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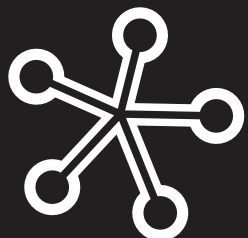
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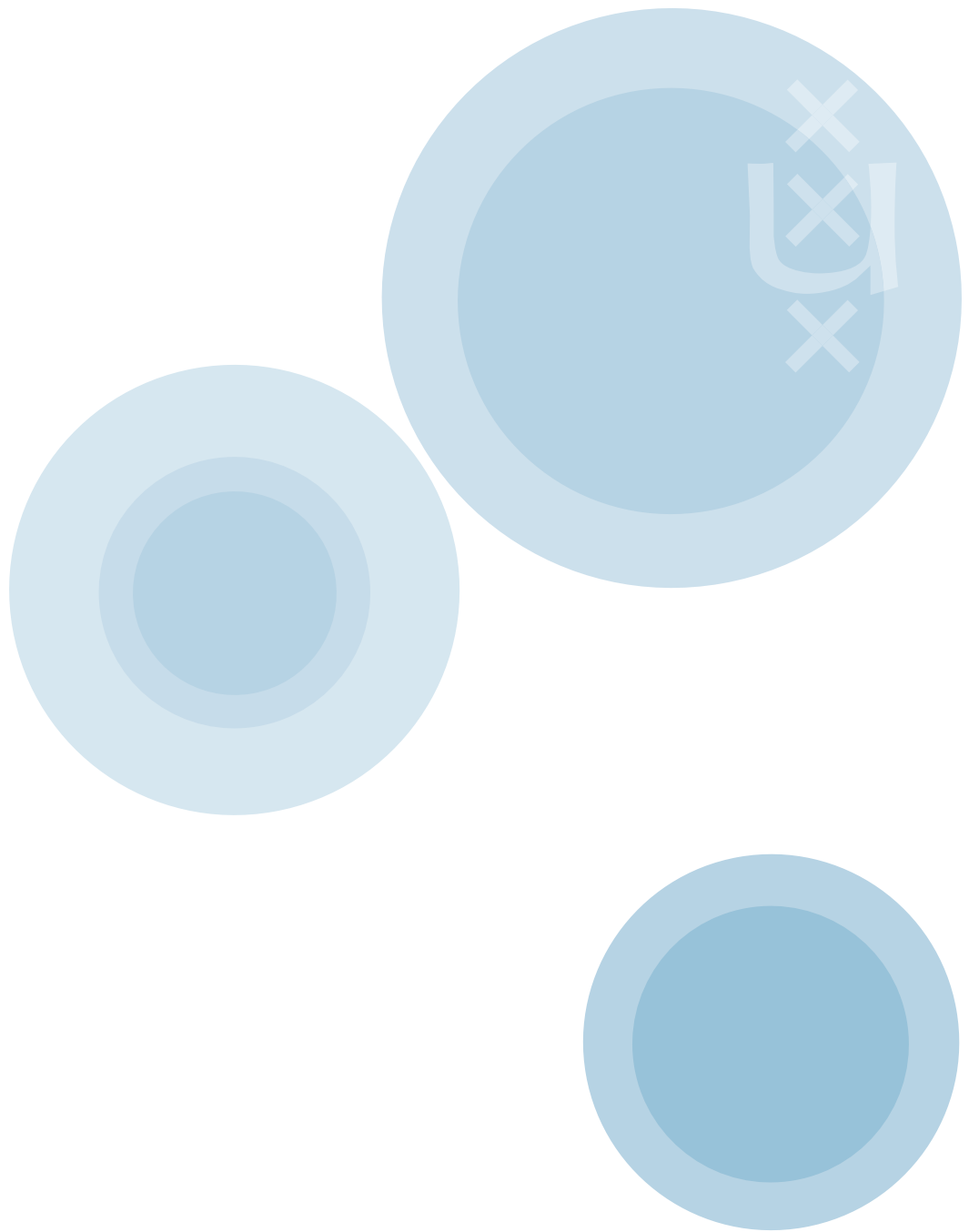
## An overview of women's work and employment in Mozambique

*Maarten van Klaveren, Kea Tijdens,  
Melanie Hughie-Williams, Nuria Ramos Martin*



Working Paper 09-77

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# **An overview of women's work and employment in Mozambique**

**Decisions for Life MDG3 Project  
Country Report no. 1**

**REVISED EDITION**

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**WP 09/77**



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## Management summary

This report provides information on Mozambique on behalf of the implementation of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project in that country. The DECISIONS FOR LIFE project aims to raise awareness amongst young female workers about their employment opportunities and career possibilities, family building and the work-family balance. This report is part of the Inventories, to be made by the University of Amsterdam for all 14 countries involved. It focuses on a gender analysis of work and employment.

*History (2.1.1).* After Mozambique gained its independence from Portugal in 1975, a civil war seriously frustrated the country's development. After the first free elections in 1994, strong economic growth on a free-market base created room for combatting notably rural poverty. International donors have especially been supportive of Mozambican projects for women's empowerment and gender mainstreaming. From 2004 on, the process of pro-poor growth seems to stagnate. Though income inequality is relatively low, the country remains one of the world's poorest.

*Governance (2.1.2).* Mozambique for the last 15 years has had a rather stable political record. Though in the 2000s government planning focuses strongly on governance, the country's record here is mixed. The formal justice system remains inaccessible to most of the poor, which works disadvantageous for women. Domestic violence and discrimination against women are widespread.

*Prospects (2.1.3).* Mozambique may escape the worst effects of the current financial crisis, as it is relatively insulated from its direct effects. The main risk arises from the country's dependency on development aid.

*Communication (2.2).* Over 3.3 million cell phones are already in use, one to each six Mozambicans. Internet coverage is still low, with in 2007 about 1% of the population as users. Radio is the most utilized medium, though male access to radio broadcasts is 1.5 times higher than female.

*The sectoral labour market structure (2.3).* In 2002-03, nearly 90% of the economically active women worked in agriculture. Of the other 430,000 women, about 160,000 received a wage. The share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector was nearly 20%.

*Legislation (2.4.1).* Mozambique has ratified the core ILO Labour Conventions, and its laws are non-discriminatory. Some steps have been taken to guarantee compliance. The 2007 Labour Code lays down rights to paid maternity leave, equal pay, vocational training, etc.



*Labour relations (2.4.2).* Overall union density in the formal sector can be estimated at 20%, and female density at 17%. The two union confederations, OTM-CS and CONSILMO, are ITUC affiliates. Enforcement of labour laws is often inadequate, weakening union positions at company level. ITUC reports notably file complaints over women receiving lower pay than men for work of equal value.

*The statutory minimum wage (2.5.1).* A system of yearly uplifted national minimum wages exists for various sectors, varying from 105 to 206% of the average wage in the formal sector. The minimum wage is reported to be widely ignored.

*Poverty (2.5.2).* According to UN estimates, in 2000-06 90% of the Mozambican population lived on USD 2 or less a day. Though in its early stages judged successful, the government's poverty reduction strategy seems to stagnate in the 2000s, especially in the rural areas. Poverty distribution is heavily gendered, with female-headed households as most vulnerable group.

*Population and fertility (2.6.1).* In recent years the population growth rate has fallen, to 1.8% in 2008, corresponding with high infant and child mortality as well as high HIV/AIDS prevalence. Yet, the total fertility rate (5.2%) and the adolescent fertility rate (155 per 1,000) remain high.

*HIV/AIDS (2.6.2).* The Mozambican HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is, though maybe falling, with nearly 12% in 2007, high. Both because of their level of infection and their position of carers for sick family members, the burden of HIV/AIDS falls mainly on women. Orphanage is a huge and even growing problem, and ruins the prospects in life of many girls.

*Women's labour market share (2.6.3).* With 83% in 2007, the overall labour participation rate of the 15-64 of age (LPR or EPOP) is comparatively very high, and with 89% for women even higher. In 2002-03, about 160,000 women were in wage employment, about 18% of all employed in the formal sector.

*Agriculture (2.6.4).* Agriculture provides employment and income for 80% of the Angolan population. Female-heads of households in rural areas prove to be particularly constrained, both in time and in income sources.

*Manufacturing (2.6.5).* Prioritising mega projects has frustrated the development of a small-scale manufacturing sector in Mozambique, which has been detrimental for women's employment. *Commerce (2.6.6).* The expansion of small-scale commerce has recently been hampered by legal problems. Formal retailing is expanding, which may open up perspectives for female wage employment.

*Services (2.6.7).* Commercial services have been growing considerably in the 2000s. Shortages of skilled labour, envisaged for various professional services, may open up opportunities for young females if the capacity of local secondary and university education can be expanded.

*Government (2.6.8).* Female participation in civil service seems to lag behind, which seems to do with practices favouring (married) men both in hiring and in payment.

*Literacy (2.7.1).* In 2006, the overall literacy rate for adult women was an estimated 36%, just over half men's rate. The 2007 the literacy rate among young women was 48%: though low in international perspective, a strong advance compared to a decade earlier.

*Education of girls and young women (2.7.2).* After a period of strong growth, the enrollment of Mozambican girls in primary education in 2006 reached 73%. Yet, with less than 15% girls' enrollment in secondary education remains very low. The female share in higher education is very low too.

*Female skill levels (2.7.3).* In 2003, about 20,000 of Mozambican female employees were highly skilled and 160,000 skilled. We estimate the current size of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE for Mozambique at about 70,000 young women in wage employment, while another 30,000 will enter into such employment in the next five years.

*Wages (2.8.1).* It has been estimated that skilled workers in rural areas earn about 20% more than unskilled workers. In urban areas skilled and highly skilled workers may earn about 50% respectively 100% more than unskilled. Collective agreements are highly segmented.

*Working conditions (2.8.2).* Little is available in writing on working conditions in Mozambique.

*Indications of employers' HR practices (2.8.3).* A 2004 survey indicated that HR practices of larger firms remained personal, informal, but also topdown. The results showed a reliance on personal networks for recruitment and on informal training structures.



# 1. Introduction: The Decisions for Life project

The DECISIONS FOR LIFE project aims to raise awareness amongst young female workers about their employment opportunities and career possibilities, family building and the work-family balance. The lifetime decisions adolescent women face, determine not only their individual future, but also that of society: their choices are key to the demographic and workforce development of the nation.

DECISIONS FOR LIFE is awarded a MDG3 grant from the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs as part of its strategy to support the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals no 3 (MDG3): "Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women". DECISIONS FOR LIFE more specifically focuses on MDG3.5: "Promoting formal employment and equal opportunities at the labour market", which is one of the four MDG3 priority areas identified in Ministry's MDG3 Fund. DECISIONS FOR LIFE runs from October 2008 until June 2011 (See <http://www.wageindicator.org/main/projects/decisions-for-life>).

DECISIONS FOR LIFE focuses on 14 developing countries, notably Brazil, India, Indonesia, the CIS countries Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Ukraine, and the southern African countries Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Project partners are International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC), Union Network International (UNI), WageIndicator Foundation, and University of Amsterdam/AIAS.

This report is part of the Inventories, to be made by the University of Amsterdam, for all 14 countries involved. These Inventories and the underlying gender analyses are listed in Table 1. All reports will be posted at the project website. In this country report on Mozambique the sequence of the sections differs from the table. The report covers mainly Activity nr 1.03, the Gender analysis regarding pay and working conditions (or, as Chapter 2 is called here, work and employment). Partly included (in section 2.4.1) is Activity 1.01, Inventories of national legislation; partly the analysis of national legislation has resulted in a separate product, the DecentWorkCheck for Mozambique. Activity 1.02, Inventories of companies' regulations, will take place through a company survey; section 2.8.3 already gives some indications on Mozambican companies' regulations and practices in the field of Human Resources. Preparations for Activities 1.03a and 1.03b have resulted in a number of lists, to be used in the WageIndicator web-survey for country-specific questions and their analyses (Chapter 3). References can be found in Chapter 4; Chapter 5 gives more insight in the WageIndicator.

Table 1 Activities for DECISIONS FOR LIFE by the University of Amsterdam

Nr	Inventories
1.01	Inventories of national legislation
1.02	Inventories of companies' regulations
1.03	Gender analysis regarding pay and working conditions
1.03a	Gender analysis start-up design of off-line gender analyses inventory
1.03b	Gender analysis data-entry for off-line use inventories

## 2. Gender analysis regarding work and employment

### 2.1. Introduction: the general picture

#### 2.1.1. History

By the time that Mozambique gained its independence from Portugal in 1975, the mass of Portuguese capital, civil servants, managers and skilled workers had left the country. Then, the civil war between the FRELIMO liberation movement and the rebel RENAMO forces, the latter funded by the Rhodesian and South African apartheid regimes (1976-1992), jointly with repeated droughts and other natural disasters, seriously frustrated the country's development. During the 1980s, more than 1 million people died in the country, close to 5 million were displaced from rural areas inside and outside of Mozambique, and a large part of the country's infrastructure was destroyed. In 1986, the economy totally collapsed and by then social indicators were among the worst in the world (Tarp *et al* 2002, 25-6). In 1987-89, the ruling FRELIMO government laid the basis for a shift towards a more market-based economy, with IMF and World Bank taking the lead in program formulation and implementation: policy papers were mainly drafted in Washington, D.C. The new constitution of 1990 provided for multiparty elections and a free market economy. In the second half of the 1990s, disagreements between the IMF and the World Bank emerged, and little by little the Washington neo-liberal orthodoxy of structural economic adjustment was left. This created more room for social improvement, heavily sponsored by foreign aid (Tarp *et al* 2002, 27-8). Many donors have especially been supportive of projects for women's empowerment and gender mainstreaming (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 19).

In the course of the 1990s and the early 2000s, notably since the peace treaty of 1992 and the first free elections in 1994, life for many Mozambicans improved considerably. Household incomes increased as did access to and quality of public services. In a major recent report on the country, the World Bank notes concerning the 1994-2003 period: "(Mozambique) has been astonishingly successful at restoring growth and improving welfare". Mozambique's reduction of rural poverty was even called one of the most successful in the world. Natural disasters like droughts and devastating floods hampered but did not stop this advance. After a contraction of the growth rate of the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) per person employed in 2000

of 1.9%, the early 2000s growth still looked rather fragile, with growth rates per person employed of 10.8% in 2001, 6.0% in 2002 and 3.5% in 2003. Then, growth stabilized, with rates of 5.9% in 2004, 6.4% in 2005 and 6.1% in 2006. In 2007 and 2008, economic performance has again been positive though at somewhat slower pace, with GDP growth per person employed of 4.9% respectively 4.3%. As a result, the average GDP growth per person for 2001-06 of Mozambique was 6.4%, slightly slowing down to an average 5.2% for 2003-2008 (*MDG Indicator 1.4*, derived from UN MDG Indicators). This prolonged growth rate is one of the highest among sub-Saharan countries. Yet, with (PPP) USD 739 yearly in 2006, the Mozambican per capita GDP remains very low; by that year only six of 179 countries scored lower. The country's estimated per capita earned income was USD 819 for men and USD 663 for women (UNDP 2008). Thus, the 2006 ratio of the average female to male income was 0.81.

The World Bank concludes that social developments in Mozambique from 2004 to 2008 are less clear and wonders whether “the welfare improvement engine (has) run out of gas” (World Bank 2008I, xxxi). The country remains one of the poorest in the world, with over half of the population by any standards living in poverty. Against that backdrop, stagnation in the process of so-called pro-poor (or shared) growth can have dramatic effects (cf. Arndt *et al* 2006b). In 2003, the overall level of income inequality was one of the lowest in Africa, be it that urban inequality was slightly higher than in most African countries (Fox *et al* 2005, 13-5). The World Bank admits that the rural income inequality appears to be growing, while the high urban inequality is persisting, and that in the last five years the increased costs of living seem to disproportionately affect the poor (World Bank 2008I, 24, 47, 57). These conclusions could be sharpened. Based on the same statistics it can be argued that the gains of economic progress have been unequally distributed. Already between 1996 and 2002, the best off gained most and this continued between 2002 and 2006 (Hanlon 2007, 4-6).

### **2.1.2. Governance**

For the last 15 years Mozambique has had a rather stable political record. The three general elections all have been won by the FRELIMO party. Actually, FRELIMO has a majority of 160 (96 men and 64 women) in the 250-seats Assembly, over RENAMO's 90 seats (69 men and 21 women). After the government's first Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA I, 2001-05) laid down the goal of improved governance, the poverty reduction strategy formulated in the 2006-09 second Action Plan (PARPA II) focuses even stronger on governance, trying to bring the state closer to the real lives of the poor (Republic of Mozambique 2007). Yet, the country's record on governance is mixed, and the judiciary is in fact plagued by

allegations of corruption. For 2008, for the first time in five years, the country dropped in Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index, indicating that corruption was rampant. A recent survey proved that the formal justice system remains inaccessible to most of the poor, with physical access and distance, costs, and corruption as most serious constraints, followed by a general lack of awareness and knowledge of rights. This situation definitely works disadvantageous for women, especially in rural areas but –be it to a lesser extent—also in urban settings (World Bank 2008I, xxxiii-xxxiv, xxxvii-xxxviii, 131-3, 147-150).

Over 2008, the US Dept of State reported that incidents of serious human rights abuses in some areas, including vigilante killings, increased. Security forces continued to commit unlawful killings although the government took steps to prosecute perpetrators. Prison conditions improved, but remained harsh and life threatening, resulting in several deaths. Arbitrary arrest and detention as well as lengthy pretrial detention were problems. Political and judicial decisions involving independent media outlets constrained press freedom. Societal problems including domestic violence, discrimination against women, abuse, exploitation, and forced labor of children, trafficking in women and children, and discrimination against persons with HIV/AIDS remained widespread. Though sexual harassment is illegal, it was pervasive in business, government, and education. And though the law equally forbids all forms of trafficking in persons, there were reports that notably women and girls were trafficked to, from, through, and within the country, mostly for sexual exploitation and domestic servitude (US Dept of State 2009).

### **2.1.3. Prospects**

Recently the World Bank (2008I, xxiv-xxvi) pointed at the country's considerable natural assets than can support and sustain the high growth rates needed for poverty reduction: a surplus of fertile land; underdeveloped coastal tourism areas; coal deposits, et cetera. It adds that the contribution of human capital is growing and may continue to do so, but puts pressure on an education system still struggling to meet basic access issues. The World Bank advises expansion and diversification of labour-intensive manufacturing exports (textiles, garment), for which it expects foreign direct investment to be needed. Yet, according to the World Bank the focus on the investment climate for large firms should be complemented by support for the poorly capitalized small and micro businesses, notably in the service sector in urban cities. In this respect, the importance of the rural nonfarm sector is emphasized. The Bank (2008I, 59) identifies gender equity as a key element of pro-poor growth. The 2003-08 evaluation report for Mozambique qualifies the supporting



environment for MDG3 as weak, but improving (Republic of Mozambique 2008, 3, 25-9).

In early 2009, various studies suggested that Mozambique would be able to, at least initially, escape the worst effects of the current financial crisis, as the country appeared to be relatively insulated from its direct effects. The main risk for Mozambique arises from its dependency on development aid. According to the Mozambican finance minister, till the end of April 2009 there had been no reduction in the flow of aid to the country from the 19 donors and funding agencies providing direct budget support (website AllAfrica). Since May 2009, nearly all leading economists and international institutions have been growingly pessimistic about the prospects of developing countries in the light of the crisis. The ILO was the first organisation to point at the major risk in the Sub-Saharan countries for a large increase in the number of people engaged in vulnerable employment (cited in UNDP 2009). A World Bank research note as of July 2009 clearly states: “The global economic crisis is exposing households in virtually all developing countries to increased risk of poverty and hardship”, adding “While in the short-run, the non-poor may be the most affected by the crisis, experience from past economic and financial crises suggests that the adverse impacts are likely to spread in the medium-term to poor households.” The note ranks Mozambique among the 40 or so developing countries that are highly exposed to the poverty effects of the crisis. With five other countries, it is regarded as the most vulnerable of all as its government budget has little or no tolerance for larger fiscal deficits (Cord *et al* 2009).

## 2.2. Communication

Adequate communication facilities are absolutely essential for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. In Mozambique, fixed telephone lines are very little in number – about 67,000 in 2006. The fixed-line network has been shackling for years and is burdened with high operating costs and charges. This contrasts with rapid growth of the mobile-cellular network, now covering all main cities and key roads. In 2007, already 3.3 million cell phones were in use, nearly one to each six Mozambicans (CIA World Factbook). The fact that pre-payment is available in various amounts, from as little as 50.000 MZN (about USD 2,50), has made

cellular phones accessible to large parts of the population, including women (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 59). One of the two main mobile network providers (Moçambique Celular or mcel) has recently released a GPRS internet connection package, so anywhere one can receive their mobile signals one can also connect to the internet.

Internet coverage is low but growing, with in 2007 about 200,000 Internet users, about 1% of the population (<http://www.internetworldstats.com>). In 2008, the country had 22,500 internet hosts (CIA World Factbook). While in 2008 public access to the Internet continued to expand, particularly in the larger cities, lack of infrastructure in rural areas and installation costs limited overall use (US Dept of State 2009). There appears in Mozambique to exist a fairly large demand for information about women's support services. Forum Mulher and other civil society organisations have themed web pages listing resources available, such as links to websites run by organisations that offer legal advice for women, like MULEIDE (Women, Law and Development Association), AMMCJ (Mozambican Women Lawyers Association), and ORAM (a civil society organization assisting communities in registering communal land titles) (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 61).<sup>1</sup>

Men have much more access to the mass media than women: in 2005 50% of adult women had no access to mass media, compared to only 22% of adult men. In that year access to TV was limited to 15% of all women and 23% of all men. Furthermore, print and TV media operate in Portuguese, though only a minority of the population speaks this language, notably in rural areas. Radio is the most utilized medium. More than half of the overall population has a radio, pointing to the importance of this medium. Again, male access is about 1.5 times higher than female, with 46% of adult women listening to radio at least once a week compared to 75% of adult men. In urban settings 63% of women listen to radio once a week compared to 85% of men.

The first community radio station went on air in 1994. Most community radio stations --totaling 42 in 2004-- broadcast in local languages and have large female audiences. One community radio, Radio Muthiyana, is specifically targeting women. Only a small portion of the population has access to newspapers: in 2005

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1 A number of more general CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) initiatives have been undertaken in Mozambique, some by NGOs, like the Foundation for Community Development, Progresso and Ética Moçambique, most by a limited number of large firms, like Um Olhar de Esperança (*A Look of Hope*), covering public primary and secondary schools, The Fórum Empresarial para o Meio Ambiente (FEMA), on environmental matters, and The Entrepreneurs Association against AIDS (ECoSIDA). Firms that have shown an interest in CSR include Mozal; Coca-cola Sabco; Cervejas de Moçambique (CDM), a local brewery; Colgate-Palmolive; Hidroelétrica de Cabora-Bassa; British Petroleum Mozambique; Sasol; Millenium BIM; Banco Comercial e de Investimentos, SARL (BCI Fomento), Moçambique Celular, as well as the state-owned or parastatal companies Electricidade de Moçambique – EDM, Telecomunicações de Moçambique – TDM, Caminhos de Ferro de Moçambique – CFM (railways), Linhas Aéreas de Moçambique – LAM (air carrier), and Águas de Moçambique – AM (water facilities) (KPMG 2007).

only 4% of adult women and 12% of men. This is largely due to the fact that newspapers are produced in Maputo and subsequently distributed to the rest of the country. The African Women's Media Centre (based in Dakar) has since 1997 supported women journalists with training on journalism ethics, advocacy, leadership through ICT et cetera, and is a partner of the Mozambican Women's Media Association. UNESCO and other agencies run the Mozambican Media Project, which aims to strengthen all aspects of the media sector, including capacity building for female media professionals (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 63; statistical source: UNICEF 2005).

## 2.3. The sectoral labour market structure

Since 1994, the Mozambican urban labour force grew at 3% a year. Most of that urban labour force still had very little education, so not all comers to the cities could find wage employment. Recently the urban population has been estimated at 37% of the total population, and the growth of urbanisation in 2005-2010 at yearly 4.1% (CIA World Factbook). Only about half of the urban population may have left agriculture completely: in 2003, over 80% of the labour force still identified agriculture as their main economic activity. Staying in agriculture, while providing food security for the household, works out disadvantageous for women: it implies a lower productivity than in the nonagricultural sector and, what is more, it can be disempowering as men control the cash (World Bank 2008I, xxi-xxii).

As Table 2 (next page) shows, in 2002-03 nearly nine of ten women 15 and older in employment<sup>2</sup> were still employed in agriculture, against two of three working men. Commerce and services are the two other sectors employing many women, totaling about 350,000 in 2002-03. For the time being, government remains limited as a source of female employment.

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2 The official statistics do not capture child labour under age 15, also because it is forbidden according to Mozambique's Children's Act as of 2007. Moreover, the Labour Code (see section 2.3.1) does not allow work that is unhealthy, dangerous or which requires great physical strength to so-called minor workers (aged 15-17). Yet, child labour remains rather widespread in rural areas, especially on family farms during seasonal harvests, and to a lesser extent in the urban informal sector. INE, the country's National Statistics Institute, calculated based on a 2004-05 survey that 32% of the aged 7 to 17 is economically active: 40% of those in rural areas, one of six of those in urban areas (UNICEF 2007).

Table 2. Sectoral labour market structure, Mozambique, 2002-03, by gender

	all workers		women		men	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
agriculture, fishing	5,707	79.6	3,546	89.3	2,161	67.5
mining	28	0.4	5	0.1	23	0.7
manufacturing	57	0.8	6	0.1	51	1.6
construction	156	2.2	5	0.1	152	4.7
transport	77	1.1	3	0.1	74	2.3
commerce	539	7.5	219	5.5	320	10.0
services	375	5.2	131	3.3	244	7.6
government	234	3.3	58	1.5	176	5.5
Total	7,173	100.0	3,972	100.0	3,201	100.0

Source: IMF 2007

Based on these statistics, it can be estimated that in 2002-03 about 950,000 persons received a wage – about 160,000 women and 790,000 men. If we correct this outcome for employment in commercial agriculture, we can estimate for 2002-03 the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (*MDG Indicator 3.2*) to have been 19% -- a quite low share, also compared to other sub-Saharan countries. It is important to realize that these statistics, and also those concerning type of employment, hide the fact that Mozambican households normally have multiple sources of income (Fox *et al*/2005, 31). Statistically, the main source of income has been leading<sup>3</sup> (see more elaborately section 2.6.3).

## 2.4. National legislation and labour relations

### 2.4.1. Legislation

Mozambique has ratified all eight core ILO Labour Conventions 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138 and 182 (ITUC information). The Constitution of the Republic of 1990 provides that workers have a right to a fair wage, to rest and vacation, and to a safe and healthy work environment. Workers' rights also include the freedom of association and to strike, while lockouts are prohibited. In 1991, maximum hours of work, weekly rests, and paid leave were more specifically laid down in legislation. On December 9, 2003, the National Assembly of Mozambique passed a new Family Law, securing a broad range of rights previously denied to Mozambican women. The new law raises the minimum age of marriage from 14 to 18, allows women to inherit property in the case of divorce, and legally recognizes traditional marriages, which constitute the great majority of marriages in Mozambique (Oxfam website). In general, the laws of Mozambique are non-

3 Moreover, like most population and employment figures these are rather outdated. In 2007, INE undertook a Census, from which in the course of 2009 and in 2010 results will be published.

discriminatory, suffrage is universal and women have the same rights as men to stand in elections and hold public office. What is more, some steps have been taken to guarantee compliance – substantially more so than in Angola (see our Country Report no. 2) (Human Rights Tribune 2007).

On October 30, 2007, a new Labour Code entered into force, in which separate labour laws have been integrated. The Code aimed to ease doing business in and with the country while keeping worker protection to reasonable levels. Business interests were served by, among other things, increased flexibility in the use of fixed term contracts, and reduced the notice period for dismissals, from 90 days to 30 (mentioned in World Bank 2009, 21). A major advance on the workers' side was the extension of the right to organize to public servants and state officials, though excluding though firefighters, prison guards and members of judicial authorities. Particularly important for the young female target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project are the following articles:

- (Protection of maternity and paternity - Special rights of female employees) “1. During the period of pregnancy and after childbirth, female employees shall be guaranteed the following rights: (.....) (b) as of the third month of pregnancy, not to perform night work, exceptional work or overtime, nor be moved from her usual workplace, unless it is at her request or necessary for her health or the health of the child; (c) for a maximum of one year, to interrupt daily work in order to breastfeed the child, for two periods of half an hour each, or for a single one hour period when work is performed in a single unbroken shift, with no loss of remuneration in either case; (d) not to be dismissed, without just cause, during pregnancy or for one year after the birth.” (art. 11)
- (Maternity and paternity leave) “1. In addition to normal holidays, female employees shall be entitled to maternity leave of 60 consecutive days, which may commence twenty days prior to the expected delivery date and which may be enjoyed consecutively. 4. In the event that the mother or the child is admitted to hospital during the period of leave following the birth, this period shall be suspended for the duration of the hospitalisation, upon the employee notifying the employer.” (art. 12)
- (Minor workers) “2. Employers shall not give minors under the age of eighteen work that is unhealthy, dangerous or which requires great physical strength, as defined by the competent authorities, after consultation with trade union and employer organisations. 3. The normal working hours of minors between the ages of fifteen and eighteen shall not exceed thirty-eight hours per week, up to a maximum of seven hours a day.” (art. 23)

- (Rights of employees) “1. All employees are guaranteed equal rights at work, regardless of their ethnic origin, language, race, sex, marital status, age within legally established limits, social condition, religious and political ideals and membership or nonmembership of a trade union.” (art. 54)
- (Concept and general principles) “3. All employees, whether nationals or foreigners, without distinction based on sex, sexual orientation, race, colour, religion, political or ideological convictions, family background or ethnic origin, have the right to receive a wage and to enjoy equal benefits for equal work.” (art. 108)
- (Exercise of trade union activity – Meetings) “1. Trade union delegates, trade union committees and trade unions may hold meetings on trade union affairs at the workplace and these meetings shall, in principle, take place outside the normal working hours of their members.” (art. 159)
- (Hygiene and safety at work – General principles) “1. All employees have the right to perform their work in hygienic and safe conditions, and employers are responsible for creating and developing adequate means for protecting the physical and mental integrity of employees and constantly improving working conditions.” (art. 216)
- (Right to vocational training) “1. Vocational training is a fundamental right of citizens and workers, and the State and employers shall allow this right to be exercised through actions aimed at giving effect to it.” (art. 238)

Concerning maternity leave, it can be added that the employer is the provider, and that benefits are 100% of the wages paid. The employment of pregnant women is protected by law; they cannot be dismissed during pregnancy and maternity leave. A local expert explained that child care facilities, though available to some extent in the decade or so after independence, have become obsolete. Actually, government and employers are counting on the provision of child care through the existing extended family ties.

It has to be noted that as a rule the enforcement of labour legislation is weak. Moreover, if cases are brought into court the wheels of the judiciary are grinding quite slow, of course frustrating enforcement too. For example, in 2005 only 23% of all labour matters were closed; in 2004, this was only 12% (Bodibe 2007, 46).

### 2.4.2. Labour relations

Union density in the formal sector can be estimated at about 20%, though a number of sectors are virtually non-organized. The sectors which are organized have a union density of 40 to 50%. In a 2004 survey in larger workplaces, some 40% of respondents said to belong to a union (Webster *et al* 2006, 266). In total, actually about 190,000 workers in wage employment may be organized, of which about 25-28,000 women – bringing union density of females in wage employment to about 17% (sources: ITUC; ACTRAV-ILO; FOS-Belgium, and labour market statistics cited in sections 2.2 and 2.5.3).

Mozambique has two union federations, OTM-CS and CONSILMO. The largest federation is OTM-CS (Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique), started up in 1983 as the only union federation permitted under the one-party system, with compulsory membership. In 2008, according to its own report to the ITUC, OTM-CS had about 98,000 members organized. By 1 January, 2009, the federation had 17 affiliated unions; moreover, it has two associations, one for the informal economy and one for domestic workers. OTM-CS has a National Women Workers Committee (COMUTRA), led by a National Coordinator and two Secretaries. The federation has an Education and Training School, based in Maputo, as well as a Research Committee. In April 2008, an agreement was signed to reactivate OTM-CS's relationship with local universities and academic research institutes. Subjects on the priority research agenda for 2008-10 include poverty; foreign direct investment; privatization; social security, and labour legislation.

The second federation is CONSILMO, started up in 1992 by three unions breaking away from OTM-CS, arguing that the latter federation remained too close to the ruling party (Webster *et al* 2006, 262). Actually CONSILMO includes four unions as well as one (domestic workers) association. This federation has a national women's committee too, called CONMUT. CONSILMO is said to represent 57,300 members, of which 5,500 women (FOS Belgium 2008). OTM-CS and CONSILMO maintain a stable working relation; on behalf of their negotiations with employers and government, they co-operate in the so-called “foro sindical” (FOS Belgium 2008). Besides both federations, two independent unions are in existence, SNP (teachers) and SNJ (journalists) (ILO-ACTRAV, 2008a, 2008b).

Collective bargaining was first introduced in Mozambique in a government decree as of December 1990 (Webster *et al* 2006, 263). Collective labour agreements remain rather rare; US Dept of State (2008) even maintains that collective bargaining coverage economy-wide is only about 2%. In the 1990s and early 2000s, the country's labour relations have become more firm-centred. Employer associations were weakened. Privatisation, competitive pressure on firms to cut labour costs, consequent job losses in notably manufacturing

as well as inadequate enforcement of labour law have weakened unions' bargaining positions, though unions have managed to retain a significant "residual" presence in many workplaces (Webster and Wood 2005, 374; Webster *et al* 2006, 258, 263). In the 2004 survey, over half of respondents (55%) reported that they had workers' committees at their workplace; however, in over a third of cases management directly appointed shop stewards (indicating the strengthening of managerial power and/or the continuation of older practices in notably state-owned companies). Another worrying outcome of the survey was that employers in only one quarter of 170 workplaces entirely or to a large extent complied with agreements made with employees and/or unions. Obviously unions were often unable to apply sufficient pressure to enforce agreements.

According to Webster *et al* (2006, 267-270), strike activities in the 2000s were rather infrequent; in four out of five workplaces researched there were none. 75% of the recorded strikes resulted from pay disputes. No clear relationship could be traced between employers' behaviour and strike incidence: strike activity was not lower in firms abiding by agreements. Union presence does not seem to readily translate into collective action (Webster *et al* 2006, 267-270). Over the past few years, however, the reports of the US Department of State (2008, 2009) mention the incidence of numerous strikes, many of which, according to this source, centered on issues related to dismissals, privatisation, and (lack of) increases in wage levels.

The ITUC (2008, 2009) reports discrimination against unionists in Export Processing Zones (EPZ's), notably in the Mozal EPZ. Here, unionists are reported to face discrimination and unfair dismissal. According to the ITUC's latest report on Mozambique (2009), unless the enactment of the new Labour Code the right to bargain collectively is under pressure since the authorities do not take measures to require employers to respect collective agreements. Also, strikes are often suppressed and encounter violent reactions from the part of employers and sometimes the police. The ITUC maintains that, though Mozambique has ratified the ILO core conventions on equal remuneration and discrimination, women receive lower pay than men for work of equal value. And though the government tries to monitor child labour, children work as seasonal labour in family farms and in commercial plantations, although not in industry. The 2009 report refers to OTM-CS information according to which in various cases job recruitment, particularly for young people, is conditional on non-adhesion to any union.



## 2.5. Minimum wage and poverty

### 2.5.1. The statutory minimum wage

In May 2007, the government decided to a 14% rise in the statutory minimum wage (SMW) for industry and services, including public services. This decision followed weeks of deadlock in the Consultative Labour Commission (CCT), the tripartite negotiating body between the government, the trade unions and the employers' associations. The unions had called for a 17% rise in the minimum wage, arguing that the current minimum wage covered less than 50% of the basic needs of a worker and his / her family, while the employers were not prepared to go beyond 13% (Allafrica website). For 2008, there was consensus between unions and employers about an increase between 11 and 50%, approved by government in early May. Instead of three minimum wage categories, a division in eight sectors was agreed upon besides the two groups for which SMW's had always been lower (military, and agriculture, livestock and forestry). The SMW for the manufacturing and services sectors was set at MZN 1,645 per month, while in agriculture it was MZN 1,315. According to the US Department of State (2008), both wage levels did not guarantee a decent standard of living.

By the end of April, 2009, the government ratified the SMW rises as proposed by the CCT between 5 and 42% in eight out of nine sectors, bringing SMW to the following monthly rates:

- for agriculture, livestock, hunting and forestry: MZN 1,486 (13% compared to 2008), except sugar workers: 1,500 MZN (14% rise);
- fisheries: MZN 2,050 (8% rise) for maritime and semi-industrial fishing, except for Kapenta fishing on Cahora Bassa lake: MZN 1,900 (5%);
- mining: MZN 2,120 (12% rise);
- manufacturing: MZN 2,300 (16.5% rise);
- electricity, gas and water: MZN 2,403 (12.5% rise);
- construction: MZN 2,115 (10% rise);
- non-financial services: MZN 2,250 (16.5%);
- financial activities: MZN 2,745 (42%);
- public service: MZN 2,345 (28%).

These SMW rates are equivalent to USD 56-103 per month. We calculated the rates to be in the order of 105 to 206% of the 2008 average wage in the formal sector.<sup>4</sup> Jointly with this already very high relative level, the varying 2009 SMW increases will most likely bear the effect of enlarging inequalities in the wage income distribution – assuming that compliance with the SMW is strict. Yet, according to experts in Mozambican labour relations that is quite unlikely; they mention the “widely ignored minimum wage” (Webster and Wood 2005, 374). Alexandre Munguambe, general secretary of the OTM-CS union federation, lately commented on the 2008 increases that fixing the SMW's was just the first step. Now it was up to union committees throughout the country “to negotiate wages above the minimum, taking into account the economic situation in each company” (Allafrica website).

### 2.5.2. Poverty

For 2000-06, UNDP (2008) estimated that 90% of the Mozambican population, actually over 19 million people, lived below USD 2 a day (in PPP terms); in 2003 nearly 75% had to make ends meet with an income below USD 1 (PPP) a day. If the USD 1 yardstick is applied, Mozambique is doing worse than South Africa (26%), Angola (54%) and Zambia (64%) and is about at par with Malawi (74%) (*MDG Indicator 1.1*, derived from UN MDG Indicators). The World Bank estimated “monetary poverty” or those below the national poverty line, measured by total household consumption, to have gone down from 69% of the Mozambican population in 1997 to 54% in 2003, thus by 15%-points in six years. Rural poverty fell more than urban poverty: from 71 to 55%, instead of 62 to 52% for urban poverty (World Bank – WDI). Moreover, the available figures confirm the picture that the poorest did not gain much from economic growth. In 2003, the poorest 20% of the population had a share of 5.4% in national consumption (*MDG Indicator 1.3*, derived from UN MDG Indicators). In international perspective this figure was not that low; compare for example with Angola (2.0% in 2000) and South Africa (3.1% in 2000). Yet, it was slightly less (0.3%-point) than in 1997. Considering developments in the 2000s, the Mozambican figure most likely has been stuck at about 5%.

Developments in poverty and in access to public services and goods vary considerably across the 10 Mozambican provinces. Poverty has fallen most in the center, driven by the large changes in the populous provinces of Sofala and Zambezia. Sofala, the country's poorest province in 1997, saw such significant reductions in poverty that in 2003 it became the least poor province (However, as we will see, the spread of the HIV/AIDS pandemic is heavily threatening the reduction of poverty in notably the central provinces). Poverty also fell in the north, though more in urban areas, and it rose in Cabo Delgado. The south experi-

4 The ILO (2008, Appendix Table A2) mentions 207% of the GDP per capita.

enced an increase in poverty rates, especially in the city of Maputo and the surrounding province. Poverty in Inhambane, the second poorest province in 1997 after Sofala, fell only slightly, leaving the province as the country's poorest in 2003. The small poverty reduction in the rural south was overwhelmed by the increase in urban poverty (Arndt *et al* 2006b, 577). Moreover, between 2002 and 2005 18% of rural people rose above the poverty line but 15% also fell below it, a movement that shows substantial insecurity. In rural areas, large numbers are untouched by progress. 56% of the rural extremely poor in 2002 still belonged to the same category in 2005 (Hanlon 2007, 2-3). Thus, in the end mobility out of poverty proves to be low.

Mozambique's distribution of poverty is heavily gendered. After 1997 the income distribution improved slightly for male-headed households, but deteriorated significantly for female-headed households, which in 2003 accounted for about 56% of the lower 20%. These results are largely confirmed by a household survey held in 2006, focusing on poverty as assessed by the poor. Male-headed households considered themselves much better off, on average, than female-headed households. Indeed, female-headed households are more vulnerable, because they often have fewer assets and fewer productive resources (World Bank 2008I, 10-19).

The human development index (HDI) of the UNDP (expressing life expectancy, education and per capita income) remains quite low for Mozambique. In 2006 the country ranked 175<sup>th</sup> in a total of 179 countries, and lowest among its neighbouring countries (Malawi, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia<sup>5</sup>) on human development -- the latter position just being as it was from 1980 on. For 2006 the Mozambican Gender-related Development Index (GDI) was low compared to the neighbours as well. The regional variations in the GDI within the country are large, but the development of the country's overall GDI clarifies that women have not benefited as much from economic growth and social policies as men (Republic of Mozambique 2008, 9; UNDP 2008). Yet, for 2008 the Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum ranks Mozambique 18<sup>th</sup> of 130 countries, being the strongest performer among the lower-income countries. This high ranking is for a considerable part due to Mozambique's no. 1 ranking in female labour force participation. Yet, it is worth noting that, compared to 2007, when the country ranked 43<sup>rd</sup>, its score on the equality index has shown a strong increase (Hausmann *et al* 2008).<sup>6</sup>

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5 For recent years, UNDP did not publish a HDI ranking for Zimbabwe.

6 To be included in this index, a country must have data available for a minimum of 12 indicators out of 14 variables; Mozambique had two indicators missing (Hausmann *et al* 2008, 7). The index ranks economic participation and opportunity; educational attainment; health and survival, and political empowerment.

## 2.6. Demographics and the female labour force

### 2.6.1. Population and fertility

The total population of Mozambique by the end of 2007 stood at 21,397,000, of which 11,012,000 female (51.5%). By the end of 2008, population was estimated at 21,669,000, implying a growth rate in 2008 of 1.8%. The median age is very low: 17.4 years -- 17.0 for males and 17.8 years for females. For 2008, the birth rate was 38.2 births per 1,000 population, the death rate 20.3 deaths per 1,000. Infant mortality (probability of dying between birth and age 1 per 1,000 live births) fell considerably between 1990 and 2007, from 135 to 115, and under 5 mortality (probability of dying between by age 5 per 1,000 live births) fell at the same time from 201 to 168. However, infant and child mortality remain among the highest in the world, and considerably higher than in Malawi, Tanzania, and Uganda (WHO 2009). In Mozambique health conditions vary widely across income and other categories. For example, among the poorest 20% of the population the under 5 mortality rate in 2007 was still 196, against among the highest 20% in the income distribution 108; in rural areas this rate was 192, whereas it was 143 in urban areas, and as for the education level of the mother, the rates were respectively 201 for mothers with the lowest level and 86 for those with the highest level. Other health indicators show similar variations in outcomes (WHO 2009). This has a lot to do with health workforce, infrastructure, and the availability of essential medicines, but also with physical conditions. For example, in 2006 in Mozambique's rural areas only 26% of the population had access to a safe (in UN terms improved) drinking water source and 19% to improved sanitation, while these proportions in urban areas were respectively 71% and 53% (WHO 2009).

The total fertility rate (TFR) has fallen, from 5.6 (1997) to 5.2 (2009); here too, large differences remain between income categories, with in 2003 a TFR of 6.2 among the poorest 40% compared to only 3.8 among the richest 20% (Fox *et al* 2005, 9; CIA World Factbook). Of course, their lower number of children give the upper 20% a considerable advantage in life. The most recent TFR is an estimated 5.2 children born per woman aged 15-49 (CIA estimates for 2009). For an indication of the situation of our target group, the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-19 of age) is of special importance. In 2005 this rate stood at 155 – a quite high figure, also compared to most neighbouring countries (WHO 2008).

Life expectancy at birth in Mozambique was on average 42.4 years in 2006, 43.1 years for females and 41.8 for males, low figures even by African standards (UNDP 2008<sup>7</sup>). Many experts deem a further lift of these figures unlikely, because of the spread of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, in combination with widespread malnutrition and limited access to safe water (Tarp *et al* 2002; UNDP 2007, 7, 41ff; World Bank 2008I, 101). For 2006, it is estimated that 58% of the Mozambican population is not using an improved water source (UNDP 2008). In the long run these “reverse” demographic dynamics may threaten further economic growth and poverty eradication (cf. Klasen and Woltermann 2005).

### 2.6.2. HIV/AIDS

Mozambican demographics are heavily influenced by the widespread incidence of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. In 2005, the country’s HIV/AIDS – adult prevalence rate among adults (15-49 years) was set at over 1%. Most recent World Health Organization (WHO 2009) statistics give for 2007 a considerably lower rate, 11.8% (11,761 per 100,000 adults), suggesting that the pandemic is on the way back in Mozambique. The country was slower than other countries to pick up the disease, but at least till three or four years ago the rapidly rising infection rates formed a gloomy prospect. Especially among youngsters aged 15-24, infection levels have been rising till recently (UNAIDS / WHO 2008a, 2008b). The country will see a loss of educated and training people, and per capita economic growth will slow down. The central region is the most severely infected and affected, with an average rate of 20.4%, compared with 18.1% in the southern provinces, and 9.3% in the north (figures for 2004: UNDP 2007, 21). Research shows the baleful combination between HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis, as one of the main opportunist infections – but largely curable. Meanwhile, malaria is a huge health problem in the country and the main cause of hospitalization and mortality. Children under five and pregnant women are among the groups most vulnerable to this disease (UNDP 2007, 3-5; Republic of Mozambique 2008, 12). In Mozambique women aged 20-34 are three times more likely than men in the same age bracket to get infected by HIV/AIDS. The estimates by gender for 2005 indicate that by the time 21.9% of Mozambican women aged 20-34 were infected, compared with 7.2% of men in the same age group. In addition, 8.5% of girls aged 15-19 were infected, compared with 2.8% of the boys (IMF 2007, 22). Not only because of their level of infection the burden of HIV/AIDS falls mainly on the women; this is also since caring for sick family members is considered a woman’s task. The 800,000 deaths forecast to occur between 2004 and 2010 as a result of Aids and related diseases will drastically increase the number of orphans, which will encounter serious problems in access to education. Orphanage will definitely

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7 WHO (2009) gives a considerably higher life expectancy for 2007: 47 years for males, 48 for females.

ruin the prospects in life of many girls (IMF 2007, 22-3, 159; UNDP 2007, 25-6). The World Bank (2008I, 155) argues that low female bargaining power, in combination with the HIV/AIDS stigma, makes women more vulnerable to infection and hampers prevention work in Mozambique. For example, young women in Maputo who were involved in multiple transactional or cross-generational relationships report that the use of condoms, or even raising the prospect of using condoms in discussions with sexual partners, was considered to jeopardize income. The possible long-term effect of contracting HIV/AIDS was seen as relatively less important than the short-term effect of losing income.<sup>8</sup> Finally, the pandemic is going to aggravate supply problems concerning skilled labour in the educational and health sectors (UNDP 2007, 26-8).<sup>9</sup> This is another road along which especially girls' and women's future perspectives may be damaged.

### 2.6.3. Women's labour market share

From 2000-2007, the male population has grown by 18.8%, the female population by 16.5%. A very large share of the population is 0-14 years: in 2007 44.4%; 45.9% of the male population and 42.9% of the female part. On the other hand, a very small share of the population was 65 of age and older: 3.2% of the total population, only 2.8% of the males and 3.7% of the females (ILO-Laborsta, EAPEP calculations, and own calculations based on this source).

Of the total population, by 2007 9,873,000 persons were counted as economically active, of which 538,000 in the age of 65 and older. If we leave out this last group in order to comply with the internationally comparable Labour Participation Rate (LPR) or Employment-to-Population ratio (EPOP) that only takes stock of the 15-64 of age, we can calculate for 2007 the over-all LPR or EPOP at 83.3% (*MDG indicator 1.5*). Across countries, this EPOP is a very high rate – the highest of all 14 countries in our project.

With 89.1%, the female LPR or EPOP we calculated is even higher, and considerably higher than the male figure (76.8%). As far as we can trace, it is even the world's highest female EPOP. Women in the (five years') age cohorts between 20 and 60 of age all show a very high labour participation, with rates over 90%, rates also consistently higher than the male LPR's. Lower than 90% were only the LPR's of females aged 15-19 (78.0%, but compare with males of the same age: 55.1%), 20-24 (88.9%, against males: 71.1%), 60-64 (83.0%), and 65 of age and older (still 73.1%). By 2007, the LPR of women aged 25-29 was 92.4% (males: 82.4%). We were able to calculate that the 2007 LPR for 15-29 year old females was 89.5%, encompassing

8 There are also some positive signs, like that prevention activities among school-attending adolescents are prompting more young people to protect themselves against possible HIV infection (UNAIDS / WHO 2008a, 7).

9 These may come on top of the problems caused by the already huge skilled emigration (brain drain): by 2000, more than one-third of all Mozambicans with tertiary education lived in OECD countries and South Africa, though recently the outward flow seems to have declined (Fernandes and Mattoo 2009, 13-5).

2,429,000 women (ILO-Laborsta, and own calculations based on this source). Over the years, the female EPOP in Mozambique remained at a very high level: in 1990-92 it was already 88.1% (World Bank, 2006 World Development Indicators). From 1998 on, shifts in the EPOP's (LPR's) for the respective 5 years' groups have been, with maximum 3%-points, small. As a consequence of these very high LPRs or EPOPs and the related reliance on agriculture, open unemployment amongst females is quite limited: for 2007 it can be estimated at 5% (UNDP 2007).

It is of major importance to note that of all workers in Mozambique a quite limited share, in 2002-03 just about 13% of the labour force or 950,000 persons, received a wage. Wage employment is heavily gendered. About 160,000 women, or only 4% of all women workers, were in wage employment, against 790,000 men (25% of all male workers). In urban areas –accounting for 29% of the labour force—the share of wage employed among females was 12% (men: 52%), in rural areas it remained just below 1% (men: 12%). These figures are unlikely to have raised substantially in the last five years. In 2003, women worked to a larger extent in a family business, while men are likely to be more self-employed: 57% of all women employed were family workers (men: 15%), and 36% were self-employed (against 57% of all men). Across industries, the share of wage employment among women was highest in public administration (100%), followed by education (96%), health and construction (both 88%), transport (85%), manufacturing (72%), and services (60%). In services, just about 30% of women working received a wage, and in commerce this was only about 15%; 73% of female traders was self-employed (Fox *et al* 2005, 34-5; World Bank 2008I, 36). The World Bank (2008I, 38) more or less equals being self-employed with working in the informal sector.

For 2003, we estimated the proportion of own-account and contributing family members in total employment (*MDG Indicator 1.7*) at 77%, in international perspective an extremely high figure. This contrasts with the low share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (*MDG Indicator 3.2*), 19%. These figures are rather relative and have to be seen against the backdrop that most Mozambican households have multiple sources of income. In 2002, the average number of people working per household was 2.3 (1996: 2.6), with an average of 1.2 people earning cash. The differences between urban and rural areas were limited, though the share of those earning cash was –as to be expected—higher in urban settings. In 2002, the average number of those working per household in urban areas was 2.2 (1996: 2.5) with 1.4 earn-

ing cash, whereas the rural figures were 2.3 (1996: 2.6) and 1.1 (Fox *et al* 2005, 33).

It has to be added that wage employment also varies widely in Mozambique, from employment with a permanent contract, substantial job security, a regular salary, and all benefits provided for in the Labour Code—or a job with no security and payment by the hour, day, or piece. The first type of employment is the norm for public sector workers, and enterprise surveys indicate that about half of workers in private manufacturing firms in urban areas have a similar arrangement (Fox *et al* 2005, 34). Other wage workers are on fixed term contracts, where they have all these benefits except job security. According to the 2007 Labour Code, fixed term contracts may be entered into for a period of up to two years, and this period may be renewed twice by agreement between the parties; it shall be considered a permanent contract if it exceeds the maximum periods of duration (art. 42, 1 and 2). Moreover, recently about 10% of wage workers were casual workers, who have no regular job or contract and work only for cash or in kind, with tasks lasting for days, months or longer periods up to two years. These workers are found in transport, construction, and personal services, but also—in rapidly growing numbers—in health care and education. As casual workers are not registered by employers, they lack social protection based on the Labour Law (World Bank 2008I, 37; Bodibe 2006, 42-3, 46). A local expert indicated that there are yet few temporary work agencies, with those in existence mainly doing business with large companies.

Table 3 shows that in 2002-03 across industries women's employment share was highest in agriculture (62%). In all other industries women made up minorities, though their shares were substantial in commerce (41%) and services (35%). Male-dominated sectors were and remained government (with less than 25% women), mining (16%), manufacturing (nearly 10%), transport (4%), and construction (3%).

*Table 3 Female employment shares by sector, Mozambique, 2002-03*

	x 1,000	%
agriculture	3,546	62.1
mining	4,6	16.3
manufacturing	5,5	9.7
construction	4,8	3.1
transport	3,1	4.0
commerce	219,1	40.7
services	131,0	34.9
government	57,7	24.7
Total	3,972	55.4

Source: Fox *et al* 2005



Table 4 indicates that the share of agriculture in female employment is diminishing, as well as that the commerce and service sectors are growing. In 2002-03, the shares of the other industries remained below 1%.

*Table 4 Shares of industries in female employment, Mozambique, 1996 and 2002-03*

	1996	2002-03
agriculture	95.9	89.3
mining	0.0	0.1
manufacturing	0.6	0.1
construction	0.1	0.1
transport	0.1	0.1
commerce	1.9	5.5
services	0.6	3.3
education	0.3	0.7
health	0.4	0.4
public admin.	0.2	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0

*Source: Fox et al 2005; IMF 2007*

Below, we shortly describe developments in large sectors with special attention to the position of women.

#### 2.6.4. Agriculture

At the same time, Table 4 confirms that most of the Mozambican population still survives in subsistence agriculture. As men have dominated the movement of adults out of agriculture into wage and self-employment in nonagricultural sectors, the agricultural labor force is increasingly made up of women. Between 1996 and 2002-03 the share of all women in work employed in agriculture fell by over 6%points, but in 2002-03 it still concerned the overwhelming majority of nearly nine of ten women. In 2002-03, women constituted about 62% of the active agricultural labour force. Female heads of households in rural areas are particularly constrained, both in time –mostly working very long hours per day-- and in income sources. They have not been able to diversify their income portfolios as quickly as their male counterparts. (World Bank 2008I, 50-1). As an in-depth study for Mozambique proved, improving the productivity of women in agriculture would give a boost to economic growth and reduce poverty (Arndt *et al* 2006a).

#### 2.6.5. Manufacturing

In low-income countries, manufacturing is normally the source of new wage jobs. However, fuelled by the prevailing neo-liberal privatisation and restructuring policies, in Mozambique the already fragile sector has suffered from job destruction, since 1996 shedding jobs at more than 10% a year on average. In this

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process, the share of women in the manufacturing sector even decreased, resulting in a fall of the share of manufacturing in female employment after 1996, to only 0.1% in 2002-03. In this period the number of women working in manufacturing fell from 19,000 to 5,500, with no clear signs of recovery since. New small and medium-sized firms manufacturing for the domestic market (in food, beverages, wood processing) did create jobs, but to a quite limited extent, and the new megaprojects producing goods for export did not. While these megaprojects—the Mozal aluminum smelter and two energy projects -- contributed to GDP growth, they have only limited linkages to the rest of the economy (Arndt *et al* 2006b, 599; World Bank 2008I). The conclusion is not exaggerated that the strong policy emphasis on the development of these projects has seriously hampered the development of small-scale manufacturing, which in turn has been detrimental for women's employment.

#### **2.6.6. Commerce**

Commerce and services grew considerably as sources for female employment, jointly with more than 6%points to 8.8%. Yet, the development of commerce is not a full-swing success story. Expansion in small-scale commerce has particularly been hampered by the substantial changes in the country's legal code, that have been badly communicated and hardly have been translated into local language. This may have especially been disadvantageous for women's participation (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 25-7; World Bank 2008I, xxxviii). Quite recently the formal retail sector is expanding, which may offer new employment opportunities for young women. Mostly foreign firms, like the South African Shoprite Group, are investing in new supermarkets. Most of the stock, even in the small stores, is imported, as far as it concerns processed food largely from South Africa. Supermarkets are hardly outlets for locally produced food; this is mostly sold in retail bazaars, like the four large ones in Maputo run by the municipality, and small grocery stores. Wholesale is expanding more slowly and consists of many small operators, with some larger trading groups as exceptions (SIDA 2007; various messages at AllAfrica website).

#### **2.6.7. Services**

We estimate the share of women employed in formal wage employment working in commercial services (including commerce) for 2002-03 to be 70,000, or 44% of all women working in the formal sector (With about 280,000, the number of women working in informal labour in services is about fourfold). Between 1996 and 2002-03, commercial services—such as transport, food preparation, finance, and telecommunication—saw their output grow slightly slower than GDP did, but employment in these services tripled.

Earnings growth was strong, despite falling productivity because of the high income elasticity of demand for services—as incomes increase, people want to consume more services. Even after the increased employment, average earnings were higher in private services than in agriculture, so the shift to commercial services helped reducing poverty (World Bank 2008I, 29).

A recent World Bank paper (Fernandes and Mattoo 2009) studies the markets of four types of professional services in Mozambique: accounting and auditing; engineering; corporate legal, and certain medical services. According to the 2002 census, in the first three sub-sectors just over 200 firms were active, with jointly about 5,400 employees. Most firms are quite small; especially in accounting and engineering subsidiaries of US- and Europe-based multinational firms dominate. The potential for expansion in the three markets is assessed as large; especially in engineering serious shortages already are in existence. This may be different for private medical services, but the public medical system also suffers from large shortages of doctors, medical assistants and nurses (Fernandes and Mattoo 2009, 16-24). The authors suggest lifting the existing limitations for hiring foreign workers, as foreign professionals can be crucial in helping develop local skills. To us, in general expanding the capacity of secondary and university education seems more adequate, combined with the efforts the authors propose to agree with notably South Africa and Portugal to grant non-extendable visas to certain categories of Mozambique professionals, as to lower the brain drain (cf. Fernandes and Mattoo 2009, 26-36, 52). Unfortunately, the World Bank paper lacks a discussion of the perspectives of young female professionals.

Leading firms in the sub-sectors mentioned above are (sources: mbendi website; EVD website):

- accounting and auditing, financial advice, consulting, engineering: KPMG; BDO & Co; Coopers & Lybrand (Mocambique); Deloitte & Touche (Mocambique); PriceWaterhouseCoopers; Louis Berger Int'l; Ronco Consulting; Southern Cross Mozambique; Ridgway; Austral-COWI; Mozambique Advisor;
- corporate lawyers: H. Ganito etc.; Monteiro Graca a Ass.; Pinenta Dioniso e Ass.; Sal & Caldeira; Vascoudos Porto e Ass.

Since 2004, tourism is expanding, though a real take-off still stays away. According to the Minister of Tourism, the tourism sector actually employs over 40,000 people, of which more than 50% women. After slow growth in the decades before, in four years' time the number of foreign visitors has more than doubled, to over 1.5 million in 2008 (website AllAfrica). Yet, most hotels are small, locally-owned businesses with only a few internationally-owned chains, like the Portuguese Pestana and Salvor groups (SIDA 2007).

While finding a balance of the expansion of tourism with ecological and social imperatives is needed, the poor development of Mozambican transport, food and communication and information services cannot be overlooked (Cf. IFC 2006).

### **2.6.8. Government**

Since 1997, incomes in the public sector grew rapidly, so that the poverty rate for households headed by a public sector employee was brought down to only 33% in 2003 (World Bank 2008I, 29). This development clearly favoured (married) men: the World Bank (2008I, 43-4) concluded to a wage premium for married men in government service. The scarcely available figures suggest that participation of women in government service continues to lag behind, a development that tends to withhold women from skilled labour as well. The skill level of the workforce is by far highest in the public (wage) sector, with 71% skilled in 2003 – large progress compared to 1997, when 42% of all public servants were skilled, though this progress obviously in majority concerned men. About 95% of all civil servants may have a permanent contract. In the 2000s the gap, in payment and contractual status, between civil servants and the remaining urban workforce is growing, as does more generally the gap between white and blue collar workers.

## **2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force**

### **2.7.1. Literacy**

Various adult literacy rates –those age 15 and over that can read and write—circulate for Mozambique. For 2006, INE, the country's National Statistics Institute, released a preliminary figure of 48%: 3.6%-points higher than the 2001 level. We should emphasize that this overall figure is hiding a huge gender gap: in 2006 male literacy was an estimated 68%, against only 35.5% for women (women to men parity 52%). From 2001-2006, the male literacy rate went up by 8.1%, the female rate by 5.4% (UNDP 2007, 7, 10). Though this meant a slight rise in women to men parity, from 50% to 52%, in absolute terms the gender gap even widened. In 2007, the literacy rate for 15-24 year-olds (*MDG Indicator 2.3*, derived from UN MDG Indicators and based on UNESCO data) was set at 53%, divided in 58.4% for young men and 47.5% for young women. Disappointing was the fact that compared with the 1997 census figures, the literacy rate for men aged 15-24 fell by 1.1%-point. Yet, literacy among 15-24 year old women grew at the same time by 10.9%-points, lifting women to men parity from 62% in 1997 to 81% in 2007.

## 2.7.2. Education of girls and young women

Positive developments can be reported under this heading. In 2006 the gross enrollment ratio in education was 54.8%, a middle position among Sub-Saharan countries – though the female enrollment rate (50.2%) lags over 9%-points behind that of males (UNDP 2008). Notably in 1996-2002, primary school enrollment of both the 7-12 olds and the 12-18 of age grew dramatically, in the youngest cohort from 51 to 93% and in the oldest cohort from 41 to 69% (Fox *et al* 2005, 10). The World Bank adds: “In a major achievement, girls’ net primary school enrollment in grades 1-5 increased significantly, particularly for the poorest quintile (20%, authors UvA), rural areas, and central provinces”. As a result, in 2006 overall girls’ enrollment in primary education was 73%, against 79% for boys, bringing girls to boys parity to 93% (*MDG Indicator 2.3* and *MDG Indicator 3.1*, derived from UN MDG Indicators). Girls’ almost equaled boys’ enrollment rates in most of Mozambique; gender parity in enrollment has already been achieved in the southern provinces. The trend was particularly accentuated among the 11- to 15-year-olds, where the share of girls enrolled increased from 34 to 39%, and the share of boys attending school shrank slightly. Many girls are no longer required to stay home and help with domestic tasks (World Bank 2008I, xix-xx, 31, 50, 89).

However, the opposite is true in secondary education, where the gender gap is widening throughout the country. The overall enrollment rate in secondary education in Mozambique (15.5% in 2006) is already strikingly low relative to the rates of for example Malawi (29%) and Zambia (36%) (Fernandes and Mattoo 2009, 11), yet for girls the situation is even worse. According to the official statistics, in 2003 girls’ enrollment in secondary education was 89% of boys’ (World Bank – WDI); applied on the 2006 overall rate, this may have implied a girl’s enrollment rate of only 14.6%. Even this outcome seems to paint an overly optimistic picture. For the poor serious constraints on access to secondary education for girls persist, notably the obligation to pay matriculation fees. Distance, too, is a substantial barrier, also because families are less willing to sending girls to live alone or with relatives or friends in areas with secondary schools than they do if it concerns boys. Third, traditional paternalism from various (often religious) origins still plays a major role, especially in rural areas: girls are expected to be “married off” to other families or to spend most of their time to household activities (Van den Bergh-Collier 2007, 10; World Bank 2008I, 87).

Finally, though increasing the number of students enrolled in higher education institutions in Mozambique is still extremely low, also compared to neighbouring countries. Statistics from the Ministry of Education and Culture showed that as of 2002, the share of these students represented 0.4% of the 18-29 year olds, a share that increased to about 0.7% in 2005 and 1% in 2006 (Fernandes and Mattoo 2009, 11). Moreo-

ver, in higher education the gender gap seems to remain quite large. World Bank (WDI) and UNESCO statistics indicated for 2005 that the enrollment of women in tertiary education was only 49% of that of men (World Bank – WDI). This outcome suggests that in 1999-2005 the female share in higher education even fell, from 36% in 1999 (Mouzinho *et al* 2003, 26) to 33% in 2005.

### 2.7.3. Female skill levels

As Table 5 shows, in 2003 almost 96% of the women who worked did not attend school through, or advance past, EP1 (grades 1 – 5). This compared to 85% of the male employed. In 2003, 160,779 women in employment (4.0% of all women) had completed ESG2, the second cycle of secondary education; only 19,755 women in work (0.5% of all) were highly skilled, defined as having had higher than completed ESG2. Women's share in the unskilled part of the labour force was 58.3%, in the skilled part 27.8%, and in the highly skilled part 23.0%. Over 90% of the two latter groups of women could be found in urban areas (our calculations, based on Arndt *et al* 2006a, 75). Taking into account recent trends in girls' education and female labour participation, for 2009 the number of skilled women in the labour market can be extrapolated at 210,000 and, on top of them, the highly skilled at 22,000 (our calculations, based on Arndt *et al* 2006a, IMF 2007, World Bank 2008I, 2008II). If we equal the latter group with the female professional and technical workers, the 2003 share of female professional and technical workers in this total group can be calculated at 23%.

Table 5 Labour force by highest level of education completed, Mozambique, 2003, by gender

	all		women		men	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x1,000	%
unskilled	6,508	90.7	3,791	95.5	2,717	84.9
skilled	578	8.1	161	4.0	417	13.0
highly skilled	86	1.2	20	0.5	66	2.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>7,173</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,972</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,201</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Sources: Arndt *et al* 2006a; IMF 2007

Key:

unskilled = EP1 (grades 1-5) or less (functionally illiterate and enumerate)

skilled = EP2 (grades 6 & 7)-ESG2 (literate and numerate up to first level secondary or technical school level)

highly skilled = higher than ESG2 (completed secondary school and higher)

As already noted, the skill level of the workforce is highest in the public (wage) sector, with 71% skilled. In 2003, 31% of all wage earners in the private sector were skilled, a considerably larger share than the 17% of 1997. The share of skilled workers in self-employment stuck at 17% (1997: 16%), while that share fell even slightly in agriculture: 3.1% in 2003, against 3.5% in 1997 (our calculations, based on World Bank 2008I, 43). Unfortunately, these figures have not been broken down by gender. Moreover, the available figures on the educational level of the labour force (cf. World Bank 2008II, Table A2.29) are not detailed enough to allow comparing them with the skill level figures presented above, and to find clues about the incidence of over- or underskilling among the female workforce.

Calculations of a World Bank team concluded that increased education in the workforce accounted for 28% of GDP growth between 1999 and 2004. Disaggregating this contribution by gender shows that the increase of educated women in the labor force explains 11% of GDP growth, compared to 17% attributed to the increased supply of educated men. The calculation suggests that if women had been attending school at the rate of men and subsequently entered the labor force, the country's economic growth could have been higher (World Bank 2008I, 49).

Based on the information in the former sections, grouped in the Tables 2 – 5, we can make a more accurate estimate of the size of our target group than we were able to in the application for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. We now estimate that about 70,000 young women aged 15-30 are currently in wage employment, mostly in commerce and services, and nearly all in urban areas. Another 30,000 will enter into such employment in the next five years. Admittedly, this is much lower than the estimate we earlier had to resort to, based on the 1997 Census.

## **2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group**

### **2.8.1. Wages**

In Mozambique for both women and men education is the most important determinant of wages (World Bank 2008I, 45 – Figure). It has been estimated that skilled labour in rural areas earns about 20% more than unskilled labour. In urban areas the skill wage premium is larger: here skilled and highly skilled labour earns about 50% and 100% more respectively than unskilled labour. In addition, unskilled urban wages tend to be significantly higher than their rural counterparts. The researchers in question conclude that, given

the preponderance of females in unskilled rural labour –particularly in agriculture--, there is great scope for improving the status of female labour by skills upgrading (Arndt *et al* 2006a, 75-6).

As the company part of the 2004 survey led by Webster and Wood showed, in larger companies performance-based pay was widespread: it was found in 62% of 177 companies. 65% of those with performance-based pay used group incentives or bonuses; only 5% made use of employee share ownership plans (ESOPs), whilst there was no evidence of any profit sharing. A local expert confirmed to us that ESOPs were limited to some large, mostly foreign, firms. As the researchers concluded, a sizeable minority of firms failed to offer their workers the most basic benefits commonly associated with an employment contract. One-third of companies where a collective agreement was in place did not pay overtime; at unionized ones, this was 42%. 23% of the firms with collective agreement and 29% of the others did not offer workers formal breaks during the working day. 30% of collective agreement firms and 42% of the others did not give their workers paid vacations (though as a rule 30 vacation days a year are paid). Again, 32% of the collective agreement firms and 40% of the firms without collective agreement withheld paid sick-leave to their workers. Finally, 28% of the collective agreement firms and 37% of the others did not provide health insurance (Webster and Wood 2005, 377-378).

A local expert confirmed the considerable segmentation existing and even growing between collective agreements. For those on permanent contracts a small upper layer of collective agreements provides (night) shift payment; overtime payment; extra compensation for dangerous work, as well as compensations / subsidies for transport, car fuel, housing, use of phone, and medical treatment. The majority of collective agreements is lacking these elements to a smaller or larger extent, and except for top officials individual agreements are lacking them nearly all. Pension rights can only be built up in the minority of companies that are members of the social insurance fund and pay their fees. Anyway, pensions are the main form of formalized social insurance in Mozambique; there is no national system of unemployment benefits. A system of medical insurance has been discussed, but has not yet been implemented.

It has to be added that a large gender pay gap prevails in the country's wage employment. Wage-regression analysis reveals strong signs of sex discrimination, with women earning 28% less income than men, even when controlling for differences in education levels, marital status and sector of activity (World Bank 2008I, 52). In its 2009 report, the ITUC also points at the magnitude of this gap.



## 2.8.2. Working conditions

Until very recently hardly anything was available in writing on working conditions in Mozambique in other sectors than in agriculture. In this respect, data from the WageIndicator survey will be very welcome. The incidence of work accidents up till now has been the main indicator of occupational health and safety. In 2005, the equivalent of 35 injuries per 100,000 workers was reported to the Provincial departments of Work Inspection - OHS, of which the large majority in Maputo city and Maputo province. The Work Inspection still seems to be in its infancy, with in 2005 a total of 93 inspectors among which four university graduated. Of these 93 inspectors, only 36 are responsible for overseeing hygiene and safety at the workplace (Cumbane *et al* 2007).

In a final stage we were able to include results of a survey on working conditions, undertaken in June 2009 at the level of households and urban tourism-based units. Commissioned by the ILO, this survey was carried out by the Center for Policy Analysis of the Eduardo Mondlane University (CAP 2009). Women made up 45% of the 1,224 respondents; 37% of all worked in hotels and restaurants, 25% in hotels and restaurants; nearly half (49%) were paid employees, against 37% self-employed; nearly three in four (73%) worked in the informal sector, and the large majority worked in or for small private enterprises. Nearly two in three (64%) had less education completed than secondary level. As for pay, the researchers found that 51% of the respondents earned less than MZM 2,000, thus definitely less than the prevailing minimum wage. These shares were 49% for men and 53% for women. By contrast, much larger shares (67% of men and even 76% of women) agreed that “most workers are entitled to be paid a specific minimum wage”. The survey results confirm the existing weaknesses in social and job security and labour relations: for only 28%, the employer contributed to the pension fund (women: 26%); 53% benefitted from paid sick leave (women: 51%); 61% of women benefitted from paid maternity leave. Only for 20% of respondents (women 17%) working conditions were covered by a collective agreement. And a quite low 18% (women: 17%) reported the possibility of getting compensation after they are dismissed.

Yet, the CAP survey concentrated on working conditions. It turned out that most respondents made long working hours: 62%, and even 69% of all women, worked over 50 hours a week. Of the workers involved in night work, nearly half did so more than five nights per month. A slightly larger share females (39%) than males (35%) answered that their working time did not fit well with their family or social commitments outside work. As for the physical risks workers can be exposed to, repetitive hand/arm movements was most mentioned (86%), followed by standing or walking long time (82%) and tiring/painful positions

at work (70%). Similar percentages reported muscular pains (70%) and backaches (69%), but the shares reporting headaches (51%) and fatigue (50%) were also considerable. In the informal sector, more men than women reported being subjected to physical risks all or nearly all of the time, whereas this was the opposite in the tourism sector. Only minorities of workers were well informed on such workplace risks. Considerable shares had faced bullying and/or harassment (13%, in the tourism sector even overall 26% and 31% among women) and physical violence, notably from people outside the workplace (13%, in the tourism sector overall 20% and 25% among women). Though nearly two of five workers (39%) reported that they need further training to cope well with their job, less than 9% received training paid for or provided by employer. The satisfaction scores of the respondents on various issues were lowest for training (all data: CAP 2009).

According to a 2007 survey on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) with just over 60 Mozambican companies responding, only 26% of them associated the CSR concept with improving employee's working conditions, and the company's commitment to their staff and direct families through subsidies (transport, education, food), training, medical aid, human rights, and keeping up labour standards (KPMG 2007, 17).

### **2.8.3. Indications of employers' HR practices**

The company part of the 2004 survey mentioned earlier gives some indications on the incidence of Human Resource (HR) regulations and Human Resource Management (HRM) practices in larger Mozambican companies. Of the 177 companies surveyed, 32 made no use of any system of employee involvement and communication. Of the other firms, only 15% made use of systems allowing a systematic flow of information from the top with some room for feedback from below. 22% used briefings to shop stewards and union workplace representatives; in many cases these were the firms with a systematic information flow. In the overwhelming majority of cases, communication flows were firmly downward, ad hoc, and simply an outlet for managerial views (Webster and Wood 2005, 376). According to this company survey, training activities were mostly informal. 68% of the firms made use of informal workplace training, as the authors state commonly of the "sitting with Nellie" variety. Most instances of more formal workplace training were similar uncertified. Yet, a significant minority of firms sponsored courses with outside training bodies: 40% had sponsored training for technical employees (Webster and Wood 2005, 378).

Concerning recruitment, many firms stuck to tried and trusted methods. 34% of the firms surveyed reported making use of word of mouth as a mechanism for recruiting manual workers, relying on current staff to "introduce" potential employees – often members of extended family networks. 31% made use of "internal mechanisms", redeploying workers in cases of ongoing downsizing, 31% used advertisements,

whilst 5% made use of recruitment agencies. The last two methods were applied at a rather modest level for managers and senior technical and administrative staff. Half of all firms selected manual employees through personal interviews, and another quarter via an informal walk in progress. Clearly, selection mostly took place on a highly informal basis. Concerning dismissals, in half of all cases ad hoc methods were used, based on managers' personal perceptions or prejudices; in another quarter of all cases, retention took place through the closure of entire company sections (Webster and Wood 2005, 378-9).

The researchers concluded from their survey that Mozambican company HRM practices seem to have much in common with those noted in other African countries. Whilst most firms surveyed had a specialized HR department, the techniques they employed remained personal, informal, but also topdown. The results showed a reliance on personal networks for recruitment and on informal training structures. Poor pay and working conditions were mitigated by a willingness by management to make informal concessions to workers in the event of personal difficulties. The dominant managerial style is described as autocratic patriarchy, though the authors also point to "best practice" HR techniques amongst a small minority of firms (Webster and Wood 2005, 381).

## **3. Basic information for WageIndicator questionnaire**

### **3.1. Introduction**

Preparations for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE Activities 1.03a and 1.03b have resulted in a number of lists, grouped in this Chapter and to be used in the WageIndicator web-survey for country-specific questions and their analyses. This basic information can be used on-line, but if needed also off-line. The lists contain information on Mozambican trade unions (section 3.2), educational categories and ISCED levels (3.3), regions (3.4), ethnic groups (3.5.1) and languages (3.5.2).

### **3.2. List of trade unions**

The country's trade union movement has already been introduced under Labour relations (section 2.3.1). There are 23 recognized unions. Below, a full list can be found, designed for use in the web-survey.

Table 6 List of trade unions in Mozambique (by 1/1/2009)

pt_MZ	pt_MZ	List in web survey, 1 <sup>st</sup> tier	Source label in dataset	List in web survey, 2 <sup>nd</sup> tier
508100	508101	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Ports and Railways Company (SINPOCAF)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores dos Portos e Caminhos de Ferro (SINPOCAF)
508100	508102	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Textile Industry, Garments, Leather and Footwear (SINTEVEEC)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Têxtil, Vestuário, Couro e Calçado (SINTEVEEC)
508100	508103	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of the Metallurgical Industry, Energy and Metal (SINTIME)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Metalúrgica, Metalomecânica e Energia (SINTIME)
508100	508104	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Food and Beverage Industry (SINTIAB)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Alimentar e Bebidas (SINTIAB)
508100	508105	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Merchant Marine and Fisheries (SINTMAP)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Marinha Mercante e Pescas (SINTMAP)
508100	508106	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers Agro-Livestock and Forestry (SINTAF)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores Agro-Pecuários e Florestais (SINTAF)
508100	508107	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Civil Aviation and Communications (SINTAC)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Aviação Civil e Comunicações (SINTAC)
508100	508108	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Employees of Commerce and Insurance Services (SINECOSSE)	Sindicato Nacional dos Empregados do Comércio, Seguros e Serviços (SINECOSSE)
508100	508109	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of the Chemical, Rubber, Paper and Printing (SINTIQUIGRA)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Química, Borracha, Papel e Gráfica (SINTIQUIGRA)
508100	508110	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of the Cashew Industry (SINTIC)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria do Caju (SINTIC)
508100	508111	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of the Sugar Industry (SINTIA)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria do Açúcar (SINTIA)
508100	508112	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Bank Industry (SNEB)	Sindicato Nacional dos Empregados Bancários (SNEB)

508100	508113	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Association of Professionals in Science and Stowage Correlatives (SINPEOC)	Sindicato Nacional dos Profissionais da Estiva e Ofícios Correlativos (SINPEOC)
508100	508114	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Civil Servants (SNAFP)	Sindicato Nacional da Função Pública (SNAFP)
508100	508115	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Private Security Companies (SINTELMO)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria das Telecomunicações de Moçambique (SINTELMO)
508100	508116	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM National Union of Workers of Private Security Companies (SINTRAVESP)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores e Vigilantes de Empresas de Segurança Privada (SINTRAVESP)
508100	508117	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM Union of Pilots of Civil Aviation (SPAC)	Sindicato dos Pilotos de Aviação Civil (SPAC)
508100	508199	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS)	MOZ OTM Not specified	Organização dos Trabalhadores de Moçambique (OTM-CS) - não especificado
508200	508201	Confederação dos Sindicatos Independentes e Libres de Moçambique (CONSILMO)	MOZ CONSILMO National Union of Road Transport Workers (SINTRAI)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores dos Transportes Rodoviários (SINTRAI)
508200	508202	Confederação dos Sindicatos Independentes e Libres de Moçambique (CONSILMO)	MOZ CONSILMO National Union of Workers in the Hotel Industry, Tourism and Related Industries (SINTHOTS)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Hoteleira, Turismo e Similares (SINTHOTS)
508200	508203	Confederação dos Sindicatos Independentes e Libres de Moçambique (CONSILMO)	MOZ CONSILMO National Union of Worker of Private Security Companies and Guards (SINTESPGM)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Empresas Privadas de Segurança e Guarda (SINTESPGM)
508200	508204	Confederação dos Sindicatos Independentes e Libres de Moçambique (CONSILMO)	MOZ CONSILMO National Union of Workers of Civil Construction, Woodworkers and Miners in	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Construção Civil, Madeiras e Minas (SINTICIM)
508300	508301	Sindicato Nacional dos Jornalistas (SNJ)	MOZ (Independent) National Union of Journalists (SNJ)	Sindicato Nacional dos Jornalistas (SNJ)
508300	508302	Sindicato Nacional dos Professores (SNP)	MOZ (Independent) National Union of Teachers (SNP)	Sindicato Nacional dos Professores (SNP)
508099		Outros	MOZ Other	Outros

### 3.3. List of educational categories and ISCED levels

Below, a full list of the educational categories used in Mozambique, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found

Table 7 List of educational categories in Mozambique (by 1/1/2009)

pt_MZ	Source label	List in web survey	ISCED
508001	MOZ No education	Não educação	0
508002	MOZ Primary School 1st cycle (grades 1-5)	Escola Primária 1º ciclo - EP1	1
508003	MOZ Primary School 2nd cycle (grades 6-7)	Escola Primária 2º ciclo - EP2	1
508004	MOZ First Cycle Secondary (grades 8-10)	Escola Secundária (1º ciclo )	2
508005	MOZ Second Cycle Secondary (grades 11-12)	Escola Secundária (2º ciclo) - Pré-universitário	3
508006	MOZ Basic Technical Secondary School	Técnicas básicas escola secundária	3
508007	MOZ Technical institute (Upper level technical school)	Instituto técnico (nivel médio técnico)	4
508008	MOZ University level first stage: Bachelor's Degree	Bacharelato	5
508009	MOZ University level second stage: University Degree	Licenciatura	5
508010	MOZ University level third stage: Master of Arts or Master of Sciences	Mestrado	6
508011	MOZ Doctoral Degree	Doutorado	6

### 3.4. List of regions

Below, a full list of all Mozambican regions, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 8 List of regions in Mozambique (by 10/16/2008)

pt_MZ	pt_MZ	Source label	Source label	List in web survey	List in web survey
5080010000	5080010131	MOZ Cabo Delgado	MOZ Cabo Delgado Pemba	Cabo Delgado	Pemba
5080010000	5080010232	MOZ Cabo Delgado	MOZ Cabo Delgado Montepuez	Cabo Delgado	Montepuez
5080010000	5080010332	MOZ Cabo Delgado	MOZ Cabo Delgado Mocimboa da Praia	Cabo Delgado	Mocimboa da Praia
5080020000	5080020131	MOZ Gaza	MOZ Gaza Xai-Xai	Gaza	Xai-Xai
5080020000	5080020232	MOZ Gaza	MOZ Gaza Chibuto	Gaza	Chibuto
5080020000	5080020332	MOZ Gaza	MOZ Gaza Chokwe	Gaza	Chokwé
5080030000	5080030132	MOZ Inhambane	MOZ Inhambane Inhambane	Inhambane	Inhambane
5080030000	5080030231	MOZ Inhambane	MOZ Inhambane Maxixe	Inhambane	Maxixe
5080030000	5080030332	MOZ Inhambane	MOZ Inhambane Vilanculos	Inhambane	Vilanculos
5080040000	5080040131	MOZ Manica	MOZ Manica Chimoio	Manica	Chimoio
5080040000	5080040232	MOZ Manica	MOZ Manica Manica	Manica	Manica
5080040000	5080040332	MOZ Manica	MOZ Manica Gondola	Manica	Gondola
5080050000	5080050101	MOZ Maputo	MOZ Maputo Maputo City	Maputo	Maputo City
5080050000	5080050231	MOZ Maputo	MOZ Maputo Matola	Maputo	Matola
5080060000	5080060131	MOZ Nampula	MOZ Nampula Nampula	Nampula	Nampula
5080060000	5080060231	MOZ Nampula	MOZ Nampula Nacalas	Nampula	Nacala
5080060000	5080060332	MOZ Nampula	MOZ Nampula Angoche	Nampula	Angoche
5080070000	5080070131	MOZ Niassa	MOZ Niassa Lichinga	Niassa	Lichinga
5080070000	5080070232	MOZ Niassa	MOZ Niassa Cuamba	Niassa	Cuamba
5080080000	5080080131	MOZ Sofala	MOZ Sofala Beira	Sofala	Beira
5080080000	5080080232	MOZ Sofala	MOZ Sofala Dondo	Sofala	Dondo
5080090000	5080090131	MOZ Tete	MOZ Tete Tete	Tete	Tete
5080090000	5080090232	MOZ Tete	MOZ Tete Moatize	Tete	Moatize
5080090000	5080090332	MOZ Tete	MOZ Tete Ulongue	Tete	Ulonguè
5080100000	5080100131	MOZ Zambezia	MOZ Zambezia Quelimane	Zambezia	Quelimane
5080100000	5080100231	MOZ Zambezia	MOZ Zambezia Mocuba	Zambezia	Mocuba
5080100000	5080100331	MOZ Zambezia	MOZ Zambezia Gurue	Zambezia	Gurué
5089990000	5089990610	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad South Africa	Estrangeiro	África do Sul
5089990000	5089990354	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad Malawi	Estrangeiro	Malauí
5089990000	5089990304	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad Kenya	Estrangeiro	Quênia
5089990000	5089990794	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad Zambia	Estrangeiro	Zâmbia
5089990000	5089990616	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad Zimbabwe	Estrangeiro	Zimbabué
5089990000	5089990999	MOZ Abroad	MOZ Abroad Other country	Estrangeiro	Outro

## 3.5. Lists of ethnic groups and languages

### 3.5.1. Ethnic groups

Concerning ethnic groups, Africans make up an overwhelming majority of the population (99.66%); Europeans contribute 0.06%, Euro-Africans 0.2% (CIA World Factbook). Below, a list of ethnic groups, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.



Table 9 List of ethnic groups in Mozambique (by 1/1/2009)

pt_MZ	Source label	Translation
508001	MOZ Balke	Balke
508002	MOZ Copi	Copi
508003	MOZ Makonde	Makonde
508004	MOZ Lomwe	Lomwe
508005	MOZ Maconde	Maconde
508006	MOZ Makhuwa	Makhuwa
508007	MOZ Manyka	Manyka
508008	MOZ Mwane	Mwane
508009	MOZ Ndau	Ndau
508010	MOZ Nyanja	Nyanja
508011	MOZ Nyungwé	Nyungwé
508012	MOZ Rhonga	Rhonga
508013	MOZ Sena	Sena
508014	MOZ Shangaan	Shangaan
508015	MOZ Swaili	Swaili
508016	MOZ Tonga	Tonga
508017	MOZ Tshwa	Tshwa
508018	MOZ Utee	Utee
508019	MOZ Yao	Yao
508020	MOZ Europeu	Europeu
508021	MOZ Indian	Indian
508099	MOZ Outros	Outros

### 3.5.2. Languages

Language is a highly relevant issue in Mozambique. According to the 1997 census, only 9% of the Mozambicans spoke Portuguese, the official language, as their native language and only 27% spoke it as a second language. Important other languages are Makhuwa (spoken by 26% in 1997), Xichangana (11.5), Elomwe (8%), Cisena (7.5%), Chuwabo (6%), while other Mozambican languages were spoken by 32% and other foreign languages by 0.3%.

Below, a list of these languages, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

*Table 10 List of languages in Mozambique (by 1/1/2009)*

<b>pt_MZ</b>	<b>Source label</b>	<b>Translation</b>
508001	MOZ Portuguese	Português
508002	MOZ Gitonga	Gitonga
508003	MOZ Xichangane	Xichangane
508004	MOZ Cinyanja	Cinyanja
508005	MOZ Cinyungwe	Cinyungwe
508006	MOZ Ciyao	Ciyao
508007	MOZ Echuwabo	Echuwabo
508008	MOZ Elomwe	Elomwe
508009	MOZ Emakhwa	Emakhwa
508010	MOZ Kimwane	Kimwane
508011	MOZ Shimaconde	Shimaconde
508012	MOZ Ndau	Ndau
508013	MOZ Cisena	Cisena
508014	MOZ Xirhonga	Xirhonga
508015	MOZ Kiswaili	Kiswaili
508016	MOZ Ciutee	Ciutee
508017	MOZ Cimanyka	Cimanyka
508018	MOZ Citshwa	Citshwa
508019	MOZ Cibalke	Cibalke
508020	MOZ Cicopi	Cicopi
508999	MOZ Other	Outros



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# What is WageIndicator?

WageIndicator has websites in 50 countries. In every country, a national website has a free Salary Check. This Check provides detailed information about the wages, on average earned in a wide range of occupations, taken into account personal characteristics, such as tenure/age, education, supervisory position, region and alike.

Apart from the Salary Check, the websites in many countries have attractive web-tools, such as Minimum Wage Checks, DecentWorkCheck, Gross-Net Earnings Check, and alike. In addition, most websites have content about wages, working conditions, labor standards and related topics. Each country has at least one website. Multilingual countries have two or more websites. In addition, many countries have websites for target groups, for example women or youth. The project website is [www.wageindicator.org](http://www.wageindicator.org).

Worldwide, the national WageIndicator websites attract large numbers of web-visitors; in 2007 in total more than 10 million. The websites are consulted by workers for their job mobility decisions, annual performance talks or wage negotiations. They are consulted by school pupils, students or re-entrant women facing occupational choices, or by employers in small and medium sized companies when recruiting staff or negotiating wages with their employees.

In return for all free information provided, the web-visitors are encouraged to complete a web-survey, which takes 10 to 20 minutes. The survey has detailed questions about earnings, benefits, working conditions, employment contract, training, as well as questions about education, occupation, industry, and household characteristics. This web-survey is comparable across all countries. The web-survey is continuously posted at all WageIndicator websites, of course in the national language(s) and adapted to country-specific issues, where needed. The data from the web-survey are used for the calculations, underlying the Salary Check. For occupations with at least 50 observations in the national database a salary indication can be calculated. The Salary Checks are updated annually.

The project started in 2000 in the Netherlands with a large-scale, paper-based survey to collect data on women's wages. In 2001 the first WageIndicator website with a Salary Check and a web-survey was launched. Since 2004, websites were launched in European countries, in North and South America, in South-Africa, and in countries in Asia. All large economies of the world currently have a WageIndicator website, among which the USA, the Russian Federation, China, India and Brazil. From 2009 onwards, websites will be launched in more African countries, as well as in Indonesia and in a number of post-soviet countries. More information about the WageIndicator Foundation and its activities can be found at [www.wageindicator.org](http://www.wageindicator.org).





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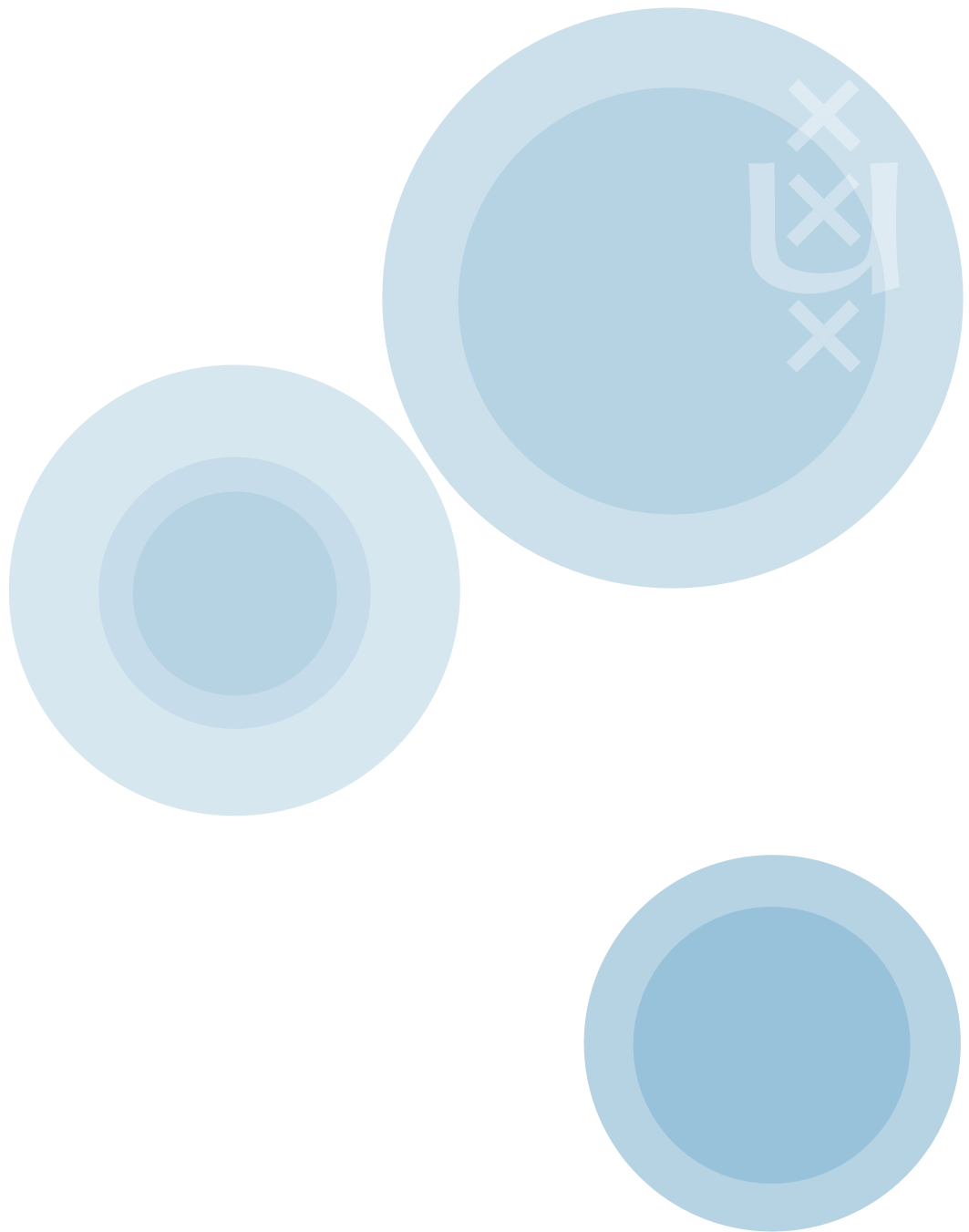
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- Sociology
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