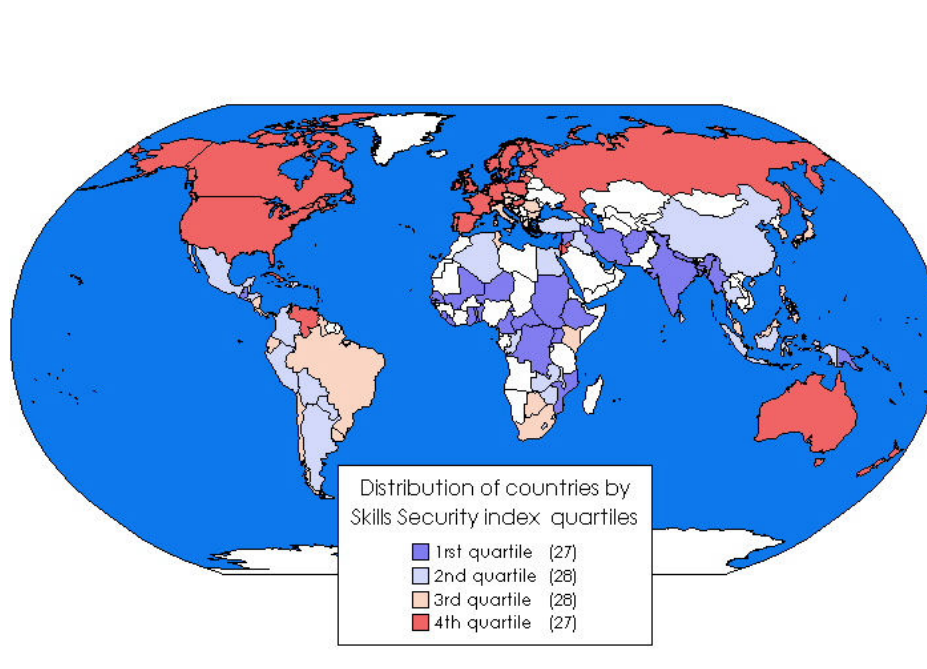


Figure 11 shows the critical situation in Africa with respect to skill security relatively to other regions. It is well known that to remain competitive in the global market, economies need more and more skills in the field of science and technology (including information and communication technology).

<sup>26</sup> The summary table of results for indicators used and the index obtained is annexed.

<sup>27</sup> See graph annexed

Figure 11. Distribution of countries by skill security index quartiles



The education and vocational training system clearly suffers from major dysfunctions and misalignments:

- There is a mismatch with respect to needs. This is mainly due to the lack of coordination between national policies on economic development, employment, education and training. The entire African education and training system is overwhelmingly geared to the modern sector employment model (public and private) which, however, in most of the countries in the continent, employs less than 10 per cent of the active population, and also the inadequate links between the training system, on the one hand, and the system of production, on the other. The main effect of this is difficulty in responding flexibly to specific needs and discarding models, which prove unsuitable.
- The system also suffers from the shortage of places in vocational training organizations with insufficient training resources to meet, in quantitative and qualitative terms, the needs of the economy, social demand and the pressure from new entrants to the labour market.
- Access to education and guidance still discriminates against girls. Even if in some countries there are a significant proportion of women with tertiary education, many of them are essentially concentrated in the tertiary sector or in specific subjects (so-called “female” subjects which make it difficult for them to find work).

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### 3.5 Representation Security Index<sup>28</sup>

Freedom of association and representation security is a fundamental element of the notion of decent work. *Representation security* is the protection of collective expression about the labour market through the action of trade unions, independent employers' associations, participating in State decisions at economic and political level, the right to strike, etc.

The index covers a total of 99 countries, including 23 African countries.

#### 3.5.1 Input: Institutional variables

The institutional indicators chosen for the representation security index capture the extent of the institutional and legislative framework and the degree of freedom workers enjoy in organizing to in defence of their rights. Six institutional (input) indicators were used.

##### Ratification of ILO International Conventions

- The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No.87).
- The Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No.98).
- The Rural Workers' Organizations Convention, 1975 (No.141).

A value of 1 is attributed to a country for each of the conventions ratified and 0 otherwise.

##### National legislation

The fourth indicator is the existence of a law or regulations prohibiting or limiting the activities of one or more types of trade union, bearing in mind that a national or sectoral union is more representative than a local enterprise union. The value 1 is attributed to a country when there are no legal restrictions and 0 otherwise.

##### The degree of freedom of citizens

The fifth and sixth indicators concern the degree of civil liberty in the country, an index developed by the Freedom House organization. The fifth indicator is the civil liberties index. This index runs on a scale of 1 (the highest degree of civil liberties) to 7 (absence of civil liberties). The sixth indicator is an indicator of the evolution of this index between 1990 and 1999, expressed as a ratio (1999 score/1990 score). Before the normalization procedure, and using the scores as defined by Freedom House, a score less than 1 means an improvement in the freedoms of citizens. Thus, for a country such as Tanzania, which went from 5 to 4 between 1990 and 1999, the value obtained for the ratio is thus 0.8.

<sup>28</sup> The approach used to construct the representation security index was developed in a document presented in the seminar "Reconceptualizing Work", *A Presentation Security Index (RSI)*. This document also provides a basis for analysis of the international environment and trends in unionization rates, the most common indicator of representation. Only the principal results are listed here.

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### 3.5.2 Process: Mechanisms and instruments

Three process indicators to measure mechanisms to encourage and strengthen workers' representation are included in the construction of the representation security index.

- Existence of a national tripartite committee or council dealing with social and employment policies (P1).
- Existence of non-governmental organizations for the defence and promotion of workers' interests (P2).
- Percentage scale of the active population covered by collective agreements (P3). The information is available for some countries, in others, estimates which may sometimes be somewhat imprecise. The index used is a scale from 0 to 5 where a score of 0 means insignificant coverage and 5 a very high proportion of the workforce is covered by collective agreements. Considering that this cover is fundamental to representation security, the contribution of this latter indicator to the process component is doubled<sup>29</sup>.

### 3.5.3 Outcome: The result dimension

Three indicators were adopted<sup>30</sup>:

- **Rate of unionization corrected for the proportion of wage employment**

The data on unionization rates come from two sources - the ILO World Labour Report and the primary SES database. The unionization rate was adjusted by multiplying the recorded rate by the percentage of the workforce in wage employment.

- **Estimate of the change in the unionization rate during the 1990s**

Because of the lack of data for many countries, estimates were made, some of them rudimentary. The chosen indicator is a scale of values from 0, in the case of "major fall in the unionization rate" to 3, in the case of "major increase in the unionization rate". The most common result for the period under consideration is a modest or major fall in unionization rates.

- **Percentage of the workforce in wage employment**

Finally, the percentage of the workforce in wage employment is introduced as a measure of potential collective representation.

<sup>29</sup> The score for the process component is obtained as follows:  
Process =  $\frac{1}{4}(P1) + \frac{1}{4}(P2) + \frac{1}{2}(P3)$

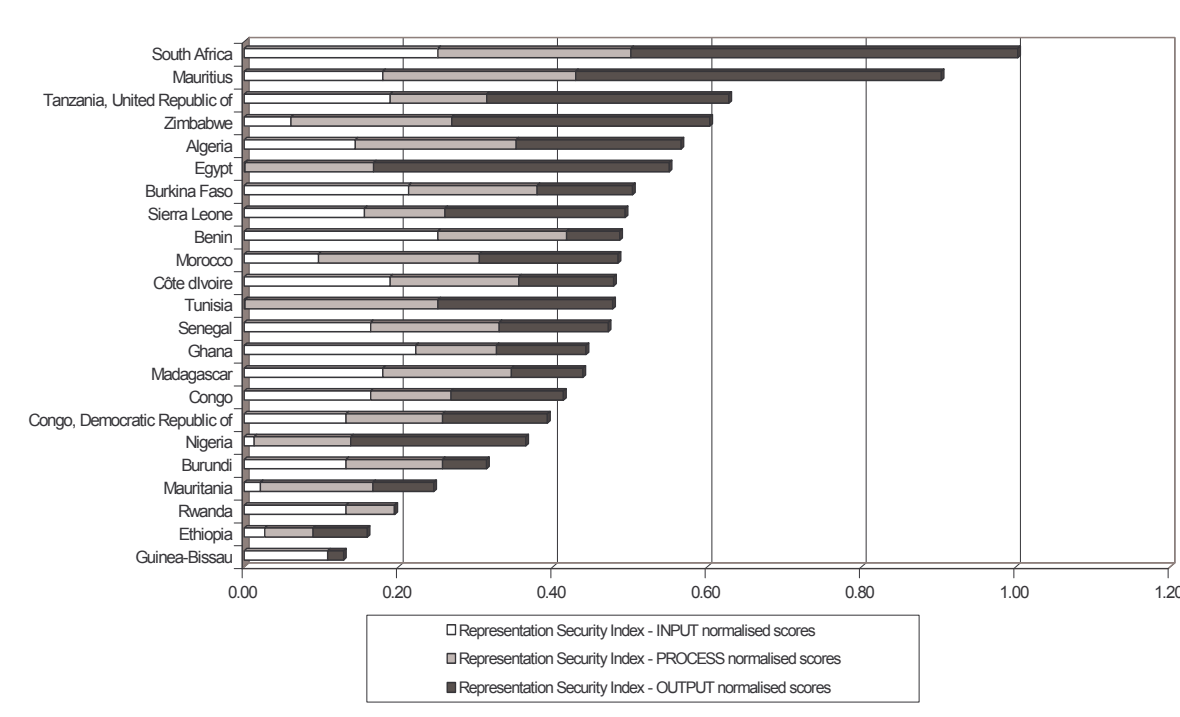
<sup>30</sup> The score for the result component is calculated as follows:  
Result component score =  $\frac{1}{3}(X1) + \frac{1}{3}(X2) + \frac{1}{3}(X3)$

### 3.5.4 Main results

The representation security index is the normalized weighted average of the three components (input, process, result). The contribution of the result component is doubled.

First, two countries stand head and shoulders above the rest of Africa<sup>31</sup>: South Africa and Mauritius. This is because in these two countries, all 3 components have an “outstanding” performance. For instance, tripartism and collective bargaining apparently play an effective role and seem to be the exception. In South Africa, especially, a system of employment relations similar to the European model is being put in place.

**Figure 12. Representation security index**



The rest of Africa shows much lower scores. More than elsewhere, the predominance of the agricultural sector and the informal economy, which translates into a low level of wage employment, considerably reduces the potential impact of collective bargaining. One of the reasons for these lower scores is the lower potential proportion of represented workers.

The graph also shows the respective contribution of each of the components<sup>32</sup> (institutional, process, result) to the final score. Different configurations can be seen. Some countries have an institutional provision and

<sup>31</sup> See summary table annexed.

<sup>32</sup> Scores less than or equal to the average score for a given component are considered “low” and scores above the average, “high”. This distribution of countries is entirely relative. It is made within a selected group. Clearly the results for all countries may lead to a different classification, the scores considered “high” in the present case being “low” relative to a large group of countries.

mechanisms whose impact is limited. Others, conversely, produce results while having a less developed formal provision. According to these criteria, four groups of countries can be identified, as shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. Identification of groups by representation security index scores**

1. Much to be done: Compared with the rest of 'Africa: Low scores for all three components : input, process and outcome	2. Satisficers: Satisfactory scores for the input and/or process component but low for outcomes	3. Pragmatists: Low score for input and/or process and food scores for outcome component	4. Best settlers: good scores for all 3 components
Burundi	Benin	Egypt	Algeria
Congo, Democratic Republic of	Burkina Faso	Nigeria	Mauritius
Ethiopia	Congo	Sierra Leone	South Africa
Guinea-Bissau	Côte d'Ivoire	Tunisia	
Mauritania	Ghana	Zimbabwe	
Rwanda	Madagascar	Tanzania, United Republic of	

A first group of countries present's scores lower than the median score for the selection of African countries considered for each of the three components of the index. The institutional component is either weak or restrictive concerning workers' representation and means of action are little developed or non-existent. Burundi, Rwanda and Ethiopia are predominantly rural countries. They have a proportion of wage employment below 10 per cent. An insignificant part of the workforce is covered by collective agreements and the rather low unionization rates, in addition, fell during the period 1990-1999.

A second group is represented by countries with a fairly well developed formal structure of employment relations, which is however little used in practice. This is the case of many francophone countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

The breakdown of the score and analysis of the contribution of each component show that in Benin, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal notably despite the existence of an institutional and operational provision, the impact (result component) is less than in other countries in the region. In these countries, trade unions have been able to develop and achieve recognized representative force. However, sometimes regarded as competing with political parties, their influence in the field of work has often been limited. In Côte d'Ivoire, for example, trade union confederations and employers' organizations signed a protocol of agreement in 1995 creating a permanent independent consultative commission. However, despite meeting in accordance with its constitution, the discussions have had little effect on the decisions ultimately taken.

The third group of countries shows less developed institutional provisions and/or mechanisms than other African countries, but on the other hand a higher than average score in terms of results. The most representative country in this group is Tanzania. Unlike the majority of sub-Saharan African countries, where the rate of unionization declined as a result of structural adjustment programmes and their impact on employee numbers in the public sector, where the rate of unionization was more significant. Tanzania is an exception both in terms of the unionization rate and the trend. It is a country where measures have been taken to promote rural unions.

Finally, in the last group, the scores are higher than the average for the three components. As mentioned above, the two most representative and best



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performing countries are South Africa and Mauritius. Algeria, although with lower scores, has a balanced contribution for each of the components: institutions, instruments and results.

## **4. Conclusion**

This Note is based on a selection of results from activities in the IFP-SES carried out over the past two years and aimed at building knowledge and data bases on workers' securities. Rather than revealing new aspects of the African case, this Note attempted to identify major features and the relative position of Africa to other regions with respect to data on workers' security, social security systems and the overall situation of the provision of socio-economic security.

### **4.1 Data availability**

The information collected worldwide through the SES questionnaire, but also the examination of other global or regional sources such as the ILO, WB and UNDP, which collect data from member countries, confirms an overall critical and worst case for Africa. The situation is however differentiated among countries or sub-regions. Broadly, North of Africa shows a better situation and sub-Saharan Africa the worst, with the exception of South Africa and Mauritius. Worldwide the response rate in the SES questionnaire is around 60 per cent while in Africa it is 45 per cent, ranging from 71 per cent to 32 per cent. As in other parts of the world non-quantitative information (qualitative or textual such as on laws, institutions, etc.) have a much better response rate. Such rates vary significantly across the various dimensions of security with the largest lacunae being for skills and income security, not to mention job security, which is a generalised problem. Finally, more often than in countries from other regions, statistics do not allow for easy temporal or cross-country comparisons. Data not only lag behind in time in African countries but also tend to change definitions and references such as the coverage. This means for instance that figures may often be available for a particular population, state, urban area, city, etc. and not for the country as a whole.

### **4.2 Social security**

This section attempted to provide an overview of how social protection is structured and developed in Africa, as represented by those 25 countries included in the corresponding SES database. Eight branches of social security are examined from the point of view the legislation and the operationalization of social protection. A major information gap of a particularly critical aspect of social security can be found in almost all African countries: the proportion of workers or of population which is actually covered by social protection mechanisms. Therefore the current overview is limited to aspects of the existence and scope of such mechanisms. Outcome is only estimated through a proxy (percentage of wage workers in total employment).

No homogeneous picture prevails in Africa and as with the availability of statistics, large differences among countries do exist. The same Northern countries together with Mauritius and South Africa constitute a leading group. Only five African countries in 25 provide unemployment benefits and only two are able to cover all eight branches or social risks: Algeria and Tunisia. A "much



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to be done” group, is characterized by not only a limited institutional/operational framework and supply of benefits but also a small number of branches being covered. Somalia is an extreme case, where social security expenditures are below 1 per cent of GDP, where conditions of eligibility to benefits are very restrictive and where only the risk of work injuries is covered. Finally, a major point for comparison with the rest of the world is that other than social insurance and less secure types of programmes are more represented in Africa than elsewhere. They include namely employer liability and provident funds programmes, which are respectively designed to provide benefits of sickness/maternity and work injury.

### **4.3 Measuring socio-economic security**

The reference here are the seven dimensions of security which taken as a whole should constitute a comprehensive notion of a country’s status in terms of socio-economic security or decent work. In practice, this evaluation is based on indicators for each of these seven dimensions classified as input, process and outcome. When combined they constitute synthetic indexes on the basis of which a clustering of countries according to their performance in the provision of security to workers can be made. The results presented here are still preliminary but a few interesting points do emerge.

In comparison to the rest of the world – 99 countries in total in the SES database - it appears that in the group of 25 (quartile) less well performing countries, between 13 and 20 are African, depending which of the seven dimensions of security is concerned. It is for example, income security, which has the largest number of African representatives.

Within Africa and when focusing on particular dimensions of security, it appears that it is not the same group of countries which is represented either as best or worst performers. Different countries provide different kinds or have different priorities in terms of security. For instance Mauritius, South Africa but also Tanzania and Zimbabwe rank high in the representation security index, Botswana and Egypt in the skills reproduction security, etc. An alternative way of looking at the results is to discriminate between the strengths and weaknesses of each country with respect to their achievements in terms of the institutions, operationalization and effectiveness of protection. For instance, concerning representation security, two very different groups of countries do appear: One includes those which provide relatively higher security but without any better conditions in terms of their social security apparatus. These are countries like Egypt, Nigeria, Tunisia. The other group, on contrary, provides low security in spite of being relatively better equipped (legislation, instruments and mechanisms, etc.). The countries in this group are notably Benin, Burkina Faso, and Congo.

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## Annex 1 : Social security index in Africa

Table 6 Social Security index in Africa

Social Security index	Ranking	COUNTRY	Input		Process						Outcome			
			Number of branches covered by a programme	Number of branches covered by a programme (normalised score)	Total Social Expenditure as % of GDP	Estimate	Total Social Expenditure as % of GDP (Normalised score)	Number of programme of social insurance type	Number of programme of social insurance type (normalised score)	Existence of a programme for the branch Unemployment and/ or Sickness	Existence of a programme for the branch Unemployment and/ or Sickness (normalised)	Proportion of wage workers in total employment - TOTAL Estimates	Proportion of wage workers in total employment - TOTAL Estimates	
0.943	1	Tunisia	8	1.000	7.7	.	1.000	7	1.000	Both	1	67.932	.	0.829
0.925	2	Algeria	8	1.000	7.6	.	0.987	7	1.000	Both	1	64.273	.	0.781
0.826	3	Egypt	7	0.857	5.4	.	0.699	7	1.000	Both	1	59.760	.	0.721
0.777	4	Mauritius	6	0.714	6	.	0.778	4	0.571	Unemployment	0.5	80.890	.	1.000
0.666	5	Morocco	7	0.857	3.4	.	0.438	7	1.000	Sickness	0.5	42.500	.	0.493
0.640	6	South Africa	6	0.714	2.5	.	0.320	3	0.429	Unemployment	0.5	64.982	.	0.790
0.479	7	Burkina Faso	6	0.714	5.6	.	0.725	6	0.857	None	0	20.000	e	0.196
0.476	8	Mauritania	6	0.714	0.8	.	0.098	6	0.857	None	0	35.000	e	0.394
0.463	9	Congo	6	0.714	4.2	.	0.542	6	0.857	None	0	20.863	.	0.208
0.461	10	Senegal	6	0.714	4.3	.	0.556	6	0.857	None	0	20.000	e	0.196
0.427	11	Benin	6	0.714	2.2	.	0.281	6	0.857	None	0	19.321	.	0.188
0.413	12	Côte d'Ivoire	6	0.714	1.1	.	0.137	6	0.857	None	0	19.824	.	0.194
0.397	13	Madagascar	6	0.714	1.3	.	0.163	6	0.857	None	0	15.506	.	0.137
0.344	14	Zimbabwe	4	0.429	1	e	0.124	3	0.429	None	0	36.963	.	0.420
0.325	15	Tanzania, United Republic of	4	0.429	0.5	e	0.059	0	0.000	None	0	45.000	.	0.526
0.316	16	Sudan	4	0.429	0.06	.	0.001	4	0.571	None	0	30.000	e	0.328
0.285	17	Burundi	5	0.571	2.2	.	0.281	4	0.571	None	0	5.110	.	0.000
0.276	18	Ethiopia	4	0.429	3.7	.	0.477	4	0.571	None	0	8.789	.	0.049
0.275	19	Congo, Democratic Republic of	5	0.571	0.18	.	0.017	5	0.714	None	0	5.868	.	0.010
0.273	20	Ghana	4	0.429	3.1	.	0.399	3	0.429	None	0	13.800	.	0.115
0.270	21	Sierra Leone	1	0.000	0.5	e	0.059	0	0.000	None	0	64.954	.	0.790
0.226	22	Nigeria	4	0.429	1	.	0.124	3	0.429	None	0	10.156	.	0.067
0.216	23	Rwanda	4	0.429	0.43	.	0.050	4	0.571	None	0	6.000	.	0.012
0.181	24	Uganda	4	0.429	0.05	.	0.000	0	0.000	None	0	13.700	.	0.113
0.026	25	Somalia	1	0.000	0.5	e	0.059	1	0.143	None	0	6.000	e	0.012

Source : SES Social Security Database

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## Annexe 2: Calculation method for indices

In constructing the three component parts of the Index, we use the standard *normalisation* procedure, which we use at several points of the estimation. The normalisation rule is as follows:

$$\text{Normalised value X} = \frac{[\text{Value X} - \text{Minimum Value}]}{[\text{Maximum Value} - \text{Minimum Value}]}$$

Where the actual value is the score attained by the country on a particular variable, the minimum value is the lowest value attained by any country, and the maximum value is the maximum attained by any country.

This approach corresponds to that developed for the UNDP's Human Development Index, and has been applied to all the component indexes of our Decent Work Index.

The final score for each index consists of the sum of the three components in which double weight is given to the outcome index:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Score Indices for each socio-economic security dimension} = & \\ & 1/4 * \text{Normalised INPUT score} \\ + & 1/4 * \text{Normalised PROCESS score} \\ + & 1/2 * \text{Normalised OUTCOME score} \end{aligned}$$

## Annexe 3 Labour market characteristics - Statistics

**Table 7 Activity rate (total and female) for a selection of African countries**

	Activity rate 1990		Activity rate 1999	
	Total (15-64)	Females (15-64)	Total (15-64)	Females (15-64)
<i>North Africa</i>				
Algeria	50.0	20.0	47.6 (1996)	12.6 (1996)
Egypt	51.6	27.4	47.6 (1998)	20.5 (1998)
Morocco	61.5	40.5	57.3 (1999)	32.0 (1999)
Tunisia	58.8	34.5	51.4 (1997)	25.5 (1997)
<i>Sub-Saharan Africa</i>				
Benin	81.9	78.7	80.7 (1995)	77.4 (1995)
Burkina Faso	85.9	79.7	85.0 (1995)	78.8 (1995)
Burundi	91.4	91.9	89.9 (1995)	86.0 (1995)
Congo	71.0	58.3	70.7 (1995)	58.4 (1995)
Congo, Dem. Rep.	74.9	64.1	74.3 (1998)	64.3 (1998)
Côte d'Ivoire	67.5	44	67.3 (1995)	44.6 (1995)
Ethiopia	73.1	59.4	82.6 (1999)	74.4 (1999)
Ghana	82.7	82.6	82.4 (1995)	82.0 (1995)
Guinée Bissau	75.4	59.4	75.1 (1995)	59.4 (1995)
Madagascar	80.6	71.4	80.2 (1995)	71.0 (1995)
Mauritania	77.4	66.7	76.8 (1995)	66.0 (1995)
Mauritius	61.5	37.6	63.5 (1995)	42.2 (1995)
Nigeria	68.0	48.2	67.8 (1995)	48.8 (1995)
Rwanda	90.4	86.3	88.0 (1996)	87.4 (1996)
Senegal	54.1 <sup>1</sup>	25.5 <sup>1</sup>	75.1 (1995)	63.1 (1995)
Sierra Leone	64.3	43.8	64.6 (1995)	45.0 (1995)
South Africa	66.1	49.0	53.2 (1999)	47.6 (1999)
Tanzania	86.8	84.6	86.2 (1995)	83.8 (1995)
Zimbabwe	76.9	67.2	71.4 (1999)	64.8 (1999)

Sources : KILM excepted Congo, Rep Dem : SES primary database

<sup>1</sup> Senegal 1990: Estimates to fit the 15-64 coverage

**Table 8 Unemployment rate for a selection of African countries**

	Unemployment rate 1990		Unemployment rate 1999	
	Total	Females	Total	Females
<i>North Africa</i>				
Algeria <sup>1</sup>	19.8 (1990)	17.0 (1991)	28.7 (1997)	24.0 (1997)
Egypt <sup>1</sup>	8.6 (1990)	17.9	8.2 (1998)	19.9 (1998)
Morocco <sup>1</sup>	15.8 (1990)	20.4	22.0	27.6
Tunisia <sup>2</sup>	15.9 (1990)	21.8	15.9	17.3
<i>Subsaharian Africa</i>				
Benin <sup>a</sup>	23.0 (1990)	-	9.0 (1995)	-
Botswana <sup>1</sup>	21.5 (1995)	23.9 (1995)	21.5 (1999)	-
Burkina Faso <sup>a</sup>	18.0 (1991)	-	26.2	-
Congo <sup>2</sup>	17.20	26.32	26.32	16.73
Congo, democratic Rep. <sup>2</sup>	18.19	-	20.57	-
Ethiopia <sup>2</sup>	2.61	2.76	7.01	11.10
Ghana <sup>2</sup>	15.24	14.49	10.90	10.09
Kenya <sup>1</sup>	21.3 (1994)	28.4 (1994)	-	-
Mauritanie <sup>2</sup>	22.79	30.66	20.90	-
Mauritius <sup>2</sup>	5.65 (1990)	5.08 (1990)	6.44 (1999)	11.27 (1999)
Nigeria <sup>1</sup>	4.7 (1991)	5.3 (1991)	3.2 (1997)	-
Senegal <sup>2</sup>	14.12 (1990)	-	20.9 <sup>a</sup> (1999)	-
South Africa <sup>1</sup>	18.8 (1994)	-	10.1 <sup>a</sup> (1999)	-
Tanzania <sup>1</sup>	3.5 (1991)	4.2 (1991)	23.3 (1999)	27.8 (1999)
Zimbabwe <sup>1</sup>	5.0 (1994)	3.0 (1994)	22.0 <sup>a</sup> (1999)	-
			6.0 (1999, 15+)	4.6 (1999, 15+)

Sources : <sup>1</sup>KILM ; <sup>2</sup>Base SES Primary Database

<sup>a</sup> Data from ILO (2001b)

Burkina Faso : calculé sur la base des données Laborsta sur l'emploi et le chômage pour 1991 ; données du BIT (2001b) dans «Global employment trends, ILO, 2002) pour 1999.

Sénégal : les données pour 1990 proviennent de la base SES primaire et 1999, est une données du BIT (2001b) dans «Global employment trends, ILO, 2002) Tanzania 1990: Data are limited to Tanganyika.

**Table 9 Employment by status for a selection of African Countries**

	Wage workers		Self-employed		Other		Year
	Total	Females	Total	Females	Total	Females	
Algeria	64.3	56.5	26.5	29.0	9.2	14.5	1999
Benin <sup>1</sup>	5.3	2.6	58.4	63.8	36.3	33.6	1992 (10+)
Burundi	5.1	-	63.3	-	31.6	-	1999
Congo	20.9	7.0	65.4	74.7	13.7	18.3	1999
Congo, Dem. Rep	5.9	-	94.1	-	-	-	1999
Côte d'Ivoire	19.8	9.0	43.4	41.7	36.8	49.3	1999
Egypt <sup>1</sup>	59.8	60.7	18.1	16.1	12.1	23.3	1998 (15-64)
Ethiopia <sup>1</sup>	8.8	6.8	51.1	33.1	40.1	60.1	1999 (15+)
Ghana <sup>1</sup>	16.9	9.3	81.2	88.6	1.9	2.1	1992 (15+)
Madagascar	15.6	12.0	51.8	41.5	32.6	46.5	1999
Morocco <sup>1</sup>	72.9	81.3	18.4	5.0	8.7	13.7	1991 (15+)
Morocco	42.5	31.7	22.8	14.9	34.7	53.4	1999
Mauritius <sup>1</sup>	80.9	85.5	16.7	10.4	2.4	4.1	1995 (12+)
Mauritius	78.2	84.3	17	10.2	4.8	5.5	1999
Nigeria <sup>1</sup>	41.9	32.7	48.8	59.6	9.3	7.7	1995 (15+)
Nigeria	10.1	-	89.9	-	-	-	1999
Rwanda	6.0	2.6	61.3	60.4	38.6	36.9	1999
Sierra Leone	64.9	82.2	34.7	17.6	-	-	1999
South Africa <sup>1</sup>	74.8	70.4	7.0	4.9	18.2	24.7	1991 (16+)
South Africa	64.9	-	18.4	-	16.7	-	1999
Tanzania	45	33.9	54.9	66.0	-	-	-
Tunisia <sup>1</sup>	71.1	69.9	22.7	14.2	-	-	1994 (15+)
Tunisia	67.9	68.8	24.4	16.3	7.6	14.8	1999
Zimbabwe <sup>1</sup>	37.0	22.0	43.1	57.9	20	20	1999 (15+)

Sources : <sup>1</sup> KILM ; <sup>2</sup> Base SES primaire**Table 10 Employment by sector for a selection of African countries**

	In Percentage of total employment			Year
	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	
Algeria <sup>1</sup>	26.1	31.3	42.6	1990 (10+)
Algeria <sup>2</sup>	15.3	24.0	60.7	1999
Benin	55.9	7.8	36.3	1999
Burkina Faso	92.4	1.8	5.8	1999
Burundi <sup>1</sup>	14.8	21.8	58.9	1991
Congo	57.6	4.4	25.6	1999
Côte d'Ivoire	58.5	7.3	29.7	1999
Egypt <sup>1</sup>	29.8	22.3	47.9	1998 (15-64)
Ethiopia <sup>1</sup>	88.6	2	9.5	1995 (10+)
Ethiopia <sup>2</sup>	79.6	5.5	10.3	1999
Ghana	55	14	31	1999
Madagascar <sup>1</sup>	78.2	6.8	15.1	1990 (10+)
Madagascar	74	6.7	-	1999
Morocco <sup>1</sup>	5.7	33.4	60.6	1999 (15+)
Mauritius <sup>1</sup>	14.5	39.8	45.7	1995 (12+)
Mauritius <sup>2</sup>	13.1	38.3	48.6	1999
Nigeria <sup>2</sup>	59.8	10.3	9.2	1999
Rwanda <sup>1</sup>	91.7	3.4	4.9	1990 (10+)
Rwanda <sup>2</sup>	91.1	3	6.5	1999
Sierra Leone <sup>2</sup>	39.1	37.8	23.1	1999
South Africa	10.6	19	18.8	1999
Tanzania <sup>1</sup>	84.2	4.1	11.7	1991 (10+)
Tunisia <sup>1</sup>	21.6	33.5	42.5	1994 (15+)
Tunisia <sup>2</sup>	21.8	33.7	46	1999
Zimbabwe <sup>1</sup>	25.5	27.7	46.8	1994

<sup>1</sup> KILM 2001-2002 (ILO Laborsta and Labproj)<sup>2</sup> SES Primary Database

## Annexe 4: Employment Security Index

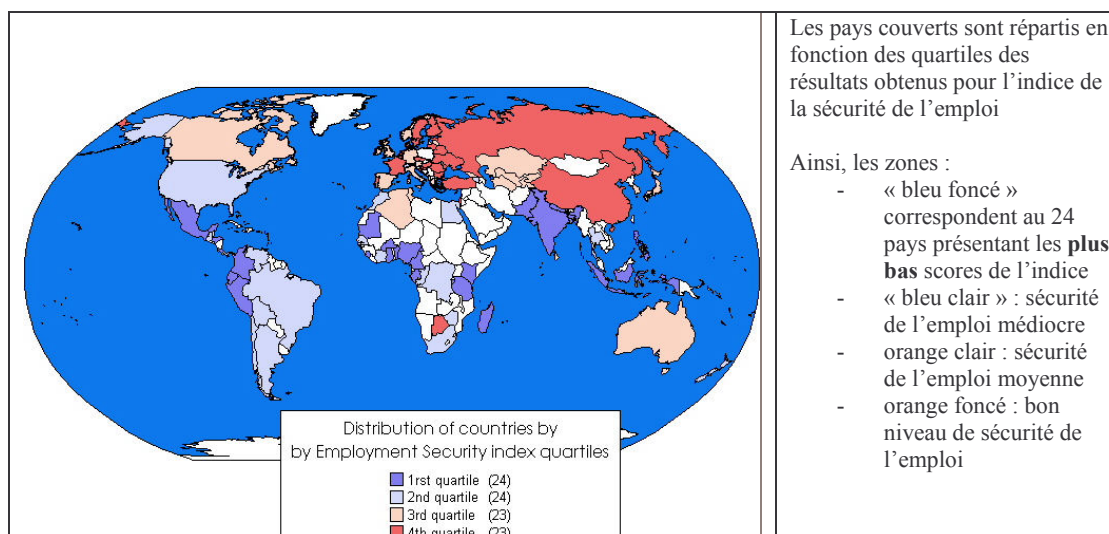
### Employment Security index in Africa : indicators and scores

**Table 11** Employment security index : indicators and scores

Employment security index Weighted- 1/4 input + 1/4 COUNTRIES	Input		Process				Outcome			
	Ranking	Notice period 1999 - (Weeks)	Convention 158	Employment Security Index - Input scores	Collective bargaining coverage	Access to independent tribunal	Employment Security Index - Process scores	Secure Employment	Public employment in percentage of Employment	Employment Security Index - Outcome scores
<b>0.142</b> Burkina Faso	28	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	No	0.17	23	1.25	0.03
<b>0.199</b> Rwanda	27	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, at a cost	0.25	30	3	0.11
<b>0.226</b> Nigeria	26	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, at a cost	0.25	28	8.8	0.16
<b>0.247</b> Cameroon	25	0	Ratified	0.50	0-5%	No	0.00	42.7	6.8	0.25
<b>0.252</b> Ghana	24	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	Yes, freely available	0.67	11	6.2	0.01
<b>0.265</b> Guinea-Bissau	23	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, at a cost	0.25	48	3	0.24
<b>0.266</b> Mauritania	22	4	Not ratified	0.33	21-45%	Yes, at a cost	0.58	23.2	4.51	0.07
<b>0.277</b> Burundi	21	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, freely available	0.50	28	6.8	0.14
<b>0.282</b> Benin	20	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	Yes, freely available	0.67	8	13	0.06
<b>0.304</b> Kenya	19	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, freely available	0.50	28	11.4	0.19
<b>0.318</b> Gabon	18	4	Ratified	0.83	6-20%	No	0.17	28	6.8	0.14
<b>0.336</b> Tanzania, United Republic of	17	12	Not ratified	1.00	0-5%	No	0.00	33	6.8	0.17
<b>0.351</b> Madagascar	16	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	Yes, freely available	0.67	42.5	3.3	0.20
<b>0.375</b> Sierra Leone	15	4	Not ratified	0.33	21-45%	Yes, at a cost	0.58	49	6.8	0.29
<b>0.381</b> Senegal	14	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	Yes, freely available	0.67	23.4	20.13	0.26
<b>0.420</b> Congo	13	4	Not ratified	0.33	6-20%	Yes, at a cost	0.42	63.5	12.4	0.47
<b>0.422</b> Morocco	12	2.5	Ratified	0.70	21-45%	No	0.33	55	5.8	0.32
<b>0.424</b> Congo, Democratic Republic of	11	4	Ratified	0.83	0-5%	Yes, freely available	0.50	40.4	3	0.18
<b>0.458</b> Côte d'Ivoire	10	8	Not ratified	0.66	6-20%	Yes, freely available	0.67	47.3	4.4	0.25
<b>0.465</b> Zimbabwe	9	4	Not ratified	0.33	21-45%	Yes, freely available	0.83	28	24.4	0.35
<b>0.466</b> Gambia	8	8	Not ratified	0.66	0-5%	No	0.00	74.9	16.6	0.60
<b>0.487</b> Egypt	7	12	Not ratified	1.00	6-20%	Yes, at a cost	0.42	45	7.2	0.27
<b>0.516</b> Ethiopia	6	2	Ratified	0.66	0-5%	Yes, freely available	0.50	77	2.7	0.45
<b>0.536</b> South Africa	5	4	Not ratified	0.33	46-65	Yes, freely available	1.00	49	16.4	0.41
<b>0.561</b> Algeria	4	4	Not ratified	0.33	21-45%	Yes, freely available	0.83	57	22.7	0.54
<b>0.628</b> Tunisia	3	4	Not ratified	0.33	46-65	Yes, freely available	1.00	62.2	23.7	0.59
<b>0.707</b> Botswana	2	4	Not ratified	0.33	0-5%	Yes, freely available	0.50	80.7	46.5	1.00
<b>0.755</b> Mauritius	1	12	Not ratified	1.00	46-65	Yes, freely available	1.00	61.2	17.7	0.51

## Employment Security: A worldwide overview

Figure 13. Employment Security worldwide





# Annexe 5 : Skill Reproduction Security index

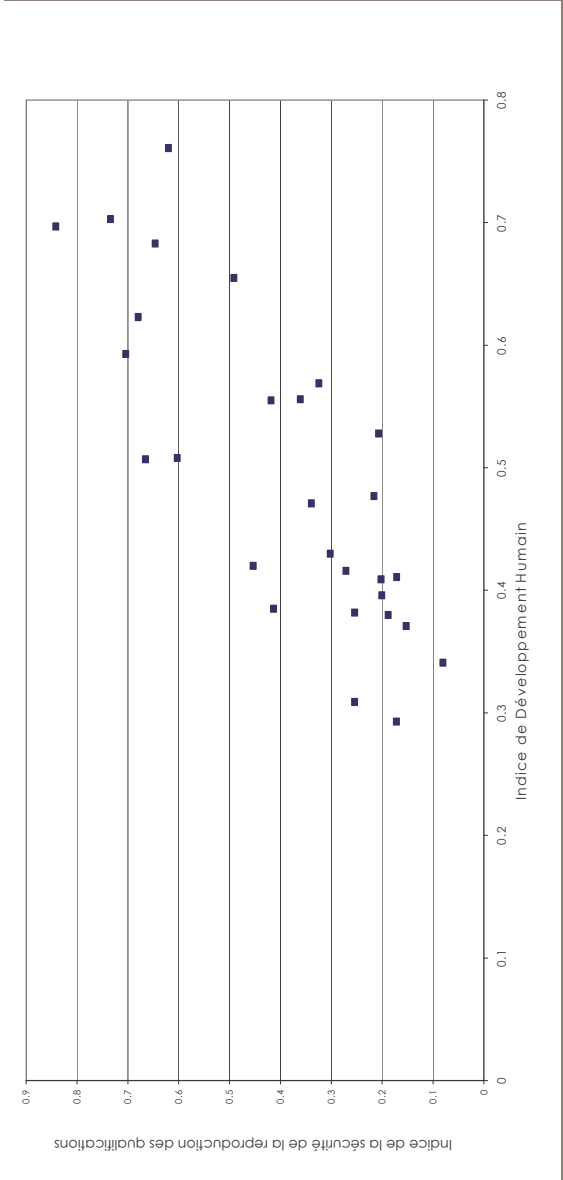
Table 12. Skill reproduction Security Index

COUNTRIES	Input <sup>1</sup>			Process			Outcome: sans la dimension gender			Outcome: dimension gender			Outcome				
	Convention C138 - Ratification in 1999	Convention C140 - Ratification in 1999	Convention C142 - Ratification in 1999	Duration of compulsory school (Years)	Skills reproduction index - INPUT Component - Normalised scores - 1999 - Non industrialised countries	Public expenditure for education in % <sup>2</sup> 22of GDP - 1999 (UNESCO)	Skills reproduction index - PROCESS Component - Normalised scores - 1999 - Non industrialised countries	Illiteracy rate - TOTAL 1999 (UNESCO - 22Estimates) and SES Primary Data	Percentage Secondary Level Complete - TOTAL 25+ - 1995/2000 (Source: Barro et Lee)	Average years of school - 25+ TOTAL - 1995/1999 (Source: Barro et Lee)	Skills index - OUTCOME Other than Gender - Normalised score for 1999 - Non industrialised countries	RATIO Illiteracy rate - FEMALE/MALE 1999 (UNESCO - Estimates)	Ratio SECONDARY level for 25+ Female/Male - Non industrialised countries - 2000 (Source: Barro et Lee)	Ratio tertiary level for 25+ Female/Male - Non industrialised countries - 2000 (Source: Barro et Lee)	Ratio Female/TOTAL - Median year of schooling 25+ - TOTAL 1999 (Barro & Lee 2000 - estimates) - Non industrialised countries	Skills index - OUTCOME Gender oriented - Normalised score for 1999 - Non industrialised countries	Skills reproduction index - OUTCOMES Component - Normalised scores - 1999 - Non industrialised countries
0.079	No	No	No	5	0.000	2.000	0.131	65.0	1.1	1.99	0.127	1.77	0.455	0.250	0.683	0.246	0.093
0.080	No	No	No	5	0.000	2.500	0.196	57.1	0.8	1.19	0.098	1.77	0.625	1.000	0.824	0.505	0.062
0.139	No	No	No	6	0.125	1.000	0.000	47.4	2.4	2.26	0.243	2.04	0.542	0.421	0.597	0.194	0.215
0.153	No	No	No	6	0.125	2.200	0.157	54.7	2.1	2.11	0.195	1.61	0.524	0.357	0.616	0.233	0.164
0.171	No	No	No	6	0.125	3.168	0.284	61.0	1.8	2.1	0.170	1.7	0.333	0.286	0.538	0.106	0.138
0.172	Yes	No	Yes	6	0.594	2.325	0.173	84.5	0.7	0.82	0.000	1.2	0.571	0.250	0.610	0.268	0.000
0.188	No	No	No	6	0.500	2.216	0.159	60.2	0.8	0.76	0.083	1.28	0.625	0.200	0.579	0.249	0.047
0.201	No	No	No	6	0.125	4.940	0.516	64.5	1.7	1.86	0.116	1.25	0.412	0.667	0.597	0.313	0.081
0.202	No	No	No	6	0.125	2.565	0.205	33.9	1.3	2.95	0.267	1.92	0.769	0.571	0.858	0.435	0.239
0.207	No	No	No	6	0.125	1.500	0.065	25.3	3.1	3.17	0.343	1.67	0.839	0.154	0.801	0.355	0.319
0.216	No	No	No	8	0.375	1.392	0.051	43.2	3.7	1.91	0.247	1.77	0.703	0.733	0.707	0.409	0.219
0.254	Yes	No	No	6	0.438	2.600	0.209	34.5	0.8	2.03	0.214	1.51	1.000	0.250	0.837	0.468	0.184
0.254	Yes	No	No	6	0.438	3.975	0.389	62.7	3.4	1.15	0.129	1.19	1.000	0.625	0.957	0.657	0.095
0.271	Yes	No	No	6	0.438	3.744	0.359	63.5	1.8	2.23	0.176	1.37	0.722	0.412	0.722	0.388	0.144
0.302	No	No	No	5	0.000	5.412	0.577	30.5	5.0	3.18	0.339	0.98	0.440	0.300	0.594	0.258	0.315
0.324	No	No	No	7	0.250	3.000	0.262	17.2	3.3	4.47	0.413	0.24	1.091	1.100	1.121	1.000	0.393
0.339	Yes	No	No	6	0.438	4.509	0.459	43.9	1.5	2.83	0.258	2.27	0.400	0.313	0.565	0.076	0.230
0.361	No	No	No	8	0.375	4.165	0.414	29.8	3.3	4.01	0.351	1.87	0.394	0.444	0.738	0.233	0.327
0.414	Yes	No	No	8	0.688	5.369	0.572	40.7	1.3	2.58	0.227	2.09	0.462	0.333	0.752	0.205	0.197
0.418	No	Yes	No	8	0.531	2.000	0.131	12.1	1.9	4.1	0.521	2.09	0.526	0.610	0.801	0.320	0.505
0.454	Yes	No	No	7	0.563	2.187	0.155	22.8	12.9	5.43	0.562	1.93	0.767	0.625	0.921	0.475	0.548
0.491	No	No	No	7	0.250	5.716	0.617	21.1	7.2	5.73	0.563	1.13	1.083	0.909	1.059	0.812	0.549
0.603	Yes	Yes	Yes	8	1.000	6.535	0.724	18.6	1.3	3.99	0.366	2.15	0.538	0.500	0.822	0.297	0.344
0.620	Yes	No	No	7	0.563	4.592	0.470	15.8	25.8	5.55	0.730	1.55	0.864	0.500	0.897	0.511	0.724
0.646	Yes	Yes	No	9	0.969	5.119	0.539	33.4	10.9	4.72	0.553	1.95	0.798	0.571	0.784	0.409	0.539
0.665	Yes	No	No	10	0.938	6.098	0.667	20.5	8.3	4.68	0.543	1.99	1.048	0.314	0.906	0.472	0.528
0.680	Yes	No	Yes	8	0.844	4.787	0.496	45.4	12.4	5.05	0.697	1.69	0.782	0.585	0.745	0.423	0.689
0.704	Yes	No	No	9	0.813	8.637	1.000	23.7	5.9	5.35	0.517	0.8	0.797	0.774	0.974	0.686	0.502
0.734	Yes	No	Yes	9	0.969	7.679	0.874	30.2	9.6	4.2	0.560	2.08	0.698	0.830	0.776	0.425	0.547
0.842	No	No	No	9	0.500	7.590	0.861	15.1	23.3	7.87	0.996	1.1	0.888	0.864	0.963	0.698	1.000

Sources: International Conventions: ILO, ILOLEX

1. Barro and Lee. 2. UNESCO estimates and SES Primary DB.

Figure 14. Relation between HDI and Skills Reproduction Security Index in Africa



## Annexe 6 : Representation Security Index

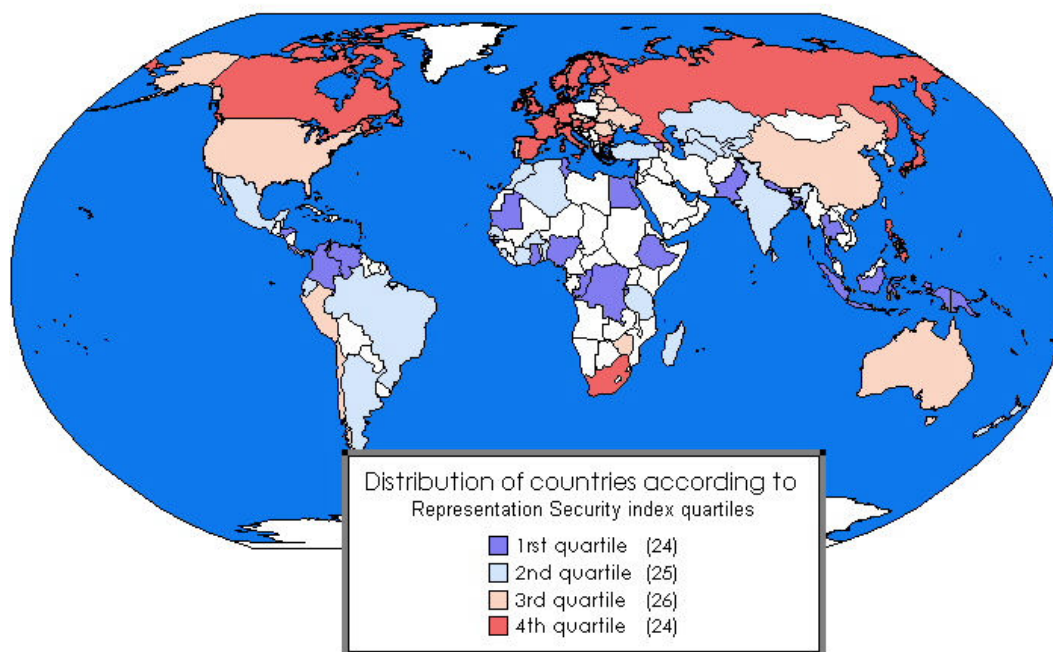
Table 13. Representation security INDEX: Normalised absolute values

- INPUT + PROCESS=1/2 and OUTCOME = 1/2

Representati on security index - Normalised absolute Ranking		C87- Freedom of Association and Protection of the	C98 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining	C141 - Convention concerning Organisations of Rural Workers and Law/regulatio	FreedomHous e - Civil Liberties Representatio	Index - INPUT National "tripartite" Collective bargaining coverage Other non- governmental	Index - Unionisation rate Total 1999 (SES % proportion in total Unionisation rate *	Percentage of workers in F1a - Change in Unionisation rate (excluded agriculture) - World Labour Report 97/98 and SES n Security Representatio									
0.129	Guinea-Bissau	Not ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	5	1,000	0.433	No	0-5%	No	0.000	4.02	15,000	0.603	High Decrease	0.041
0.160	Ethiopia	Ratified	Ratified	Yes	5	0.714	0.107	Yes	0-5%	No	0.250	4.1	8,789	0.360	Small decrease	0.141	
0.195	Rwanda	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	6	1,000	0.529	No	0-5%	Yes	0.250	18.31	6,000	1.099	High Decrease	0.001
0.246	Mauritania	Ratified	Ratified	Yes	5	0.833	0.084	Yes	21-45%	No	0.583	2.7	35,000	0.945	High Decrease	0.158	
0.314	Burundi	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	6	1,000	0.529	Yes	0-5%	Yes	0.500	0.4	5,110	0.020	Small decrease	0.114
0.365	Nigeria	Ratified	Ratified	Yes	5	1,000	0.052	Yes	0-5%	Yes	0.500	17.2	10,156	1.747	Increase	0.454	
0.393	Congo, Democratic Republic of	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	6	1,000	0.529	Yes	0-5%	Yes	0.500	13	5,868	0.763	Stable	0.272
0.414	Congo	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	5	0.833	0.656	No	6-20%	Yes	0.417	22	20,863	4.590	Small decrease	0.291
0.439	Madagascar	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	4	1,000	0.719	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	4.7	15,506	0.729	Small decrease	0.185
0.443	Ghana	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	3	0.600	0.890	Yes	6-20%	No	0.417	25.9	13,800	3.574	Small decrease	0.232
0.472	Senegal	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	4	1.333	0.656	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	21.9	20,000	4.380	Small decrease	0.283
0.477	Tunisia	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	Yes	5	1.250	0.005	Yes	46-65%	Yes	1.000	9.8	67,932	6.657	High Decrease	0.453
0.479	Côte d'Ivoire	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	4	0.800	0.757	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	13	19,824	2.577	Small decrease	0.246
0.485	Morocco	Not ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	5	1.250	0.386	Yes	21-45%	Yes	0.833	4.8	42,500	2.040	Small decrease	0.360
0.487	Benin	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	2	0.500	1.005	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	22	5,300	1.166	Small decrease	0.138
0.494	Sierra Leone	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	5	1,000	0.624	Yes	6-20%	No	0.417	1.9	64,954	1.234	Small decrease	0.467
0.503	Burkina Faso	Ratified	Ratified	Ratified	No	4	0.800	0.852	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	13	20,000	2.600	Small decrease	0.247
0.551	Egypt	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	Yes	5	1.250	0.005	Yes	6-20%	Yes	0.667	29.6	59,760	17.689	Small decrease	0.766
0.566	Algeria	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	5	1,250	0.576	Yes	21-45%	Yes	0.833	10	64,273	6.427	High Decrease	0.428
0.603	Zimbabwe	Not ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	6	1.500	0.243	Yes	21-45%	Yes	0.833	13.9	36,963	5.138	Increase	0.669
0.628	Tanzania, United Republic of	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	4	0.800	0.757	Yes	0-5%	Yes	0.500	17.4	45,000	7.830	Stable	0.628
0.903	Mauritius	Not ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	2	1,000	0.719	Yes	46-65%	Yes	1.000	25.9	80,890	20.950	Small decrease	0.947
1.000	South Africa	Ratified	Ratified	Not ratified	No	2	0.500	1.005	Yes	46-65%	Yes	1.000	21.8	64,982	14.166	Increase	1.002

Sources: ILOLEX, SES Primary and Secondary Databases, World Labour Report, Freedom House,

Figure 15. Representation Security Index : Worldwide overview

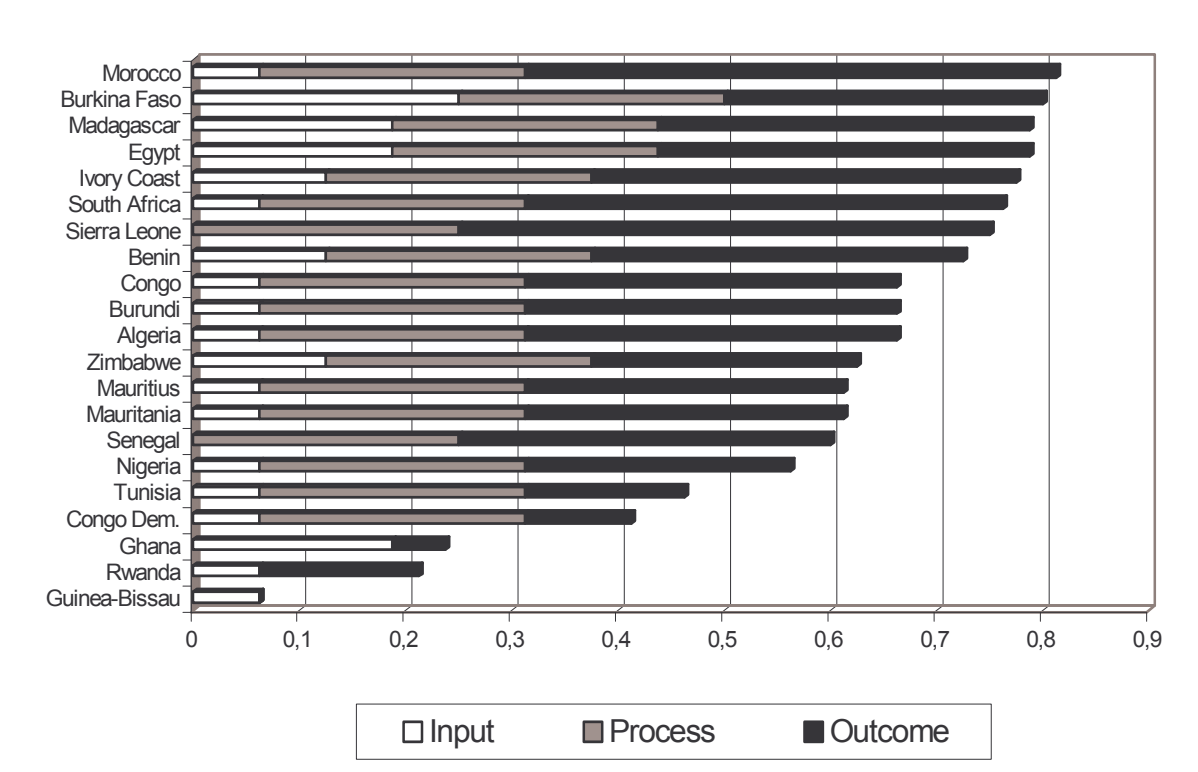


## Annexe 7 : Work Security Index

**Work security** – Protection against accidents and illness at work, through safety and health regulations, limits on working time, unsociable hours, night work for women, etc.

Input	Process	Outcome
Conventions:	Government spending on workers' compensation	Work-related injury rate to employment rate
Conv. 1: Restricting hours of work		% population covered for work injury
Conv. 103: Maternity Protection		
Conv. 132: Annual Holidays with Pay	OSH board or committee	Average paid leave (corrected with % wage empl.)
Conv. 155: Existence of OSH law		Working time lost due to work-related accidents
Conv. 159: No discrimination against disabled workers		
Conv. 161: Establishment of OH services		Average reported working time
Conv. 171: Restricting night work		Earnings-related cash benefits for injured workers
<i>Source: ILOLEX</i>		
Law on OSH		% workforce in informal sector
Law on paid leave	Law on disability	
Law on paid maternity leave		
<i>Sources: bases SES primaire et secondaires</i>		

Figure 16. Work Security Index



## Annexe 8: Income Security Index

**Income security** – Protection of income through minimum wage machinery, wage indexation, comprehensive social security, progressive taxation, etc.

	Input	Process	Outcome
Income Security Index	Conventions:	Social Security Expenditure as a share of GDP - Glo-ISI-PR-1	Gini Co-efficient - Glo-ISI-OT-1 Per capita GDP (PPP \$) Social security expenditure per capita Per Capita Health Expenditure (ppp)
	ILO Convention No. C102		Life Expectancy Infant Mortality Rate (at birth and below 5 years)
	ILO Convention No. C131		
	ILO Convention No. C026	Source: Health Expenditure as a share of GDP- Glo-ISI-PR-2	
	<i>ILOLEX</i>		
	Coverage of the population by the main unemployment programme		
	Coverage of the population by the main old-age benefits programme		
	Immunisation rates for DPT and Measles		
	<i>Sources: bases SES primaire et secondaires</i>		

Figure 17. Income Security Index

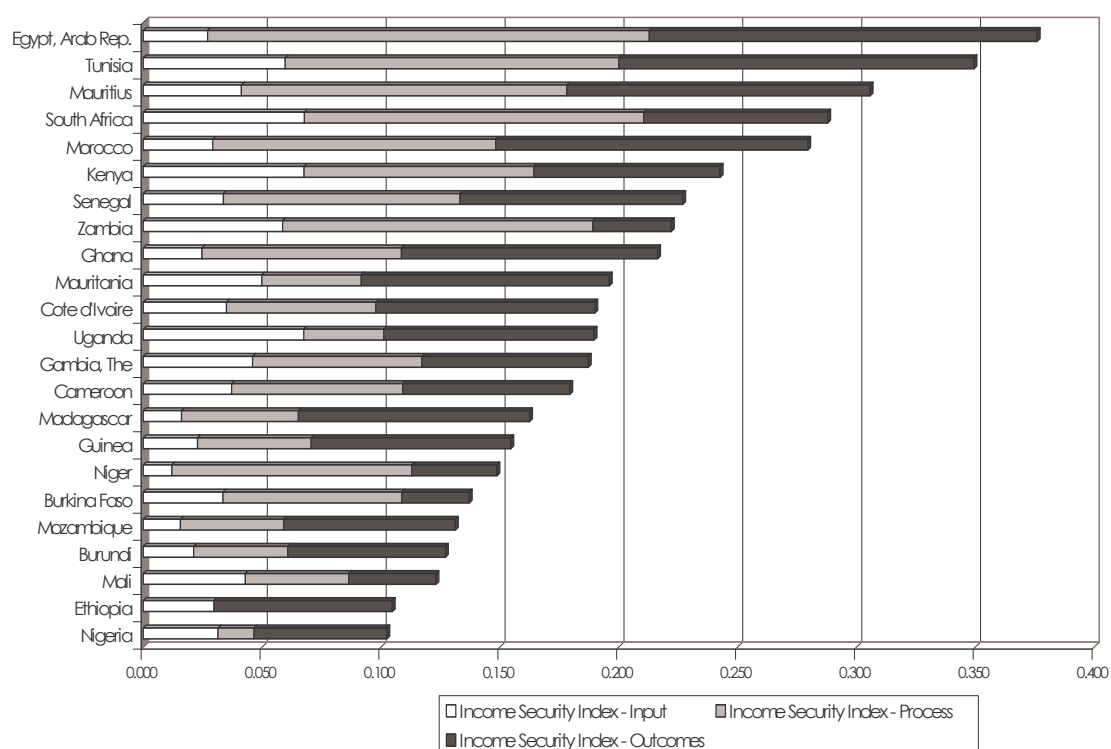
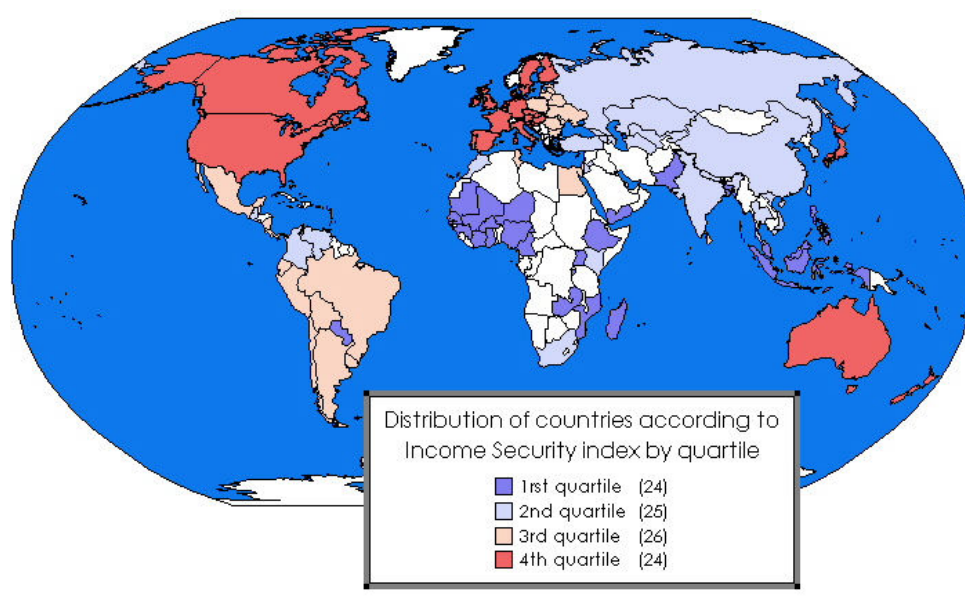


Figure 18. Income Security Index : worldwide overview



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draft may 2003