

# EMPLOYMENT TRENDS FOR WOMEN IN YEMEN

Mona Lisa Durr

ILO consultant

[mduerr-foda@ssafara.net](mailto:mduerr-foda@ssafara.net)

Tel. 00 968 931 8246

Tel. 00 33 4 50 40 6323

July-August 2004

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## 1. Introduction

Yemen has one of the highest population growth rates of the world. In 1999, the population reached 17.7 million and increased to 19.9 million in 2001. The rate of growth has been 3.5% per year compared with the world average of 1.2%.<sup>1</sup> The high population growth is accompanied by a high growth of labour force. The labour force totaled 8.916 millions (15 years old and above) in 1999 with an active labour force of 4.091 millions, 3.622 millions employed and 469,000 unemployed, against the inactive labour force of 4.825 millions. Labour supply is increasing at 3.8% per year, 3.3% among men and 5.3% among women. Employment opportunities however have not increased at the same level of labour supply. The unemployment rate in Yemen is 11.5%. According to the Ministry of Planning, in 2006 the active labour force will have increased to 5.310 millions of which 1.391 millions will be females.

The female labour force was 969,000 in 1999 (LFS 1999), of which 890,000 were employed and 79,300 unemployed. The female labour force participation rate is low (21.8%) compared to that of men (69.9%). The female unemployment rate is 8% but reaches 32% for educated females.

The fertility rate of women is rather high, an average of 6.5 children per female. This high fertility rate is coupled with a high illiteracy rate 55% (10 years and above), limited education and training, which are major constraints for women to join and/or compete with men in the labour market.

In view of the above-mentioned constraints to female labour force participation this study aims at analyzing employment trends for women in Yemen and linking them with the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs).

In order to compare the situation of women in Yemen with other regions of the world, especially for six labour market indicators (female and female youth unemployment rates, employment-to-population ratios, status of employment, employment by sector and wages/earnings) ILO's Global Employment Trends 2004 report will be referred to throughout this paper.

Employment trends for women will be determined by:

- Review results of a number of recently conducted surveys: Labour Demand Survey 2002-2003, Demographic Health Survey 2003 (DHS), Labour Force Survey 1999 (LFS), and the Population Census 1994, in relation to the significance of the data for women's labour force participation. Provide an in-depth analysis of both labour force and labour demand surveys as they relate to Yemeni labour market trends for women with a focus on the gender gap in labour force participation (gender segregation in the labour force, gender wage gap, urban/rural, public/private, formal/informal, employer/employee, sectoral

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<sup>1</sup> Mehran, Farhad, An analysis of the results of the labour demand survey of establishments in Yemen, 2002-2003, July 2004. ILO, Policy Integration Department, page 7.

distribution), female unemployment, trends in employment to population ratios;

- Review the national planning frameworks (i.e. national strategic vision 2025, Second national plan and the PRSP Progress Report April 2004, National Employment Agenda of MOSAL/ILO, National Women's Employment Strategy 2001-2011) from the perspective of women's employment and labour force participation;
- Review available studies on gender, poverty and employment in Yemen to provide a sound discussion of constraints to women's labour force participation;
- Meet with and interview key stakeholders working on gender and employment issues in Yemen.
- Provide forward looking and implementable conclusions and recommendations that will assist the Yemeni government in meeting the MDG goals.

## 2. Surveys

In order to gather information on the labour market in Yemen, a number of surveys were undertaken by the Labour Market Information System (LMIS) in coordination with the Central Statistic Organization (CSO) of the Ministry of Planning. Other available information pertaining to the labour market includes the Demographic Health Survey of 2003, the educational survey 2003, the household budget survey 1998, and the household survey of 1994. The focus in this report will be on the labour demand survey of 2002-2003 and the labour force survey of 1999.

- *Labour Demand Survey, 2002-2003*

The labour demand survey was based on a representative sample of 6589 urban and 524 rural establishments, which were selected randomly from a frame of 254766 establishments. The 50 rural areas covered were based on a sample of the 1994 census of housing units and establishments, which was updated in August-September 2002. The urban and rural samples were selected based on geographical region, branch of economic activity and size of establishments, measured in terms of number of workers engaged.

Establishments were chosen from all branches of economic activity except public administration (i.e., government, local councils, regional and international institutions), public schools and public health institutions and private households with employed persons. From the 692,000 workers covered by the survey 598,000 were working in manufacturing, trade, hotel and restaurants as well as other community and personal service activities. Non-establishment units, not included in the survey, were in agriculture, fishing, construction and transport.

The survey is composed of two parts. In the first part data pertaining to establishments was collected according to their economic characteristics. The questionnaire also included information on the establishments' hiring and firing practices, training needs of employees for adequate performance of their jobs, and prioritization of female employment. Information was gathered on labour redundancies, expected vacancies, and possible employment opportunities. Obstacles preventing establishments from achieving their business goals were also covered.

The second part of the survey provides information on the situation of employees working in the establishments according to their education, gender, nationality, and occupation. Data was also gathered on paid employees monthly income and working hours. Furthermore, this part includes information on employees job performance according to their education and training. There is also a section on the lack of training skills of employees. The number of paid employees covered by this survey was 42,028. These employees are educated, meaning they hold a diploma from a technical or vocational training centres or institutes, or completed general secondary or post secondary education, or graduated from university or a higher educational institution.

- *Labour force survey 1999*

The labour force survey (LFS) 1999 was designed to obtain qualitative and quantitative indicators about the labour market system. The survey was intended to highlight the volume of the labour force and provide information on the employment and unemployment characteristics of the working age population. Included in the LFS was the wage structure of the working age population, hours of work, employment by sector and data on occupational injuries as well as diseases of paid employees. The survey encompassed a section on the employment of children 6 to 14 years old.

The survey covered 19,916 households throughout the whole nation. The response rate of the survey was rather high, 95.6%. The LFS did not cover the following categories of persons: those living in nomadic areas; also those living on the islands of socotra and kamaran; and certain desert districts of Hadramout governorate; and those living in institutions such as army camps, school boarding, hotels, hospitals and prisons.

The sampling frame was based on the enumeration areas of the 1994 Population and Housing Census. 1180 areas (364 in urban areas and 817 in rural areas) were selected for the survey covering 20 governorates of Yemen. A fixed number of 20 households were sampled within each enumeration area, which amounted to 7280 households. In each rural enumeration area 15 households were sampled added up to 12675. In three rural areas, Marib, Al-Jauf and Al-Mahrah, the sampling was identical to the urban areas, 20 households per enumeration area.

### **3. Gender Issues**

Women have always been a concern in development work. In the 1970's, development agencies used the Women in Development approach (WID). This approach focused specifically on women's experiences and perceptions in

programmes designed for the promotion and equality between men and women. The WID approach was based on strategies, which assumed that development would benefit all automatically. The WID concept did not have any sustainable impact on the situation of women due to the following reasons: a) benefits of “modernization” did not trickle down automatically or equally; b) the aim of integrating women into ongoing development strategies enforced the acceptance of existing social structures, which supported inequalities; c) it emphasized on the productive aspects of women’s work, without taking into consideration the burden of social and reproductive functions.<sup>2</sup>

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach emerged in the 1980’s, as a result of WID and its shortcomings. The term “gender” evolved as an analytical tool, in view of the inequalities existing between men and women due to institutional structures. The focus of this approach is not solely on women as a homogenous and isolated group but on the roles and needs of both men and women. It is often the case that women are at a disadvantaged position in the workplace as compared to men hence promotion of gender equality implies an explicit attention to women’s needs, interests and perspectives. The advancement of the status of women in society is a priority and gender equality figures as the ultimate goal.<sup>3</sup>

#### GENDER MAINSTREAMING

The goal of bringing gender issues into the mainstream of society was established as a global strategy for promoting gender equality in the Platform for action adopted at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women, in Beijing, in 1995. It was acknowledged that gender equality was of utmost priority and needed to be applied in all areas of societal development.

In July 1997, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) defined the concept of gender mainstreaming as follows:

- Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels.
- It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.
- The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

Thus the goal of mainstreaming gender equality is the transformation of unequal social and institutional structures into equal and just structures for both men and women.

For more information on gender mainstreaming, see ILO, Gender: A Partnership of Equals, Bureau for Gender Equality, Geneva 2000.

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<sup>2</sup> International Labour Organization, Gender: A Partnership of Equals, ILO, Bureau for Gender Equality (Gender), Geneva, 2000. Page 4-5.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, page 4.

Inequality between men and women, in most cases, arise from attitudes, prejudices and assumptions about the different roles assigned to men and women in society, which are also referred to as “gender roles”. Gender roles are thus learned expectations and behaviours in a given society, community or social group and determine the type of activities which are perceived as “male” or “female.”<sup>4</sup> These perceptions are affected by age, class, race, ethnicity, culture, religion and other ideologies as well as by the geographical, economical and political environment. Some gender roles are widespread and cut across cultures, religions and social classes. An example is women’s assigned role as housekeepers and economically dependent members of the household and men’s assigned role as breadwinners and decision - makers. Given the fact that society does not assign these roles the same values explains women’s different position in relation to men. Due to their traditional role as dependent members of the household, women in comparison to men tend to be usually more active in the informal sector, considered economically inactive, less educated, hence engaging in occupations that require lower skills, are less remunerated and have less status than those of men. Women are also, in many cases, considered as unpaid family workers although they have equal responsibility in a family enterprise and it is very difficult for them to break through the “glass ceiling”, meaning to move to managerial or decision-making positions in paid employment. In times of economic downturns or structural adjustment women tend to be dismissed first from their paid employment.

<b>Old Assumptions</b>	<b>New Assumptions</b>
Households with one source of income, a clear male-bread winner bias	Multiple livelihood strategies of households and working people
Poverty only as income poverty	Multiple aspects of poverty
Ignoring unpaid work in the care economy done mostly by women	Recognizing the role of unpaid work in ensuring household survival and welfare
Households as single unitary homogenous decision making units	Recognition of gender & age differences in intra-household distribution of power, income, & decision making

In Yemen as in many other regions in the world, the above mentioned “old assumptions” are still well ingrained in men and women’s lives. These assumptions contain gender biases against women especially in accessing jobs. It is of utmost importance in view of gender equality in the labour market to replace them with the new assumptions. Although these new assumptions are gaining international recognition they still need to be reflected in actual policy and programmes. This is where the role of promoting gender equality comes into perspective.

In order to promote gender equality gender analysis becomes an essential tool to diagnose the differences between men and women. It looks at men and women’s specific activities, contributions, their conditions of work and life, needs, constraints,

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<sup>4</sup> Mata-Greenwood Adriana, Incorporating gender issues in labour statistics, ILO, Working papers, Bureau of Statistics. Page 10.

access to and control over resources and opportunities<sup>5</sup>. The basis of gender analysis is the collection of "sex disaggregated" data (i.e. data broken down by sex) and gender-sensitive information of a given population to review the needs of men and women. The use of gender analysis is not just to highlight differences and inequalities between men and women but to question their existence and suggest measures to narrow the gap. Therefore gender analysis is a prerequisite for policy formulation and/or programme design<sup>6</sup>.

In the past statistic offices and researchers presented only aggregate labour force data for the entire population. In many instances women were underrepresented, overlooked or data was inaccurate. For example, labour force participation for women (defined as the proportion of the total population of women aged 15-60 who are in the workforce) is usually much lower than that of men. Similarly, the distribution of the male and female labour force by sector reveals gender differences. In many countries, a higher proportion of the female labour force is employed in the service sector, while a higher proportion of the male labour force is employed in industry, and particularly heavy industries. There are also differences by occupation, teaching and nursing are referred to as "feminized" or female dominated occupations whereas engineering and heavy industrial occupations tend to be dominated by men. One of the consequences of failing to recognize and routinely distinguish different patterns for men and women is that the situation of men was regarded as the norm or standard and the situation of women was practically overlooked. Failure to disaggregate data statistics by sex thus meant that the differences between men and women were largely overlooked in the design and implementation of development policies, plans and programmes.

Hence the term gender statistics refers to two separate but related dimensions of statistical data: disaggregation by sex for all individual-level statistics to show the different roles and activities of men and women; and the specific collection of statistics that relate to important gender issues. Depending on individual country circumstances, these might include statistics on unpaid domestic work, and childcare, gender-based violence on women, trafficking in women, and/or migrant women workers.

Therefore to determine differences between men and women in the labour market, gender issues need to be integrated into labour statistics i.e. taking into account contributions, conditions of work and life, needs and specific constraints and opportunities of men and women. There is a need for conventional labour statistics to become more gender sensitive in order to address gender concerns, therefore among others, it should include: 1) whether work is carried out in combination with domestic chores, 2) multiple activities, 3) context and location of work activities, in particular home-based work, 4) subsistence and informal sector activities, 5) total hours of work including the time spent on domestic chores, 5) type of work men and women are engaged in, example management and decision making positions, 6) seeking work behaviour for those not employed, and 7) total income earned.<sup>7</sup> These are some of the topics that will give indications on gender differences, gaps, and

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<sup>5</sup> International Labour Organization, Gender: A Partnership of Equals, ILO, Bureau for Gender Equality (Gender), Geneva, 2000. Page 4.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid, Page 4.

<sup>7</sup> Mata-Greenwood Adriana, Incorporating gender issues in labour statistics, ILO, Working papers, Bureau of Statistics. Page 11-12.

similarities and enable a better understanding of the function of labour markets. It is important to specify that not all censuses and specific data collection in selected countries in the world cover all the above mentioned gender sensitive labour topics in order to determine existing gender gaps. In many developing countries, like in the case of Yemen, not all of the data collected in the labour force survey 1999 and the labour demand survey 2002-2003, are "sex disaggregated".

The above section was to give a general overview of gender issues. Given the fact that this paper is to shed light on women's situation in the labour market in Yemen, it is prevalent to look at gender equality in the labor market as it relates to Yemen. For instance, Gender equality means men and women having the same opportunities in life in three domains: capabilities, access to resources and opportunities, and the ability to influence and contribute to outcomes. It is imperative to state that labor markets are not gender neutral. Due to certain demographic trends and social and economic inequalities, men and women are still affected differently from labor market policies.

- Women have more limited access to labor market relevant capabilities (skills, knowledge, networks)
- In the life cycle women have less access to productive resources (land, capital, livestock) compared to men
- There is a male-bread winner bias in the labor market despite the pressing economic realities in poor households which require more than a single income
- There are continued mobility constraints on women
- Early marriage and child bearing and rearing can inhibit women's integration into labour market

Women are under represented in the formal labor market and over represented among informal workers, unpaid family workers, part time, low wage earners, unemployed & inactive.

#### **4. Trends in Female Labour Force Participation**

It is estimated that labour supply is increasing at a rate of 3.8% per year, 3, 3% among men and 5, 3% among women. The reasons for this increased rate is due to the past high birth rates, 1million return migrants from neighbouring countries after the first Gulf war and the increase in recent years of Yemeni women entering the work force<sup>8</sup>.

The labour force participation rate (LFPR) expresses the share of employed and unemployed people in comparison with the working age population. It gives an indication of how many people of working age are actively participating in the labour market.<sup>9</sup>

Table (1.1) Male and Female Labour Force Participation Rate

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<sup>8</sup> Mehran, Farhad, An analysis of the results of the labour demand survey of establishments in Yemen, 2002-2003, ILO, Policy Integration Department, July 2004. Page 7.

<sup>9</sup> ILO, Global Employment Trends for Women 2004, March 2004, Page 1.

	Male LFPR %	Female LFPR %	Gender Gap in economically active females per 100 males
1999	69.9	21.8	31
1994	74.1	16.9	23

It is evident from table (1.1) that in Yemen the female labour force participation rate is low compared to the rate of men. There were about 31 active females per 100 males in 1999 compared to 23 active females per 100 males in 1994. Table (1.1) shows that although female LFPR is still rather low, an increase has occurred since 1994. According to the Global Employment Trends for Women, 2004, women's LFPR has been increasing in all regions during the past ten years whereas the LFPR of men has witnessed a decrease for the above mentioned period. Although there is a growing participation of women in paid work; there still remains a gap between genders in terms of labour force participation rates.

In no region of the world has the male-female gap in labour force participation rates closed. Hence Yemen is not the only country experiencing a low female LFPR rate. Table (1.2) provides a comparison with other regions of the world.

Table (1.2) Male and Female Labour Force Participation Rate (%) and the gender gap in economically active females per 100 males, 2003

	Male LFPR %	Female LFPR %	Gender Gap in economically active females per 100 males
<b>World</b>	<b>79.4</b>	<b>53.9</b>	<b>68</b>
Middle East and North Africa	76.8	28.2	36
South Asia	81.1	37.4	44
Latin America and the Caribbean	80.5	49.2	64
Industrialized Economies	70.3	50.5	76
Transition Economies	65.7	53.1	91
South-East Asia	82.9	60.5	75
Sub-Saharan Africa	85.3	63.2	77
East Asia	85.1	73.1	83

Source: Global employment trends for Women ILO March 2004

As seen from table (1.2) the gap is the largest in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), with 36 active females per 100 males. South Asia also depicts a discrepancy between males and females in the labour force, with a male-female LFPR gap of 44 active females per 100 males. These two regions have the lowest rates of female labour force participation: MENA has 28.2 % and South Asia 37.4 %. East Asia has the lowest male-female gap in LFPR, 12.0 (Male LFPR minus Female LFPR) and the highest female LFPR with 73.1 %; which translates into 83 active females per 100 males. It is interesting to note that the industrialized economies have a male-female LFPR of 19.8 and a female LFPR of 50.2. The world average

concerning female labour force participation rates is 53.9% and there are 68 active females per 100 males.

It is obvious that the gender gap in the LFPR of women in Yemen is rather low yet remains in the range of other countries of MENA, and is closely followed by the low rates of Female LFPR in South Asia.

## 5. Trends in Female Unemployment and Employment-to-Population Ratios

According to the labour force survey of 1999, the population in Yemen was 17.335.143 million. The gender proportion encompassed 51% males and 49% females. The population growth rate during 1994 to 1999 was 3.5%. Given these figures, it is interesting to determine the female-employment rate in regards to population ratio and to compare this to the male-employment to population ratio. This section will also look at the female unemployment and female youth unemployment rate in order to define gender gaps.

In the Global Employment Trends for Women, 2004, Employment-to-population ratios reflect the capacity of an economy to provide employment for the working age population (generally 15 years and older). These ratios are also indicators depicting the efficiency of economies in making use of the productive potential of their working age population. Hence, the higher the employment-to-population ratio, the more people in the working age population are working.

- *Female employment to population ratio*

In the 1999 labour force survey results, it was estimated that the working age population of Yemen in 1999 was 8.916 millions (15 years old and over), of which 3.622 millions were employed and 469 thousands unemployed. According to these figures the labour force participation rate was at 45.9%, and unemployment rate was at 11.5%. The employment population-ratio stood at 40.6%.

In order to shed light on the situation of female employment, unemployment and labour force participation the labour force survey results of 1999 were the following: Female working age population of Yemen in 1999 was 4.450 millions (15 years and above), 890,000 were employed and 79,000 unemployed. These figures correspond to a female labour force participation rate of 21.8% and a female unemployment rate of 8%. The employment-population ratio stood at 20% in 1999 in contrast to a rate of 16.2% in 1994. Although there has been a slight increase in the proportion of women in the labour force as well as in the rate of working women when looking at the figures for Yemen in 1994 and 1999. This is a trend observed in all regions of the world (see table 2.1); employment-to-population ratios are much smaller for women than for men, indicating that far fewer jobs are available for women than for men. In the Middle East and North Africa, the situation for women is the worst, only two out of ten women at working age work compared to seven out of ten for men.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> International Labour Organization, Global Employment Trends for Women 2004, Geneva, March 2004. Page 2.

Table (2) Employment-Population ratio, male and female, 1994, 1999 for Yemen

	Female		Male	
	1994	1999	1994	1999
Unemployment rate	4%	8%	9%	12%
Labour force participation rate	16.9%	21.8%	74.1%	69.9%
Employment-population ratio	16.2%	20%	67.2	61.2%

As one can see from table (2), labour force participation of women is relatively low compared to men (21.8% for women compared to 69.9% for men in 1999) and the unemployment rate for women has doubled since 1994. Opportunities for women to work are limited due to a lack of skills, restricted labour mobility, discrimination at the workplace, as well as social and cultural barriers when looking for work. Job opportunities on the labour market are also scarce due to the decrease in hiring within the public sector, which is an outcome of the structural adjustment programme. In addition, low foreign as well as local investment in the private sector has impeded its growth. Thus work opportunities are limited and employment of men remains a priority, within this sector.

Table (2, 1) Global Labour Market Indicators, 1993 and 2003

	Female		Male	
	1993	2003	1993	2003
Unemployment rate	5.8%	6.4%	5.5%	6.1%
Labour force participation rate	53.5%	53.9%	80.5%	79.4%
Employment-population ratio	50.4%	50.5%	76.1%	74.5%

Source: Global employment trends for women, ILO March 2004.

From table 2.1 a global labour market trend is apparent. Unemployment rates in different regions have witnessed an increase for both males and females, indicating less work opportunities are available for those who are looking for work. The number of women joining the labour force is increasing whereas the LFPR for men is decreasing. Regarding the employment-to-population ratio for females, there is a slight increase, which indicates that more women in the working age population are working. In contrast, the male employment-to-population ratio is decreasing. When comparing table 2 with table 2.1, the same trend is depictable for Yemen for both men and women. The numbers in Yemen differ from the global average but the inclination is the same.

- *Female unemployment and female youth unemployment*

Based on the labour force survey of 1999, there were 469.000 unemployed persons; this corresponds to an unemployment rate of 11.5% of the labour force, 12.5% among men and 8% among women. The rate of unemployment is higher for men than for women however a large discrepancy between youth and adult rates exist.

In general, unemployment statistics have conventionally been used to assess the performance of the labour market.<sup>11</sup> They are crucial to design, implement and evaluate full employment policies and programmes and are important in public debate.<sup>12</sup>

Youth unemployment rate for both sexes are higher than adult unemployment in all regions of the world, which also applies to Yemen. The youth rate of unemployment stood at 18.7%, 20.5% for males and 13.6% for females. Although there are more women joining the labour force and there has been a visible increase of women employment in most age groups, particularly since 1994, this trend has been accompanied by increased female unemployment. Unemployment among educated women is at a rise. When comparing the Yemeni unemployment figures to those of the OECD countries (table 3.1), it becomes obvious that the rate on unemployment for youth (15-25 years of age) is higher than that of adults. The female youth unemployment rate of 12.8 % was higher than that of adult females (25-54 age group) 6.3% in 2003.

The unemployment rate in Yemen is higher among persons with higher education (15.4%) than among those with basic and primary education or lower (10.7%). A notable difference among educated women for whom the unemployment rate stood at 32% in contrast to 13.1% for the educated males was evident. This figure implies that one out of three women with higher education in Yemen, who are available for work, cannot find work.

**Table (3) Unemployment rates of the working age population in Yemen**

	Total %	Male %	Female %
Working age population (15 yrs +)	11.5	12.5	8
Youth (15 – 24 yrs)	18.7	20.5	13.6
Adult (25yrs and over)	8.4	9.3	5.5
Educated (above basic/preparatory)	15.4	13.1	32
Other (basic/preparatory and below)	10.7	12.3	6
Long term unemployed % of total (12 months and over)	33.7	32.5	40

Source: Farhad Mehran, Report on Mission to Yemen, 22 September-1 October 2001, ILO.

<sup>11</sup> Mata-Greenwood Adriana, Incorporating gender issues in labour statistics, ILO, Working papers, Bureau of Statistics. Page 10

<sup>12</sup> Ibid, page 22.

**Table (3.1) OECD Countries, Female Unemployment, Age Distribution**

	<b>(15-24 yrs)</b>			
	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2003</b>
Unemployment rate	12.3	11.9	12	12.8
Labour force participation rate	50.1	46.6	46.1	45.5
Employment-population ratio	43.9	41	40.5	39.7
	<b>(25-54 yrs)</b>			
Unemployment rate	5.9	6.1	6	6.3
Labour force participation rate	63.7	68.2	68.2	68
Employment-population ratio	59.9	64	64.1	63.7
	<b>(55-64 yrs)</b>			
Unemployment rate	3.2	4.4	4.1	4.1
Labour force participation rate	35.5	38.8	39.4	42
Employment-population ratio	34.3	37.1	37.7	40.3

Source: OECD Employment Outlook, OECD 2004

## 6. Trends in Employment

A single indicator to assess the conditions of employment does not exist. Therefore to evaluate the situation of women in the labour market in comparison to that of men the analysis of the following qualitative indicators will be examined: status of employment, employment by sector and employment by wages/earnings.

Table (4) Employment-Population Ratio 1994 and 1999

Age group years	Population Census 1994		Labour Force Survey 1999	
	Ratio % male	Ratio % Female	Ratio % Male	Ratio % female
<b>Total</b>	<b>67.2</b>	<b>16.2</b>	<b>61.2</b>	<b>20.0</b>
15-19	25.0	12.9	30.9	16.3
20-24	59.3	15.4	56.9	18.6
25-29	82.3	17.7	76.5	21.6
30-34	90.6	19.1	85.2	22.9
<b>35-39</b>	<b>92.3</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>87.2</b>	<b>25.4</b>
<b>40-44</b>	<b>92.0</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>85.2</b>	<b>29.5</b>
45-49	<b>91.1</b>	19.7	<b>84.0</b>	23.9
50-54	87.1	18.0	78.0	21.5
55-59	82.6	16.0	71.3	20.1
60-64	73.9	12.6	59.8	14.6
65+	47.5	6.5	28.6	6.2

Source: LMIS, Labour Force Survey, 1999

It is important to mention that table (4) compares two different censuses, the population census of 1994 and the labour force survey of 1999. The differences in the type of sources and the concepts and definitions used render the comparison of both censuses difficult. In general, population censuses lead to lower estimates of employment than corresponding results from labour force surveys with their specialized questionnaires. In the case of Yemen however, contrary to the experience of many other countries, the 1994 population census reveals a higher employment-to-population ratio for men than the labour force survey of 1999.<sup>13</sup> These figures can be explained by the fact that the 1999 labour force survey uses improved measurement schemes that particularly affect women employment.<sup>14</sup>

As can be seen from table (4), women employment has increased throughout all age groups during the period 1994 to 1999. There is a decrease in male employment in relation to population growth throughout all age groups with the exception of the first age category (15-19 years old). This a trend experienced in the whole Middle Eastern and North African region or better in most regions of the world during the last 10 years.<sup>15</sup>

The female employment-to-population ratio peaks at age-interval 40-44. Women are economically inactive due to family, especially child bearing and rearing, and

household responsibilities.<sup>16</sup> In Yemen, women marry and bear children at an early age. The peak in age-interval 40-44 for females, reflects the end of the child-bearing and rearing stages and a re-joining of the labour market.

Men however are economically inactive due to education or retirement. This explains the male employment-to-population ratio peaks at age-interval 35-39.

The decrease in male employment in relation to population growth in Yemen, from 1994 to 1999 could partly be attributed to the use of widespread retirement benefits (early retirement benefits are associated to methods used in the structural adjustment programme) for the prime-age male population.<sup>17</sup>

- *Employment by status of women*

According to traditional values, women are given the role of main housekeepers and child raisers in many regions of the world and specifically in the case of Yemen. The effect of rising poverty thus the need for a second income as well as the increase of educated women contributed to more females joining the labour market. However these women have to combine child-raising activities and work activities.

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<sup>13</sup> Mehran, Farhad, Report on Mission to Yemen (22 September-1 October 2001), International Labour Office, Bureau of Statistics, Geneva, 7 October 2001. Page 12.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid, page 12

<sup>15</sup> International Labour Organization, Global Employment Trends for Women 2004, Geneva, March 2004. Page 4.

<sup>16</sup> Esim, Simel, Social Security and Gender Equality: Reflections on Southern & Eastern Mediterranean Countries, Presentation prepared for the Euro-Mediterranean Conference on Social Security, ILO, Cyprus 27-28 May, 2004. Page 3.

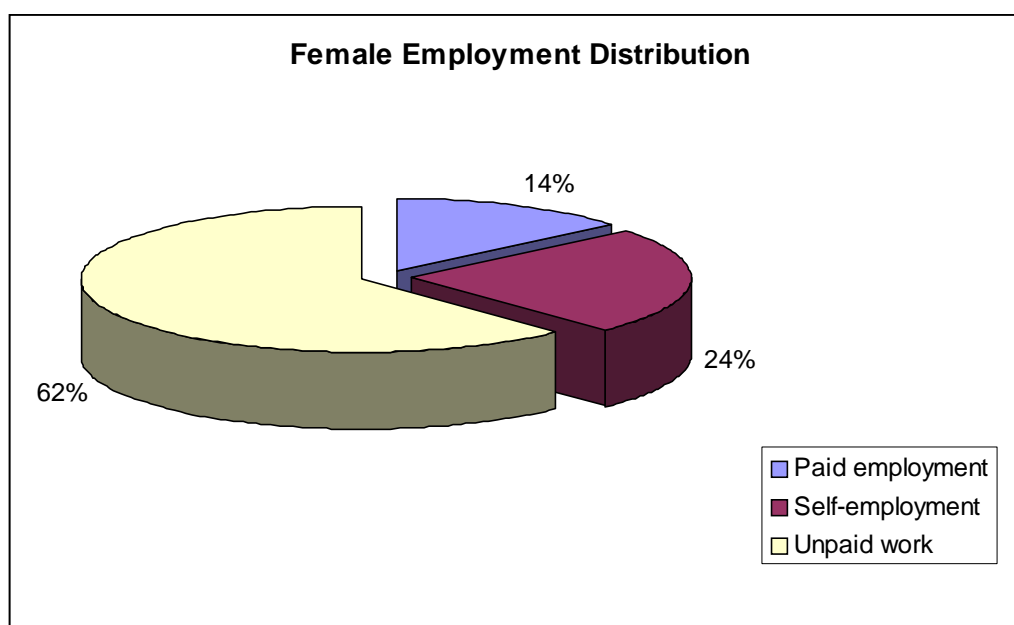
<sup>17</sup> Mehran, Farhad, Report on Mission to Yemen (22 September-1 October 2001), International Labour Office, Bureau of Statistics, Geneva, 7 October 2001. Page 13.

Table (5) Employment by Status 1999, Yemen

Sector	Total	Male	Female
Paid employment	1,507,500	91.8 %	8.2 %
Self-employment	1,200,900	82.2 %	17.8 %
Unpaid work	913,300	39.4 %	60.6 %
<b>Total employment</b>	<b>3,621,700</b>	<b>75.4 %</b>	<b>24.6 %</b>

Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Force Survey 1999

Given the roles of women in view of family responsibility, the above table (5) becomes explicable. Role incompatibility, i.e. combining child-raising and household chores with work activities, is evident amongst women in wage employment (only 3.4% of total employment). It seems to be less of a problem for self-employed women (only 5.9% of total employment), and least for contributing family workers who are unpaid (but still count as employed persons according to the standard definition of employment), and represent 15.3% of total employment. Unpaid work of women is concentrated mainly in the agricultural sector.



- *Employment by sector of women*

According to conventional labour statistics about men and women in the labour market, women in many regions of the world, are found in occupations which are losing status. They are underrepresented in managerial, production and transport occupations while they make up a large part of clerical and service occupations.<sup>18</sup> Thus an analysis of the sectoral data in Yemen will give indications in which

<sup>18</sup> Mata-Greenwood Adriana, Incorporating gender issues in labour statistics, ILO, Working papers, Bureau of Statistics. Page 5.

occupations women are involved in and whether their work is status-enhancing or empowering for them.

Table (6) Employment by Sector, Yemen

<b>Sector</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Private	2,914,200	71.7 %	29.3 %
Public	696,000	90.7 %	9.3 %
Other	11,500	93.9 %	6.1 %
<b>Total Employment</b>	<b>3,621,700</b>	<b>75.4 %</b>	<b>24.6 %</b>

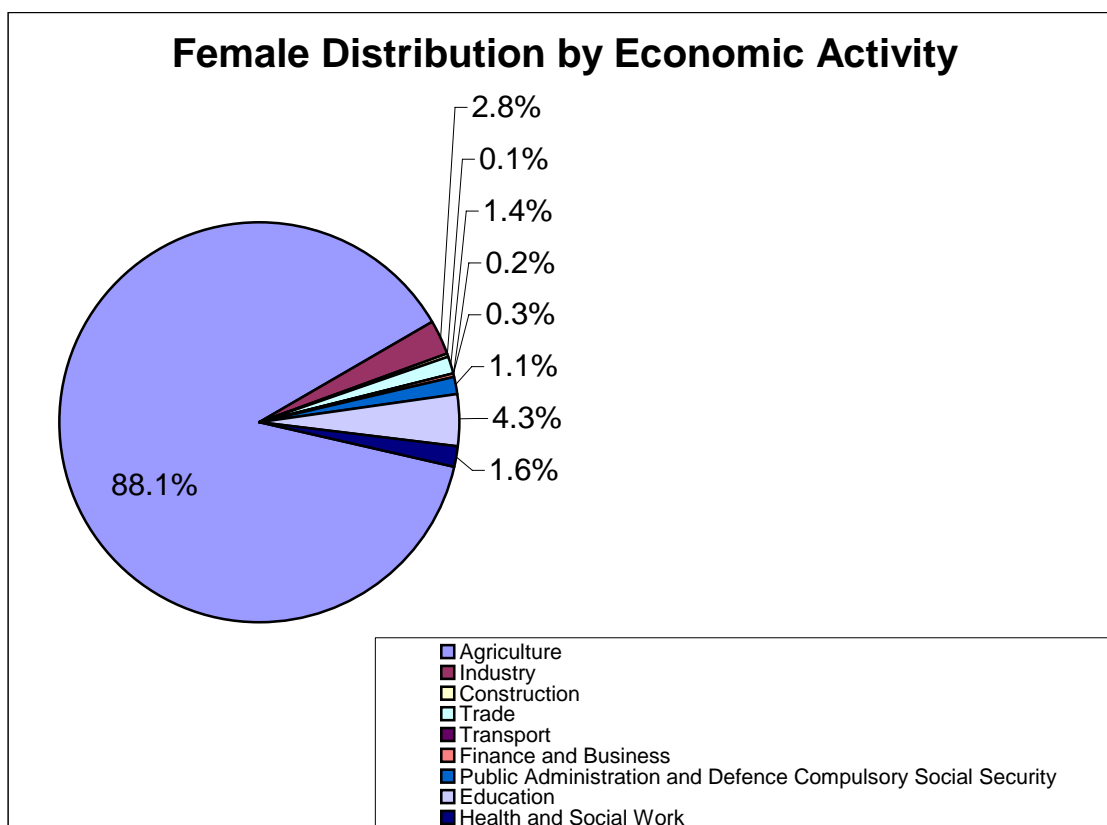
Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Force Survey 1999

As deduced from this table (6), women count only for 22.8% out of total employed in the private sector. Only 1.8% females out of total employed are engaged in the public sector. Government hiring is very low which is part of the structural adjustment and economic recovery programme.

Table (7) Employment by Economic Activity

<b>Economic Activity</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Agriculture	1,959,100	60.1 %	39.9 %
Industry	164,900	85 %	15 %
Construction	238,200	99.5 %	0.5 %
Trade	437,000	97 %	3 %
Transport	122,000	99.2 %	0.8 %
Finance and Business	30,000	91 %	9 %
Public Administration and Defense Compulsory Social Security	357,900	97 %	3%
Education	209,200	81.8 %	19.2 %
Health and Social Work	95,400	84.7 %	15.3 %
<b>Total Employment</b>	<b>3,621,700</b>	<b>75.4 %</b>	<b>24.6 %</b>

Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Force Survey 1999



As can be seen in the LFS of 1999, 890,100 of the employed were females. From the above two tables' one can deduce that the bulk of female employment is in the agricultural sector 88.1% and mostly as unpaid family workers. The next prominent sector with a high rate of female employment is the educational system, 4.3% followed by those working in the industrial sector 2.8 % and those working in the health and social sector 1.6 %.

It can be concluded that women are concentrated in sectors that are traditionally associated with their gender roles, especially in community, social and personal services, whereas men dominate the better-paid sector jobs in financial and business services and real estate. The sex segregation of occupations is still high in Yemen. Women mainly occupy jobs as clerks, secretaries, customer services, tellers, teachers, nurses and domestic workers.

According to the labour demand survey of 2002/2003 wage employment of women was concentrated in the following occupations: 1) specialists 22%; 2) clerks 14.7%; 3) technicians and associate specialists 12.2%; 4) simple occupations; 5) equipment operators and assembly workers 4.8%; 6) in services and as shop assistants 3.9%; 7) legislators, key officials and directors 5%; 9) craftsmen and the like 3.2%. The number of paid employees working in the surveyed establishments was 257,908 with 19,242 females and 238,666 males.

- *Wages and Earnings*<sup>19</sup>

Wage equality between men and women all over the world has not been achieved. Women, in all regions of the world, receive less pay than men for the same occupation. One of the explanations for this is that women often hold low-level, low paying positions in female-dominated occupations. In most of the occupations in most economies of the world, women tend to earn 90% or even less than what their male co-workers earn.<sup>20</sup> According to global trends, in typically male-dominated occupations such as welding in metal manufacturing, wage disparities are blatant. Even in typically female occupations such as nursing and teaching, gender wage equality does not exist. According to the research undertaken even in high-skill occupations where the education and training level of male and female employees were comparable (the examples used were accountants in the banking sector or computer programmers in the insurance sector) wage disparities were present. It is noted that the average female wage is still only 88% of the male wage. One of the reasons for the wage differential is women's lack of negotiation capability as well as bargaining power.<sup>21</sup>

The situation in Yemen is different. Women earn less than men in the male-dominated technical occupations (plant and machine operators) whereas in all other occupations the wage discrepancy is minimal as wages are paid according to post and not according to gender.

The following table (8) shows the difference between male and female wages, in all occupational categories in Yemen. It is seen that women receive less monthly earnings than men, however the wage discrepancy is minimal, it takes into account that women generally work less hours than men. According to this table the marked difference between male-to-female wage situations is seen in the occupational category of plants and machine operators, i.e. technical occupations, where a female works 40 hours a week and receives an average monthly salary of 7,000 YR (US\$ 47). Her male counterpart in contrast works 43 hours per week and earns 15,400 YR (US\$ 103) per month. This means that a female would earn an average hourly wage of 44 YR (US\$ 0.29) whereas a male would earn the double, 89 YR (US\$ 0.59) per hour. Very few women work in these technical fields –where less than 2% of the workers are women. In these male-dominated professions, it is evident that women hold lower level as well as lower-paid positions; this explains why the wage disparities are so prominent.

In all other occupational categories the wage differential between men and women is not so prominent. When looking at crafts and related trade workers, one would expect to find a wage discrepancy between males and females. However, when calculating the hourly earnings of both sexes, men earn 142 YR (US\$ 0.95) per hour and women 101 YR (US\$ 0.67); it is evident that the difference is not so significant.

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<sup>19</sup> One US\$ Dollar in 1999 was equivalent to 150 Yemeni Riyal (YR).

<sup>20</sup> International Labour Organization, *Global Employment Trends for Women 2004*, Geneva, March 2004. Page 13.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid.* Page 13.

During discussions with private sector employers, this mission was informed that wages were paid according to the post and not on the basis of gender. In contrast, however, women continue to hold lower paying positions as they are not as easily promoted as their male counterparts. According to the labour demand survey 2002-2003, current employers provide on-the-job training to their workforce in order to enhance their skill levels. However when analyzing the data, it is obvious that males are given priority in regards to training opportunities. Out of a total of 31.915 employees in different organizations 29.070 males received training in comparison to 2.845 females. This means that 91% of men were trained vis-à-vis 9% of women.

The trend identified is that women with higher level of education were prone to be given training. 10.5% of women with university degrees and prior work experience were provided with training compared to 89.4% for men in the same educational category. For females with post secondary/technical diploma 10.8 % received training in comparison to 89.2 % for males. For women with general secondary education only 1.4 % received training compared to 98.5 % for men. Graduates from training institutes also obtained on-the-job training, 5.6 % of females were trained compared to 94.3 % of males.

Training offered to females was to acquire skills in public relations and/or customer service issues (referred to in the labour demand survey 2002-2003, as dealing with clients), these skills are relevant to females working in the telecommunication companies in customer service and call centres and also for women employed in travel agencies. The women receiving this kind of training were mainly post secondary and technical diploma graduates. The same educational category also received training in media occupations, particularly journalism.

Female university graduates with experience received training in the banking and insurance occupations.

One reason for this trend is that although the women receiving training have university and/or technical diplomas, their qualifications and specializations do not correspond to the job requirements of their occupations. For example, university graduates from the faculty of English language are mainly employed as clerks, secretaries, customer services staff and tellers.

Table (8) Wages for male and female workers according to occupation

Main Profession	Sex	Number of employees	Average Monthly Earnings YR	Average Hours worked per week
Legislators and senior Officials	Male	35,513	17,300	38
	Female	1,796	15,160	34
	Total	37,309	17,200	38
Specialists	Male	90,300	16,300	32
	Female	16,598	15,200	29
	Total	106,898	16,100	31
Technicians	Male	167,970	12,400	32

And Associate Specialists	Female	31,632	10,700	29
	Total	199,602	12,130	32
Clerks	Males	46,019	13,600	39
	Female	8,527	10,500	35
	Total	54,546	13,200	38
Service and Shop Assistants	Male	113,307	13,800	50
	Female	4,716	10,300	37
	Total	118,023	13,600	50
Skilled Agriculture and Fishery Workers	Male	73,999	11,700	44
	Female	8,677	8,700	34
	Total	82,676	11,400	43
Crafts and related Trades Workers	Male	155,711	17,800	44
	Female	3,313	12,000	21
	Total	159,024	17,700	44
Plants and Machine Operators	Male	65,996	15,400	43
	Female	1,298	7,000	40
	Total	67,294	15,200	43
Elementary Professions	Male	394,058	12,600	40
	Female	44,898	8,400	34
	Total	438,956	12,200	39
Unclassified and Unspecified Professions	Male	241,591	9,500	40
	Female	1,538	9,100	36
	Total	243,129	9,500	40
Total	Male	1,384,464	13,200	41
	Female	122,993	10,400	32
	Total	1,507,457	13,000	40

Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Force Survey 1999

## 7. Trends in the Labour Market for Women

The data sheds light on existing skill gaps and skill shortages that are experienced both by establishments when recruiting women and by female job seekers when applying for a job. According to the ILO definitions of Labour, “Skill” is the ability to perform a task to a predefined level of competence. It is generally accepted that a more skilled labour force should have higher productive and more skilled workers should get returns from the improved productivity in terms of higher pay.

- *Skill shortages*

Skill shortages can be defined as recruitment difficulties experienced by establishments. These difficulties result from a shortage of skilled individuals required by the labour market.

In the labour demand survey 2002-2003, the section on the establishments encountering difficulties in finding as well as hiring skilled labour is not "sex disaggregated". The survey questions pertaining to this topic were not divided into male-female classification but were combined.

Out of 2913 establishments, 2480, meaning 85.1% reported difficulties in finding skilled labour. 2150, 73.8 % reported a general lack of skill, implying inadequate training and inadequate experience. 330 companies (11.3%) had problems in finding specific skills among the job-seekers: foreign-language knowledge, accounting skills, management skills, leadership skills, computer skills, equipment operation skills, and electronic skills.

Table (8) Skills deficiencies

Encountered difficulties	Number of establishments	Percentage
Lack of skilled labour	2,480	85.1
General lack of skills	2,150	73.8
Specific lack of skills	330	11.3
Inadequate contracts	77	2.6
Insufficient funds	356	12.2
Total	2,913	100

Source: LMIS, Labour demand survey 2002-2003

Since the table in the labour demand survey does not specify any numbers in relation to women, the mission carried out some interviews with private sector companies<sup>22</sup>. These interviews shed light on difficulties met by employers when hiring personnel. These establishments stated that there was a lack of specific skills among females: English, language knowledge, accounting skills, good administrative and executive skills, secretarial skills, computer knowledge, and marketing skills.

The second part of the labour demand survey 2002-2003, concentrates on employees working in the establishments; it gives a better indication on skills need on the labour market particularly pertaining to women.

Table (9) Skill shortages encountered by establishments and employees

Lack of Skills	Establishments		Employees		
	Number	%	Total	Females	%
English language	79	24	2,296	204	8.9
Computer	58	17.5	1,299	302	23.2
Use of equipment	50	15.1	1,507	144	9.5
Accounting	23	7	632	91	14.4
Leadership	101	31	-	-	-
Management	19	5.7	-	-	-

<sup>22</sup> Companies visited were: Hunt oil, Schlumberger, Tatco, Spacetel, also Yemenia Airlines, Saudi Arabian Airlines and the Islamic Development Bank.

Other	-	-	228	26	11.4
Total	330	100	5,962	767	12.8

Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Demand Survey 2002-2003, Yemen

This table shows both the difficulties encountered by employers when hiring skilled workers and obstacles experienced by employees in finding jobs.

There seems to be a consensus between both establishments and employees according to the specific skills that are lacking. There are slight variations in the priority of skills lacking in regards to establishments and employees but the skill categories are the same.

Skills lacking on the labour market are knowledge of English, computer skills, use of equipment, and accounting skills. Establishments have stated that employees lack both management and leadership skills. This trend applies to both men and women.

- *Skill Gaps*

Skill gaps are deficiencies in employer's existing workforce, both at the individual level and overall, which prevent the establishment from achieving its full business potential.

The information analyzed will highlight the level of skill deficiencies among existing workers in establishments and identify occupations most in need of training and upgrading. There is a problem with the identification of skill gaps for females from the labour demand survey 2002-2003, as the tables on training needs for specific jobs are not "sex disaggregated".

In the labour demand survey 2002-2003, there is a section on vacancies, which should be filled during 2004-2006. The tables give an overview on the occupations needed according to the level of education and qualification. This data would have been helpful to depict the specializations/occupations where women would be needed on the labour market. However this sector is not "sex disaggregated".

Again, in the same survey (labour demand survey 2002-2003) data is available on training required by the surveyed establishments for their employees. This information is a good indicator of trends pertaining to training requirements and in identifying skill gaps for women in particular. This data however is not "sex disaggregated". In this context, data broken down by sex would have been useful in assessing the number of women needing training and specifically in which skills. The survey questions were designed to cover combined information of employers for both men and women in regards to training needed by the establishments. The data, even in its aggregated form, provides an indication of training skills required in the labour market.

It is interesting to note that the highest training need reported by establishments for their employees is in vocational skills 16.7%. Management as well as secretarial skills training figured second on the list with 14.4%. This is followed by accountancy with 13.1%. Equipment operations and maintenance training 11.8% was also reported as necessary as well as training in information technology 11.7%.

Establishments listed other types of training needs required by their employees such as: foreign languages 7%, pharmaceutical and medical services 5.4%, political and workers associations 4.8%, food processing 4%, aviation and meteorology 2.9%, marketing 2.7%, and journalism 2.4%.

It appears however that identified training needs are not directly matched by the training sector through provision of specific training programmes.

- *Education and training versus occupational requirements*

According to discussions with private sector employers, a general trend in the private sector including banks was that education and training for women in particular did not correspond to their job requirements. Most of the employed women were university graduates, yet working as secretaries, customer services, fax operators, tellers in banks, ticketing and reservation specialists in travel agencies.

## GENDER BASED OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Yemenia and Saudi Arabian Airlines reported that their female staff (166) was employed mainly as ticketing, reservation specialists and secretaries. They were all university graduates mainly from the Faculty of English Language and achieved degrees. For example SA had 15 staff members of which 6 were women. Yemenia reported to have 4,000 staff members with 4% female employees. Apart from one co-pilot and 2 aircraft engineers, the majority of females worked in the ticketing, reservations section and as secretaries. In both airlines, it was reported that all the employed women had skills deficiencies and needed training. Yemenia trains its staff in its own training centre in Yemen. Training offered is for a period of two months in ticketing and reservation procedures. Saudi Airlines, however uses both the Yemenia training centre and also sends its staff abroad (mainly Egypt, Cairo) for a week of training. Here the management encounters problems not all female staff is allowed to travel on their own without a male escort from her family.

Spacotel employs 70 females out of a total of 700 employees. The female staff is Yemeni nationals. The majority of female employees are also university graduates from the faculty of English language. About 42 work in the customer service section; they are in the in call centres. The women are employed in “back office” jobs where they are more or less out of the public eye. There are 12 secretaries. Apart from few exceptions, women do not normally occupy higher positions. Some of these exceptions at Spacotel are employed as back office team leader, back office supervisor, corporate sales representative, personnel officer, human resources administrator and legal advisor.

At Hunt Oil, out of a workforce of 1300, 25 were women of which the majority was working as secretaries, a few as purchasing officers, some accountants, only one female engineer is employed, working in the office only. Most of these female employees are university graduates with English and computer skills. When reviewing the data provided during the discussions, it can be concluded that the jobs offered do not at all correspond to their educational background and training.

Source: Interviews in the Private Sector

According to the data of the labour force survey 2002-2003 on women the poor mismatch was highest among general training institutes’ graduates 22.8%, university graduates 20.7% and graduates from technical vocational training centres 18.9%.

Table (10) Mismatch between qualification and current occupations of female graduate employees

Occupation	Female graduate employees	Job Performance			Poor mismatch rate %
		Poor	Medium	Strong	
Legislators and senior specialists	195	80	38	77	41
Specialists	4,754	597	613	3,522	12.5
Technicians and associate specialists	1,152	115	154	883	10
Clerks	1,051	476	280	295	45
Service and shop assistants	236	109	62	65	46.2
Craftsmen and the like	26	2	15	9	7.7
Elementary profession	10	4	2	4	40
Unknown	14	0	0	6	-
Total of female graduate employees	7,430	1,383	1,186	4,861	18.6
Total of graduate employees	49,028	8,696	9,155	31,177	17.7

Source: CSO and LMIS, Labour Demand Survey 2002-2003, Yemen

The statistics available in the labour demand survey, 2002 – 2003, on education and occupation mismatch highlights the following results. About 18% of female graduate employees are convinced that their qualifications and specializations do not correspond to the job requirements of their current occupation. 16% of female graduates see only a slight connection between their qualification and specialization.

Amongst women the highest mismatch rates was for those working as service and shop assistants (46.5%), followed by those employed as clerks (45%), and also those working as managers (41%). Graduate female working in elementary professions likewise reported a high mismatch rate (40%). Whereas lower levels of mismatch rates were reported amongst those working as technicians (10%) and those working as specialists (12%).

- *Establishments reporting priority to female employment*

In the labour demand survey of 2002-2003, establishments were asked whether they prioritize female employment. Of the 7113 establishments surveyed, only 4.4% acknowledged preferential treatment in the employment of women. However 84.6% admitted to favouring male employment, the remaining establishments did not report any gender priority.

The establishments that reported priority to female employment and possible positions that might be made available for women were in economic sectors that seem to be traditionally oriented towards women. These economic activities are the following: 1) education 39.1% for females and 29.8% for males; 2) health 29% for females compared to 24.2% for males; 3) Personal services 11.9% for females and 70.3% for males.

When examining all the data, it became apparent that there are some new economic activities that are emerging, which are also very conducive to the employment of women. These economic activities can be listed as the following: transport and communication 7.1%, real estate 5.4%, and financial services 4.8%.

In relation to the sizes of the establishments, it was those with 20+ workers that reported priority in the employment of women, 13.3%, those with 10-19 workers employed 8.4%; 5-9 workers establishments employed 8.1% and least favourable to the employment of women were the small establishments with 1-4 workers.

According to the labour demand survey 2002-2003, NGOS take the lead as main employers of females with 17.5% followed by the private sector with a rate of 11.9%.

In the labour demand survey 2002-2003, there is a section on vacancies, which should be filled during 2004-2006. The tables give an overview on the occupations needed according to the level of education and qualification. This data would have been helpful to depict the specializations/occupations where women would be needed on the labour market. However this section of the survey did not provide "sex disaggregated" information.

## **8. Constraints to Employment of Women**

Among continuing gender based constraints that impede labor market participation are:

- In the life cycle women have less access to productive resources (land, capital, livestock) compared to men
- There are continued mobility constraints on women in many communities in the region
- Early marriage and child bearing and rearing also inhibit women's integration into labor market

Women face employer and lender biases and are overrepresented among unpaid family workers, part time, low wage earners, unemployed & inactive. Formal credit markets already often exclude women who are less likely than men to own land and other resources to show as collateral. Partly because of the uncertainty associated with lending to beginners and partly because of informational asymmetries (between older and younger workers and between women and men) formal credit markets are not responsive to young people in general and young women in particular.

According to the Yemen Demographic, Maternal and Child Health Survey (YDMCHS) of 1997,<sup>23</sup> it is stated that there has been a decrease in the rate of fertility among females of all age groups<sup>24</sup>.

On the basis of births during three years prior to the survey, fertility rate was 6.5 children per female with an average of 5.0 in the urban areas and 7.0 in the rural areas. This meant that rural women, on average, had two more children in comparison to urban females. According to the YDMCHS of 1997, the fertility rates decreased over a span of six years. During the first YDMCHS of 1991/1992, fertility rate was 7.7 and it decreased to 7.4 in 1994, as registered in the population census. Between 1994 and 1997, during the YDMCHS survey, the fertility rate decreased to 6.5. In other words, between the 1994 population census and the 1997 YDMCHS survey, birth rates dropped to 1.2 children per woman. Despite the drop in fertility rates, overall fertility in Yemen still remains high compared to neighbouring countries in the Middle East and Africa, and is reported as being one of the highest in the world.

It is important to note that the decrease in fertility rate in Yemen is closely correlated to the level of education among women.

Table (11) Fertility rate

Educational Level	Age group 15 –45	Age group 45-49
Illiterate	5.4	8.6
Read & write	3.4	6.1
Basic education	2.9	8.0
Intermediate	2.5	5.2
High school and above	2.1	3.7
Total	4.8	8.5

<sup>23</sup> The first Yemen Demographic, Maternal and Child Health Survey (YDMCHS) was implemented in 1991-1992. The second round of the survey was carried out during 1997 by the Central Statistical Organization (CSO) in cooperation with the Ministry of Public Health and the National Council for Population. The objective of the YDMCHS is to update and expand the national population and health data base of Yemen through the collection of data, which will enable the calculation demographic rates, especially fertility rates as well as infant and child mortality rates. Thus the YDMCHS analyzes direct and indirect factors which determine levels and trends of fertility. It measures the level of contraceptive knowledge and practice by rural and urban residences. It also analyzes maternal and child health; nutritional status mothers and children under five years of age; and infant and child mortality. Another important issue that the YDMCHS covers is the level of maternal mortality at the national level. It also includes an interesting chapter on practices of female circumcision in Yemen. The YDMCHS focuses on selected socioeconomic characteristics of the household population and individual survey respondents such as age, sex, education, school enrolment and participation in the labour force; and conditions surrounding the households (drinking water, availability of electricity etc) in order to determine factors affecting reproductive and contraceptive use and behaviour.

<sup>24</sup> YDMCHS 1997, Chapter Three: Fertility. Page 35.

## Demographic Health Survey 1997

There is a difference regarding fertility rate in terms of education and also according to rural and urban areas. It becomes evident from the table that illiterate women in the age group 45-49 have 8.6 children compared to an urban rate of 8.2. For women in the age bracket 45-49 with high school and above education the fertility rate decreases to 3.7.

There is a lower fertility rate amongst women in the age bracket 15- 45 as their education level increases. The higher the level of education the less children women choose to have, example for high school and above women in the 15-45 age group tend to have 2.1 children.

High fertility rate is not the only barrier to women's gainful employment. There are a number of other constraints to female employment.

Discrimination against the recruitment of women is prominent among a large number of establishments in the private sector. According to various establishments the employment of women is viewed as a costly endeavour. In the labour law it is stipulated that maternity leave is obligatory for the establishments employing females and must be paid. High fertility rate coupled with early age of marriage (14 years in the rural and 16 years in the urban areas) entails higher expenditures for the establishments. In many cases employers need to recruit replacements to insure the smooth flow of work given the fact that maternity leave amounts to a period of 90 days.

Gender bias is pronounced at the workplace. During discussions with various employers, the answers to whether employers paid different wages to women in comparison to men and whether there was a chance for female promotion within the companies were both positive. It was reported that wages were paid according to the post and not on the basis of gender and that women had as many chances to being promoted as their male counterparts. When examining the statistics on wages, there is no gender difference however women are seldom considered for high paid jobs, i.e. a university graduate is hired as a clerk or secretary. It is normally the men who are given the better paid jobs in the private sector. This disfavour against women is also due employer perceptions that women will leave their positions once they get married. Professional development considerations were not considered vital from the point of the employer.

When looking at the number of women in decision-making positions, it is obvious that there is inequality with regard to power-sharing and decision-making. There are:

- Two women members of parliament out of a 301 member legislature.
- One minister for Human Rights from a 35 member cabinet.
- Two female members of the Shura council out of a total of 111 members.
- One female ambassador representing Yemen in Holland.
- 35 women from a total of 6035 members in local councils.

The list of cultural restrictions, which reduce women's chances of finding employment is exhaustive. Few women are allowed to travel alone whether abroad or within Yemen, especially for training purposes, some families impose that a male parent must accompany their daughters or a husband must accompany his wife. Just to give an example female engineers that were interviewed by petrol companies and short listed were not willing to travel to the field on their own. For many private sector companies these are expensive additional costs that they do not want to bear. According to national legislation many women are not allowed to work nightshifts.

Social attitudes are an additional barrier to women's employment chances. Depending on the husband's perception women will be asked not to work as it is considered culturally improper for a woman to work outside the home or family business in majority of Yemeni households. Some men regard the fact that their wives go to work as an insult to their manly hood. There is also the underlying fear that she will come into contact with other men as well as the level of independence the woman might gain by earning her own income.

High illiteracy rates and low level of education put women at a disadvantage in comparison to their male counterparts in the labour market. The illiteracy rate is high among females, 68% and enrolment in general education is relatively low for women. Details to education constraints are given in the next chapter.

- *Education and Vocational Training*

The principle of equal rights for education and training is guaranteed by the Yemeni constitution. Traditionally education of women was not considered the highest priority in the Yemeni society. This trend is gradually changing; the enrolment of women has risen to an overall 47% in basic education and 21% in secondary education. Enrolment in urban areas is higher than in rural areas, though 70% of the population lives in rural areas. In spite of the efforts made, illiteracy is still widely spread particularly in rural areas. Women's rural illiteracy is twice as high as their illiteracy in urban areas.

Table (12) Illiteracy rates among population (10 years and above), 1999

Gender	Urban areas	Rural areas	Total
Males	15%	33%	28%
Females	40%	78%	68%
Total	27%	55%	47%

Source: CSO and LMIS labour force survey 1999

Enrolment in general education has improved, however female enrolment is still relatively low.

Table (13) Enrolment in general education (age group 6-17 years)

Age group	Males (millions)	% of enrolment	Females (millions)	% of enrolment	Total coverage
6 – 14 years	2.9	77%	2.6	60%	77%
15-17 years	1.6	60%	0.6	22%	40%

Source: Ministry of Education 2000.

The reasons for low enrolment for girls and the rather high dropout rate would be amongst others, include:

- Parental perceptions on a lack of need for educating girls (rationales include girls help in the household, their husbands will take care of them, etc.),
- Unwillingness by parents to finance cost for the education of girls especially in the face of security, safety, and honor concerns (lack of safe and affordable transport, high cost of transportation, etc.)
- Lack of female teachers, lack of appropriate sanitary facilities in schools (girls bathrooms), mixed classes especially after puberty,
- Gender bias in curricula and teaching material, and teacher attitudes against girl students.

Annually a large number of students graduate from basic and secondary education, the ratio in 2001 was as follows:

Basic education: Total graduates 169,384; females 48,882 (29%)

Secondary education: Total graduates 106,000; females 25,388 (12%)

Low enrolment in basic and secondary education can be demonstrated when comparing the total female population of an age group with that of graduates.

Table (14) Female net enrolment rate in basic and secondary education

Female Population	Female Graduates From Basic Education	%	Female Population	Female Graduates from Secondary Education	%
Age 15 years			Age 18 years		

215,000	48,882	23	205,000	25,388	12
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Source: Ministry of Education, 2000

The statistics of the Ministry of Education, show that about 70-80% of females graduated from basic education, enlist and join secondary education. This might be attributed to the graduates wish to qualify for post-graduate education or better employment opportunities following secondary education.

Only a small number from the basic and secondary education can enter the vocational training and technical education system, due to its overall limited number of training centres/institutions and places as well as the choice of the rather traditional programmes offered. The enrolment ratio for women in technical education and vocational training institutions is 14%, whereas only 13% graduated at the end of the programmes in 2001. Training is offered in industrial, commercial, agricultural, health, fishery, hotel, telecommunication and computer occupational areas. Whereas, women enrolment in 2001 was restricted to 3 occupational areas, i.e. commercial (30%), health (16.6%) and telecommunications & computer (8.6%). The other occupational areas: industrial, agriculture, fishery and hotel had almost no applicants.

Considering that vocational training and technical education are the corner stones for the preparation of a skilled labour force. , It is necessary to make the system more responsive to the labour market needs, taking into account the present low participation of women in the labour supply. New training programmes need to be introduced which are in line with employment opportunities, particularly for women in addition to the standard programmes.

In Yemen, the training delivery system is more supply rather than demand driven, resulting amongst others in unemployment of trained persons. Against this there are jobs in the public and private sector, for which no training is being provided. There are also insufficient measures for linking TVET with the labour market needs provided by the LMIS.

Vacancies identified by LMIS are not taken into consideration when training programmes are designed. Apart from being located in main cities only, technical education and vocational training institutions provide mainly standard long term programmes, which with few exceptions, are not developed with considerations for women students for women and their eventual employment opportunities.

The surveys undertaken by LMIS reveal that available training programmes are not relevant or sufficient to meet existing job requirements is not satisfactory. There is an identified short-term accelerated training, to cater for existing and new emerging job opportunities and or upgrading in new or advanced skills.

As already indicated, public and private sector TVET institutions are located primarily in urban areas and cater for urban sector needs. Training for the rural sector has been neglected; this restricts access to quality training to the poorer people of society and particularly women.

## 9. Existing Policies and Programmes towards the Enhancement of Female Employment and Labour Force Participation, as well as the Promotion of Gender Equality

The promotion of gender equality is ensuring equal outcomes and equal shares between men and women so that all persons are treated with dignity and allowed to develop their full potential, leading to a higher quality of life for all. It does not mean that women and men need to become identical. Women and men are and have the right to be different, but should have equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities: All human beings, being both men and women are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles and prejudices. Gender equality means that different behaviour, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally, and that the way women and men are treated and their work is valued should not depend on whether they are born male or female.<sup>25</sup>

To this effect, gender equality includes:

- the same human and workers' rights
- equal value and fair distribution of:
  - responsibilities and opportunities
  - workload, decision making and income

Equality between women and men is not just a human rights issue but also a precondition for sustainable people-centred, social and economic development.<sup>26</sup> In order to institutionalize the concept of gender equality, it is crucial to integrate it into the mainstream of policies, programmes, projects, institutional mechanisms and budgets.

This chapter will look at the existing national strategies, policies and programmes in Yemen in relation to the integration and promotion of gender equality.

### 1. The Five-Year Economic and Social Development Plan (2001-2005)

In this working paper, the plight of women is acknowledged. There is an emphasis on the importance of enhancing women's opportunities in joining the labour market. In order to achieve this objective, the plan aims at increasing the enrolment rate of girls in basic and secondary education as well as in vocational training programmes. Furthermore, it plans to give women the opportunity to take part in the decision-making process. Females should have a role in drawing up laws and policies.

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<sup>25</sup> <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/gender/docs/RES/313/F237800928/> ILO, Gender mainstreaming Strategy in Asia and the Pacific.

<sup>26</sup> Ibid

The paper stipulates the need to implement the labour law, which provides equal rights to men and women in regards to job positions and wages. It is foreseen to pass a new law in order to guarantee to both men and women equal opportunities for gainful employment. It is therefore essential to take severe consequences against establishments discriminating between men and women when recruiting new personnel. Procedures need to be established to facilitate the return of female employees to the workplace after having left due to pregnancy and childbirth. The plan further aims at providing childcare services to working women so that they are able to keep their jobs.

The five-year plan highlights the necessity of obtaining continuous information on women's employment, particularly economic sectors and professions.

## 2. Yemen's Strategic Vision 2025

This long-term strategy stipulates the need to narrow the existing gaps between gender in education, health and in providing women with better chances to participate in political, economic and social activities. It is envisaged that by 2025 women's participation rate in the labour force will have increased to 50%.

In regards to illiteracy, the strategy focuses on reducing the illiteracy rate from its present 47% to 10% by the year 2025.

This strategy highlights the need to achieve, in the long term, education for all and to reduce the gap between boys and girls basic and secondary school enrolment. It is intended to reach 95% in 2025. The focus of the policy is to make basic education compulsory for both boys and girls, accentuate the importance of female education especially in view of obtaining better chances of gainful employment and to increase the number of girls schools as well as limit drop out rates.

Considering the high unemployment rate for both males and females, high population growth as well as high internal migration (from rural to urban areas); the strategy aims at improving and expanding the technical education and training curricula. By the year 2025, it is envisaged to have increased the enrolment rate in technical institutes and community colleges for both males and females. This approach is to create a technically qualified labour force and to encourage the establishment of small and medium enterprises.

## 3. Social Gender National Project Strategy (2002-2005)

This strategy was drawn up by the National Women Committee (NWC) with the goal of promoting gender equality in Yemen. To this effect, one of the responsibilities of the NWC is to support the Government's efforts in promoting gender mainstreaming in Yemen in view of achieving gender equality. This principle was adopted by the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, in 1995. Another task of the NWC is to ensure with Government authorities that all forms of discrimination against women are eliminated. The Yemeni Government ratified this international convention in 1985.

The Social Gender National Strategy aims at increasing women's participation in the political sphere and in decision making positions. This is being currently undertaken

by informing women about their rights in general and political rights specifically. This is being achieved through the media, i.e. television and radio programmes, as well as through publications.

Another component of this strategy is to work towards eradicating poverty. This will be done through awareness raising among both men and women on the importance of equal rights and women's advantage in joining the labour market.

The importance of education and the elimination of illiteracy especially among women is a major concern of this strategy. Increasing the enrolment of girls in schools and ensuring higher rates of enrolment in both universities as well as technical/vocational institutes.

#### 4. The National Strategy for Women's Employment (2001-2011)

There are four strategic objectives in view of enhancing women's employment opportunities and increasing their labour force participation.

Objective Nr.1:

To increase women's employment opportunities in the labour market.

In view of achieving this objective, the strategy stipulates the necessity of facilitating credit options for women to enable them to set-up their own projects. Also the importance of investing in the private sector in order to create more job opportunities in this sector for women.

Objective Nr. 2:

To enhance women's competitiveness in the labour market through rehabilitation and training.

The strategy highlights the need to lower the illiteracy rates among working women and to increase the participation of females in vocational and technical training programmes in order to gain skills required in the labour market.

Objective Nr. 3:

To improve the terms and conditions of employment through legal coverage that secures economic and social protection for women.

In order to ensure legal protection for working women both in the formal and informal sector, it is necessary to evaluate and review existing labour legislation and laws and envisage an update of the labour laws.

Objective Nr. 4:

To raise awareness on the importance of women's work.

The aim is to change negative cultural perceptions against the working women. At the same time, working women themselves need to be made aware of their economic and legal rights.

## 5. Poverty Reduction Strategy, Annual Progress Report for 2003

The strategy highlights the importance of women's active economic participation. The first step towards the economic empowerment of women is to include females in the decision-making process. Thus a Gender Thematic Group was established and each Ministry has been asked to include in their sub-units a representative from the National Women's Committee (WNC). Officials in line Ministries were provided with special training on gender issues, particularly in planning and budget preparation.

The PRS mentions the need to ensure basic education for boys and girls. In view of technical education and vocational training, it is envisaged to expand training curricula in different skill areas and also prolong the training duration from the standard two years to three years for women's training centres.

## 6. The Social Fund for Development

The Social Fund for Development (SFD) was established in 1997 to address the side effects resulting from the structural adjustment and economic recovery programme. The SFD's mandate is to alleviate poverty among the Yemeni population, provide basic services to the poor, create job opportunities and develop local communities. To this effect, the SFD is also actively involved in enhancing the status of women towards gainful employment.

The SFD implements its objectives through three main programmes: the community development programme, the capacity building programme and the small and micro enterprise development programme. The SFD has allocated US\$ 400 million for its third phase (2004-2008).

The SFD is involved in developing education infrastructure in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and in improving the quality of education especially for girls.

In the community development programme, the SFD works with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The SFD provides selected NGOs with training of trainers in some handicrafts and food processing skills. Most of the NGOs the SFD deals with are based in the urban areas.

Through the small and micro enterprise development programme, selected NGOs obtain loans. These loans are then used to provide those interested with credit facilities to start their own small businesses. It was reported by SFD staff that 56% of the borrowers were women. They used the credit mainly for home-based activities, and activities in the informal sector such as sewing clothes, baking bread and/or cookies. Many women got involved in livestock raising and selling. Most of the activities women engage in are in the informal sector, which is a growing domain, however there are no studies on this sector yet.

## 9. **Conclusions and recommendations in view of meeting the MDG goals**

### **Goal three: PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN**

There are still many countries in the region where equality between women and men in employment, education and training, wages, social security entitlements, and

facilities to set-up their own enterprises and other aspects of work has not yet been achieved. From the analysis in this paper, it is evident that Yemen figures among these countries striving to achieve gender equality on the long term. Many positive steps have been taken towards narrowing existing gender gaps in education, training, employment as well as amendment of laws and national strategies which enhance women's position and take account of the different needs of gender.

1. Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT):

From the foregoing analysis it is clear the TEVT system does not produce the required number of graduates for the jobs available, nor give the quality of training expected by the employers. There is a clear need to strengthen the capacity at national level for policy development including the coordination of all training providers.

Further, the training delivery system needs also to be totally reformed to respond to the requirements of the labour market, as the training programmes do not generally meet the existing job requirements. The main cause of this is that the training delivery system is supply but not demand - driven, this is reflected through the graduates from such training programmes who do not always end up in jobs for which they are trained for.

In order to respond to the requirements of the labour market, the information provided by LMIS must be more detailed so that it becomes gender sensitive (present information lists only general vacancies) and supplies training providers with the tools to design the curricula. In addition, the training delivery system must be revised to closely respond to labour market needs for skilled labour, it has to become demand-driven rather than remain supply-driven as it is presently.

Such a change will require training and retraining of decision-makers as well as trainers. In addition a competency-based modular training approach needs to be adapted.

#### Modules of Employable Skills<sup>27</sup>

Such competency-based modular methodology has been developed by the ILO and has been successfully applied in many countries. It is based on job, task and skills analysis and focuses on specific development phases and consists of the following:

- Training needs assessment.
- Identification of jobs within a given occupation.
- Identification of skills within a given job.
- Development of modular units for each step of work.

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<sup>27</sup> Modules of Employable Skills, MES Training: The Concept, Eckart Chrosciel and William Plumbridge, International Labour Organization, 1992.

- Trainee assessment, determining background, attitudes and abilities.
  - Training specifications, skills required to bridge the gap between those listed in the trainee's assessment and the modular units for a given job.
  - Development/acquiring from national/international sources training material in accordance with skill listed in modular units.
  - Selection and compilation of individual learning packages.
  - Training implementation, individualised entry and exit of programmes.
  - Performance test and certification.
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The introduction of the competency-based modular training concept would require staff training at all levels, decision-makers in TVET including directors of training institutions to become acquainted with the methodology. The same applies to curriculum and training material developers as well as instructors.

There is an identified need for qualified instructors throughout Yemen, therefore a comprehensive instructor training and upgrading programme is required. Such a programme will not only enhance the practical skills but also introduce the new modular methodology, as well as the basics for self-employment and business creation.

In view of the skill gaps the private sector is experiencing with its employees, it is recommended to:

1. Conduct a needs assessment toward developing and implementing a women in management training in the private sector in coordination with private sector firms in order to build the management and leadership capacity of women in the private sector
2. Develop management training programs for women in the private sector accompanied by line experience, mentors and role models at the highest levels, as well as admittance to formal and informal networks and channels of communication at work.
2. Secretarial, computer and accounting skills

As indicated in parts of this report on skill gap, skill shortages as well as the education and training versus occupational requirements, it is apparent that there is a need for initial and upgrading of training in secretarial, computer and accounting skills. There is a need for integrating programmes within the existing vocational centres/institutes in these three identified skill areas. Lack of adequate secretarial,

computer and accounting skills were identified by establishments in the private sector. This information has been made available by LMIS in its labour force demand survey.

It is recommended that the TEVT integrate programmes using the modular methodology for girls in selected training institutions nationwide. This must be, however, preceded by an instructor training/upgrading programme, using the modular methodology.

It is further recommended to include short courses for working women in order to upgrade their skills in basic computer and in the English language.

### 3. Travel, Hotel and Tourism

Yemen is a potential tourist destination. It offers many cultural and natural attractions. Due to the political situation, security issues and lack of infrastructure this sector has so far not been developed to its potential though the government is now actively involved in promoting this sector. Mountain and beach resorts are being developed and hotels are being built. One vocational training centre in Sana'a, is offering hotel management and tourism training programmes. Since there are already job vacancies in this sector, it is imperative to increase the number of vocational training institutes, which are able to offer such training programmes.

From the LMIS labour demand data, it is apparent that the travel, hotel and tourism sector will be a potential economic branch for female employment. Training should be expanded to include courses promoting self-employment of women in regards to becoming travel agents, setting-up their own travel agencies. Training curricula should be expanded to include courses in public relation and marketing specific to the tourism industry. Women would also need to be trained as tourist guides as Yemen possesses interesting historical sites.

In the hotel business, women would need to be trained for front-office positions. There will be a need for food and beverage managers, and assistants. Language training will be an essential component to be included in all programmes provided by the vocational training centres nationwide.

It is further recommended that the TEVT set up programmes for women at their existing centres for ticketing, reservation and English language skills. Travel agencies are willing to employ women for the above-mentioned skills.

### 4. Education sector

Given the low enrolment rate of girls in schools, both in urban and rural areas, it is essential to increase the number of female teachers especially in rural areas. In addition, female staff should be given incentives to work in rural areas where there are marked shortages of teachers. Also there is a need for the training of female teachers as instructors in training institutes.

## 5. Finance

Real estate establishments, banks and insurance companies were identified by LMIS, as potential recruiters of qualified female workers. In order to meet emerging labour demand, it is essential for TEVT centres/institutes to develop and/or acquire training material for those specific skill needs. Modular training programmes need to be developed and the modular methodology is to be applied.

## 6. Identified needs in rural areas:

By tradition, the agriculture sector plays a significant role in Yemen as it has a capacity of accommodating 50% of labour, providing subsistence for the rural population. In Yemen 70% of the population lives in rural areas. Women in rural areas suffer from high illiteracy rates 78% and high fertility rate, 8 children per female. The bulk of employment of females is concentrated in the agricultural sector, but few of these women working in this sector, are paid for their work. In order to enhance as well as increase gainful employment of women in agricultural activities, provision should be made that women are able to obtain micro-finance for setting up small projects in: establishing green houses (amongst which is the growing of mushrooms), food processing, honey making also for export purposes, livestock raising.

## 7. Self-employment and/or creation of small businesses

There has been a significant cut in public sector employment, which is part of the ongoing structural reform programme. The private sector is experiencing slow growth due to limited investment. Therefore with the limited public and private wage employment opportunities for women, there are greater opportunities for those who choose to get involved in income-generating activities, getting self-employed and setting-up small and micro-enterprises.

In view of this, a project that will create an enabling environment for income-generation, self-employment, small and medium enterprise development is recommended. It would rely on:

- The provision of business training and business advisory services on a sustainable basis.
- The development of a sustainable credit system to address the needs of women. (Presently, it is difficult in Yemen to become self-employed or start a business as there are limited credit facilities)
- The development of commercial relations between the banks and the target group, by establishing a guarantee fund/revolving loan funds or the likes.

This initiative could start in two or three TVET centres/institutions and over time be replicated in other vocational training centres/institutes. Two approaches the ILO has developed over the years would be introduced:

- a) The Community-Based Training (CBT) for self-employment and income-generation, it is based on the application of systems approach to design, organize and implement technical and entrepreneurial skills training.

The CBT approach provides the necessary methodology for development capacities of the national, local employment, and training organizations as well as initiates working arrangements with other support organizations (governmental, NGOs, private sector, etc.).

One of the objectives of the CBT is to provide the right type and amount of training which will enable the economic (small business) activity. The scope and level of training to be provided take into consideration not only the training needs of each individual, but also reflect the socio-economic setting at a given locality and vary according to prevailing conditions and opportunities. Therefore, the training programmes are normally offered in a modular form and are designed as self-contained learning units for each of the identified (self-) employment and income-generating skills.

- b) Start Your Business (SYB) and Improve Your Business to provide training for small enterprises and micro-business (including self-employment).

The primary objective of the SYB/IYB programmes is to train people to operate their own businesses so that they can improve profitability and viability. To meet this objective, both programmes aim to develop awareness by course participants of their strengths and how, through training, they can improve on these strengths and, at the same time eliminate any weakness they might have that would hinder their success in business.

The SYB and IYB training introduces people to small and micro-business techniques, which are common to a vast majority of small businesses. The ILO has adapted the principles to be used for unemployed people, who have certain skills and are motivated to open their business.

The majority of SYB and IYB trainees have little or inadequate formal education and are generally unaware of the basic principles of running a business. It is for this reason that the programmes rely heavily on counseling to ensure, right at the start, that trainees have a reasonable chance of success upon completing their training to run their own business.

The training materials have been developed by the ILO and extensively field-tested and verified in many projects. The material in English has been adapted and translated into more than 20 languages, including Arabic, for use in a wide variety of countries.

Whereas the CBT would include skills training/upgrading, SYB and IYB normally builds on the skills the participant already possesses.

## 8. Handicraft Centre with Business Incubators

There are many institutions that offer ad hoc training courses to women in handicrafts, such as sewing, embroidery, and weaving. The duration of the courses is from one to three months and minimal fees are charged. The women who join such courses receive very basic skills training, however not enough to master a trade. The handicrafts that these women produce are poor in quality and not attractive. There are no handicraft centres providing women with systematic skills training for producing the products, which would sell on the market.

It is therefore recommended, to set-up a handicraft training centre in Yemen, which caters particularly for women. This project should be a pilot project, to be implemented by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (MOSAL) in cooperation with the Social Fund for Development. It could eventually be replicated nationwide, under the auspices of the Ministry of Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT).

This handicraft project would be based on the following:

- The handicraft skills development component
- Self-employment promotion, training and related assistance through an orientation training module
- Handicraft self-employment training
- Handicraft business incubator in order to facilitate business start-up.

Such a handicraft training centre, to be established in Yemen, would offer all handicraft development for women as indicated above.

The handicrafts training component would utilize ILO's Modules of Employable Skills approach (MES), by which training can be provided more effectively and time efficient. Thus the centre will offer curricula of a maximum of one year. The training in selected handicrafts sub-sectors will be demand-driven and employment/self-employment -oriented. The use of the modular training methodology will enable a flexible entry and exit of programmes.

Core skills and lifelong learning modules, as well as design and marketing skills will be developed and integrated into regular handicraft skills training courses. Multimedia training tools will also be incorporated into the programmes.

Furthermore, within the regular curricula, short self-employment orientation training will be included for the female trainees. This orientation training is to raise awareness as well as advocate self-employment options.

Comprehensive self-employment training will be provided at the end of skills training for trainees wishing to opt for self-employment or the establishment of handicraft micro-enterprise.

An innovative approach targeted by the proposed project is the establishment of a pilot handicraft business incubator. It is also referred to, as "a hotel for businesses" and is to provide the handicraft centres graduates as well as other artisans with opportunities to start their own business. In this system, graduates and other artisans

who want to go for self-employment and/or establish micro-enterprises would rent facilities such as workshop space, equipment for office services. The new entrepreneurs would also be able to benefit from a range of professional services provided by a team of qualified trainers from the centre as well as consultants hired on a fee basis. The technical services provided would encompass small business management, product design, quality control, marketing; and specific on-the-job training and/or advice related to handicraft skills.

For the graduates and artisans, the advantage of such an incubator would be to minimize their initial investment in premises and equipment by using common facilities as well as to benefit from the above-mentioned technical services. In principle, the participants or also referred to as tenants would not stay permanently in the incubator so as to leave the place for newcomers.

An important challenge to incubator management would be to sensitize the entrepreneur to the fact that the incubator is a business rather than a public assistance programme. Thus the business incubator itself should serve as a model for its participants or tenants to become self-sufficient. Means to ensure the financial sustainability of the incubator scheme would be among others charging rent for the workspaces and equipment. Technical services would be offered on a fee basis. In addition enterprises, which stay longer the set time, would pay higher rates for rent and technical services fees.

The selection of viable handicraft sub-sectors for which there is product demand needs to be chosen for Yemen. To this effect, it is recommended that a feasibility study to identify these sub-sectors must be undertaken. Handicrafts sub-sector of interest in Yemen could for example be ceramics, weaving, embroidery, textile design, glass-making, and basketry as well as wood, metal and brass products.

In the feasibility study appropriate market links and marketing strategies for handicraft products of the project will be incorporated. Quality controls and standardization of products will also need to be well integrated as components of such an initiative. One of the components of the study will be to identify target market niches (tourist, expat, export, Yemeni urban middle classes, etc.)

Training of Trainers: Training of Yemeni instructors for handicrafts skills could be undertaken by Jordanian instructors, in Jordan where such a centre is successfully in operation. The Salt Handicraft Centre initially supported through an ILO project, has both the qualified trainers using the recommended ILO methodology, and has the capacity to carry out such training of trainers. It should be noted, that these trainers have been trained in modular methodology by ILO consultants and have taken part in specialized handicrafts training in Italy, Morocco, and Syria.

Learning material for the different handicraft areas will be procured from outside sources, i.e. there are two already existing modules in the Arabic language in Jordan in both weaving and ceramics. Others will be identified and procured, some from former ILO projects in Egypt, Russia, etc. It should be noted that all the material for “Start Your Business” (SYB) is available in Arabic.

## 9. The role of LMIS

Access to employment requires that job seekers possess skills, which are “employable” in the labour market. An efficient employment service helps building the bridge of skills required by enterprises and those produced by the training providers. Counselling, guidance and placement activities, but also monitoring market occupational needs, are the responsibilities of the employment offices. It would contain a constant feedback process that increases the matching between policies and the dynamic labour market. This will also facilitate the adjustment of the labour market policies to the economic environment.

To this effect, LMIS and its network of government employment offices should play a key role in ensuring linkages with the labour market. It is suggested that LMIS be extended another phase in order to strengthen the governorates employment services as well as providing training to the gender focal points within these employment offices.

LMIS and the employment offices should collect information on micro-credit providers and set up a data-base for the use of women who opt for self-employment as an alternative to wage employment.

It is recommended that LMIS in close collaboration with the CSO provide national policy-makers and planners with periodic (every 6 months or annual) reports on situation and trends in the labour market in order to build sound strategies and policies to influence the evolution of employment levels and patterns to improve the quality, allocation, and use of human resources of the country.

This information needs to be sex disaggregated, especially data on skill gaps, training requirements, occupational needs of and vacancies in establishments in order to analyze trends for women.

LMIS should also make available to decision-makers, special ad-hoc reports on particular issues and/or problems on the labour market.

For educational, vocational training planners and institutions LMIS should produce occupational monographs or handbooks for both men and women. This occupational information is based on regular observation and systematic analysis of the performance and changing requirements of the employment market and will help vocational training institutions to upgrade their curricula to include new training needs.

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# Annex I

List of persons met during the mission in Yemen:

Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (MOSAL)

His Excellency Abdel Karim Al Arhabi	Minister of MOSAL
Mr. Mohamed Mukbel Al-Faisali	Deputy Minister of MOSAL
Mrs. Maha Ghaleb	Director General for Women

Ministry of Technical Education and Vocational Training

His Excellency Professor Ali Mansoor Bin Sefa'a	Minister of TEVT
Mrs. Wafa Awad	Director General for Women
Engineer Gamil Redha	Project Coordinator for Strengthening Priority Vocational
Areas of Training (SPAVT) in coordination with the European Mission	

Ministry of Planning & International Cooperation

Mr. Yahya Y. al-Mutawakel Reduction up & Monitoring	Advisor, Head of Poverty Strategy Follow Unit
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Central Statistical Organization (CSO)

Dr. Jamal Al-Wahishi	Deputy Minister
Mrs. Tahani Al-Khaba	Director of Gender Statistics
Mr. Ali Fadel Surveys	Executive Director of LMIS

Social Fund for Development

His Excellency Abdel Karim Al Arhabi	Managing Director
Mr. Kais Ali Aliriani Enterprise Unit	Head of Small & Micro Development
Mrs. Afrah A. Al-Ahmadi Protection	Head of Health & Social Unit

Mrs. Amat Al-Walli Sharkee	Training Unit Manager
Mrs. Raja Al-Aghbari	Education Unit Sub-Director
<u>University of Sana'a</u>	
Mr. Ahmed M. Al-Kibsi Affairs	Vice President for Academic
<u>United Nations Development Programme</u>	
Mrs. Randa Aboul-Hosn Representative	Assistant                      Resident
Mr. Abdo Seif	Programme Officer Poverty Alleviation Team
<u>The World Bank Office in Sana'a</u>	
Mrs. Samra Shaibani	Senior Communication Officer
<u>Oxfam</u>	
Mrs. Rajni Khanna	Country Programme Manager
<u>German Technical Cooperation GTZ</u>	
Mr. Gold	Director
Mr. Yousif Toma Sector	Programme Manager Employment Oriented Private Development Programme
Mr. Ghassan Nasser Sector	Programme Officer Employment Oriented Private Development Programme
Mrs. Sabine Wenz	Principal Adviser Equal Chances-Women in Development
<u>Private Sector Companies</u>	
Mr. Mohammed Abdo Saeed the <i>Anam &amp; co</i>	Regional Manager & Member of Board, of <i>Hayel Saeed Ltd</i>
Mr. Moneer Al-Dahan	Administration Manager <i>Yemen hunt Oil Company</i>

Mr. Najib Abdul Karim Abdul Illah	Human Resources Manager <i>Spacotel Yemen</i>
Mr. Talaat Naguib	Human Resources Manager <i>Schlumberger Yemen</i>
Mr. Ahmed Sadawi	Operation Manager <i>Trans Arab Trading Company TATCO</i>
Mr. Saeed Mohamed Al-Masabeli	Chief Instructor <i>Yemen Airways</i>
Mr. Abdo Daifalla Saleh	Training Manager <i>Yemen Airways</i>
Mr. Hussan Al-Aghbari	Manager of <i>Saudi Airways</i>
 <u><i>Microfinance Institutions</i></u>	
Mr. Ahmed Al-Zamzani Foundation	Executive Director National Microfinance
Mr. Musaddaq Ali Al-Saruri Department Enterprise Development	Planning & Research Head, Small Fund
Mr. Hamid Al-Imrani	Manager Azal, Sana'a Microfinance Programme
 <u><i>Women National Committee</i></u>	
Mrs. Rashida Al-Hamdani	Chairwoman
Mrs. Huria Mahshour	Vice-chairwoman
 <u><i>Women's Development Studies</i></u>	
Dr. Husnia Al-Kadri	Chairwoman
 <u><i>NGO</i></u> <i>Women Economic Power Empowerment Association</i>	
Dr. Fathia Bahran Dr. Mahassen Al-Munabari Manager	Chairwoman Businesswomen Group,

Chamber of Commerce & Industry

Mr. Khaled A.J. Afif  
of  
General Manager  
Federation of Yemen Chambers  
Commerce and Industry

Mr. Abdulla A.A. Noman  
Industry  
Executive Director  
Chamber of Commerce &

Mr. Mahfoodh S. Shammakh  
Industry  
Chairman of the Board  
Chamber of Commerce &

Labour Market Information System

Mr. Ghazi Abdurab  
Director

Mr. Kamal Ali Ahmed Al Ezabi  
Mr. Ramzi Najeeb Al-Mansoob  
Mr. Abdul Rahman Al-Maweri  
Mr. Mohammed Mokred Naji  
Programmer  
Programmer  
Programmer  
Programmer

Mr. Abdullah Mohammed Naji  
Mr. Ahmed Naser  
Mr. Mohamed Al-Shami  
Mr. Al Tayeb Mohamed Al-Tayeb  
Mr. Aref Ali Esa  
Statistician  
Statistician  
Statistical Assistant  
Data Entry Operator  
Data Entry Operator

Mr. Youssef Abdel Raheem Al-Bana  
Mr. Riad Al Safi  
Ms. Shada Al Wehishi  
Ms. Ibtisam  
Mr. Rashad Ghanem  
Mr. Nabeel Ali Haider  
Mr. Nabeel Mohammed Saeed  
Ms. Kafeah Al-Suhili  
Accountant  
Human Resources Affairs  
Secretary  
Secretary  
Operator  
Driver  
Guard  
Services