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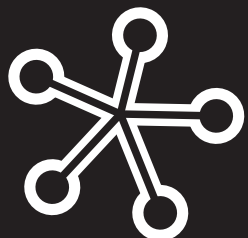
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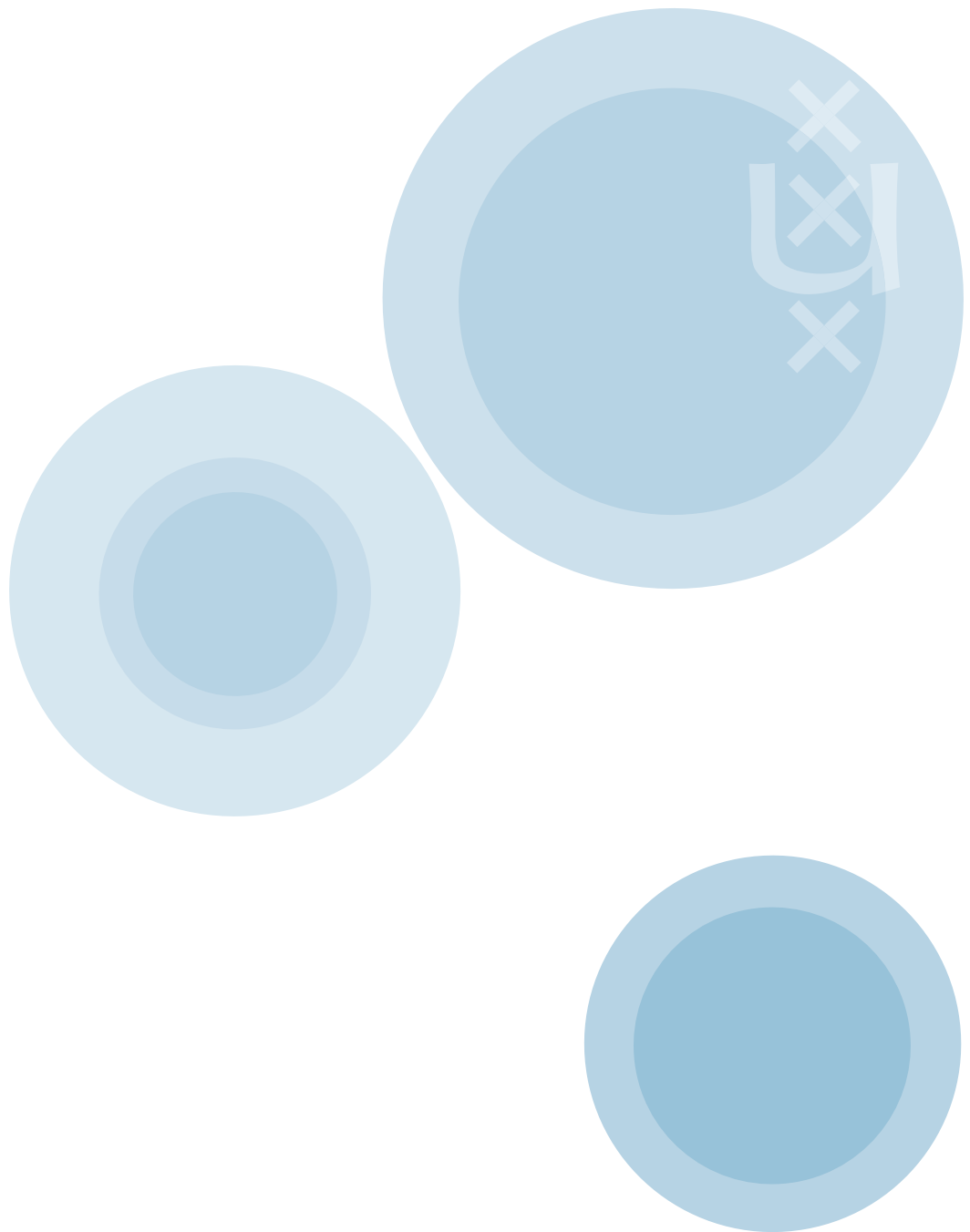
An overview of women's work and employment in Angola

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An overview of women's work and employment in Angola

**Decisions for Life MDG3 Project
Country Report no. 2**

REVISED EDITION

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WP 09/78

Table of contents

MANAGEMENT SUMMARY.....	7
1. INTRODUCTION: THE DECISIONS FOR LIFE PROJECT.....	11
2. GENDER ANALYSIS REGARDING WORK AND EMPLOYMENT	13
2.1. Introduction: the general picture	13
2.1.1. <i>History</i>	13
2.1.2. <i>Governance</i>	15
2.1.3. <i>Prospects</i>	17
2.2. Communication	19
2.3. The sectoral labour market structure	20
2.4. Legislation and labour relations	22
2.4.1. <i>Legislation</i>	22
2.4.2. <i>Labour relations</i>	24
2.5. Minimum wage and poverty	27
2.5.1. <i>The statutory minimum wage</i>	27
2.5.2. <i>Poverty</i>	28
2.6. Demographics and female labour force	31
2.6.1. <i>Population and fertility</i>	31
2.6.2. <i>HIV/AIDS</i>	32
2.6.3. <i>Women's labour market share</i>	34
2.6.4. <i>Agriculture</i>	35
2.6.5. <i>Manufacturing</i>	36
2.6.6. <i>Commerce</i>	37
2.6.7. <i>Services</i>	37
2.6.8. <i>Government</i>	37
2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force	38
2.7.1. <i>Literacy</i>	38
2.7.2. <i>Education of girls and young women</i>	39
2.7.3. <i>Female skill levels</i>	40
2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group	41
2.8.1. <i>Wages</i>	41
2.8.2. <i>Working conditions</i>	41
3. BASIC INFORMATION FOR WAGEINDICATOR QUESTIONNAIRE	43
3.1. Introduction	43
3.2. List of trade unions	43
3.3. List of educational categories and ISCED levels	46
3.4. List of regions	47
3.5. Lists of ethnic groups and languages	51
3.5.1. <i>Ethnic groups</i>	51
3.5.2. <i>Languages</i>	51

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REFERENCES.....	53
WHAT IS WAGEINDICATOR?	57
AIAS WORKING PAPERS.....	59
INFORMATION ABOUT AIAS	65

Management summary

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

History (2.1.1). After Angola gained independence from Portugal in 1975, a civil war seriously frustrated the country's development. After in 2002 the war ended, the MPLA governed as the ruling party, with a large parliamentary majority. Recently Angola intensified the exploitation of its rich natural resources, notably its large oil and natural gas deposits. Yet, its GDP growth pattern remains volatile. Unless recent strong economic growth, over half of the population has to make ends meet with less than USD 1 a day.

Governance (2.1.2). Angola for the last seven years has had a rather stable political record. The government has committed itself to the MDG3 goals, but gender equality and women's empowerment have not yet been given high priority. In practice the relationship between NGOs and government is full of tensions. Angola's human rights record remains poor; corruption continues to be widespread.

Prospects (2.1.3). Because of exhaustion of oil reserves, oil revenue is likely to peak between 2011 and 2013. The diversification process the government embarked upon in order to counteract decreasing oil revenues may be threatened by low oil prices.

Communication (2.2). In 2007, 3.3 million cell phones are already in use, one to each five Angolans. Internet coverage is still low, with in 2007 about 3% of the population being Internet users. Radio is the medium with the highest coverage. Government controls the only news agency, the only daily paper and the national radio station, whereas the state monopoly on TV broadcasting ended in 2006.

The sectoral labour market structure (2.3). In 2000-01, only about 14% of the 15-64 of age economically active worked in the formal sector, as entrepreneurs and wage earners, of which about 23% women. Six out of seven were in the informal sector, of which 55-57% women. We calculated that in 2007 the formal sector had expanded to 970,000, of which over half in civil service and construction.

Legislation (2.4.1). Angola has ratified the core ILO Labour Conventions, and its laws are non-discriminatory. The General Labour Law lays down rights to paid maternity leave, equal pay, limited working hours, rest periods, etc. A major weakness, yet, is compliance.

Labour relations (2.4.2). 2008 figures may imply an overall 26-28% union density in the formal sector; female union density can be estimated at about 20%. Three union confederations are in place; UNTA-CS and CGSILA are ITUC affiliates. Government influence on collective bargaining seems quite large. The right to strike is strictly regulated.

The statutory minimum wage (2.5.1). A basic national minimum wage exists, with higher rates for the transport, service and manufacturing sectors and for the mining industry, varying from 42 to 51% of the average wage of the formal sector. It remains rather unclear how the yearly uplifts are prepared, communicated and effected.

Poverty (2.5.2). Angolan researchers maintained that in 2007 two in three of their compatriots lived on USD 2 or less a day. Income inequality is extremely high. Poverty distribution is also heavily gendered, with female-headed households forming the majority of the very poor households. In 2006, Angola ranked 157th on the human development index (HDI), 50 places below its GDP per capita rank.

Population and fertility (2.6.1). Till 2002, birth registration in Angola was mostly lacking, and still population statistics are unreliable. Yet, it is clear that the population growth rate is quite high (average 2.7% in 2001-08), as are the total fertility rate (6.1%) and the adolescent fertility rate (165 per 1,000).

HIV/AIDS (2.6.2). The Angolan HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is, with 2.5% (2005), comparatively low. Yet, it may quickly rise as most risk factors are widespread, like the dependent situation of many adolescent girls and young women. Preventive and therapeutic services are still in their infancy.

Women's labour market share (2.6.3). Though difficult to calculate, the overall labour participation rate of the 15-64 of age (LPR or EPOP) is low and will not exceed 68%, with that of females a few %-points higher. For 2007, women's share in the formal sector can be estimated at about 28%, or nearly 270,000 women. About one quarter of them can be found in commerce and services.

Agriculture (2.6.4). Agriculture provides employment and income for 60-70% of the Angolan population. Many women working in agriculture make extremely long hours. Only a small share is involved in commercial agriculture, of which about a quarter women.

Manufacturing (2.6.5). Unless recent growth of small and medium-sized manufacturing enterprises, Angola has a very small manufacturing sector.

Commerce (2.6.6). More than four of five Angolan women working in commerce does so informally. Recently, retailing shows a rapid growth, with perspectives for female wage employment.

Services (2.6.7). Recently the Angolan government planned to intensify stimulating commercial services, notably tourism and the financial sector. Though investors complain about shortages of skilled employees, this may open up employment opportunities for young women.

Government (2.6.8). Government expenditure focuses especially on investments in infrastructure, and building up technical and construction departments. Under these conditions, the share of women in civil service may not exceed 40%, though larger spending on education and health care may open up more opportunities for women.

Literacy (2.7.1). In the early 2000s, average literacy rates among (young) women were 54-63%, that is about 75% the rates of men. Among the lowest socio-economic groups, only a minority of women is literate.

Education of girls and young women (2.7.2). Statistics on school enrollment in education are rather outdated, but suggest that only about half of all Angolan girls aged 6-11 go to primary school: comparatively a very low share. Especially secondary education shows a wide gap in girls' participation compared to boys'. There is clearly a need for flexible programs to make up for missed years of schooling of in particular young women.

Female skill levels (2.7.3). In 2001-02, about 24,000 of Angolan female employees were highly skilled and 115,000 skilled. We estimate the current size of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE for Angola at about 70,000 young women in wage employment, while another 25,000 will enter into such employment in the next five years.

Wages (2.8.1). Any reliable wage information on the Angolan formal sector is lacking, thus emphasizing the importance of the WageIndicator for this country.

Working conditions (2.8.2). Likewise, very little is available in writing on working conditions in Angola.

1. Introduction: The Decisions for Life project

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

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

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

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

3). References can be found in Chapter 4; Chapter 5 gives more insight in the WageIndicator.

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

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

2. Gender analysis regarding work and employment

2.1. Introduction: the general picture

2.1.1. History

Angola is rebuilding the country after the end of a 27-year civil war in 2002. Fighting between the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (Movimento Popular de Libertacao de Angola, MPLA), led by José Eduardo dos Santos, and the rebel National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), the latter supported by the Rhodesian and South Africa apartheid regimes and led by Jonas Savimbi, followed independence from Portugal in 1975. Peace seemed imminent in the early 1990s, with the end of the cold war and the collapse of the South African apartheid system. Angola entered into a series of inter-related transitions: from war to peace; from a one-party regime to a pluralist system of governance; from humanitarian crisis to social and economic recovery; and from a state-dominated economy to one based on private capital (UN System 2002). In 1992 the country witnessed national elections, but since UNITA rejected the election results fighting picked up again by 1996, plunging the country into a new humanitarian crisis. Finally, Savimbi's death in 2002 ended UNITA's insurgency and strengthened the MPLA's hold on power.

Up to one and a half million lives may have been lost - and over four million people, the *deslocados*, displaced - in the quarter century of fighting. By the end of the war, in February 2002, more than two million Angolans were on the brink of starvation, and at least three million were receiving direct humanitarian assistance (FAO figures, cited in Foley 2007). Since then, immense post-conflict efforts have been ongoing, including the demobilisation, disarmament, and re-integration of ex-combatants; the repatriation, return and reintegration of millions of internally displaced persons and 450,000 refugees returning from abroad, as well as the rehabilitation and reconstruction of land and essential infrastructure. The MPLA has continued as the ruling party under the leadership of President Dos Santos, while UNITA has transformed into a political opposition party. In September 2008, Angola's 8.3 million registered voters went to the ballot box for legislative elections for the first time in 16 years. MPLA won a landslide victory with 81% of the vote, a result that was accepted by UNITA. Presidential elections, earlier announced for 2009, have been postponed

to 2010. Under rather stable political conditions, Angola has intensified the exploitation of its rich national resources, like its large oil and natural gas deposits, diamonds, gold, extensive forests, and Atlantic fisheries. The country is the second largest oil producer in sub-Saharan Africa, in 2008 as a stable supplier challenging the no. 1 position of Nigeria, and it is the world's fourth largest producer of rough diamonds (ANIP 2007, 2008; Embassy 2008).

After a negative average yearly growth of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) of 2.0% in the 1987-1997 decade, GDP per person employed in 1998-2001 grew slowly with respectively 3.6%, 0.8%, 0.3% and 0.2%, yearly. In the early 2000s, the country's growth pattern was quite volatile, with 12.2% growth of GDP per person employed in 2002, 0.8% fall in 2003, and 8.5% growth in 2004. Then, growth rates per person employed speeded up, to 18.1% in 2005, 14.8% in 2006, 19.6% in 2007 and, though slowing down, still 7.8% growth in 2008. As a result, the average GDP growth per person for 2000-06 of Angola was 8.8%, speeding up to an average 11.3% for 2003-2008 (*MDG Indicator 1.4*, derived from UN MDG Indicators).

In this last decade, according to the World Bank agriculture grew by an annual average of over 12%, manufacturing by nearly 16%, but services by only 3%. Growth rates speeded up to some of the fastest in the world. Combined with a heavily damaged infrastructure, including congested ports and bad roads, the high growth rates most recently led to extreme high price levels. In early 2009, a London-based consultancy found the Luanda capital to be the world's most expensive place for foreigners, followed by Tokyo; a single room in a 2-star Luanda hotel costs as much as USD 300 a night (Embassy 2009). The inflow of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is growing rapidly too, amounting USD 2.5 billion in 2007. GDP growth is heavily export-led, with exports accounting for about 70% of GDP. Of course, the rising oil prices were a major factor here: in the 2000s the export price index (2000 = 100) more than doubled, to 205 in 2007. In that year the value of exports grew with over 22% to USD 39 billion, of which USD 36.4 billion (93%) crude oil exports. Besides, since 2004 the government has taken out an estimated USD 8 - 12 billion in loans from China, exchanging guarantees of oil supply for reconstruction work (Currently, Angola is supplying 15% of China's oil import needs – Corkin 2009). Consumer price inflation, still over 300% in 2000, was brought down to under 13% in 2006-08. Since 2000 deposits in Angola's banks have risen by 1,300%, reaching USD 7.7 billion at the end of 2007, suggesting rising confidence in the Angolan kwanza (AKZ) as well as in the domestic banking sector. By April 2009, Angola's foreign reserves had almost doubled since December 2007, to more than USD 19 billion (World Bank 2008b, 2008c; Corkin 2009). Per capita GDP exploded to (PPP) USD 4,434 in 2006, bringing the country to the 107th rank in the world. By gender, the per capita

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earned income was calculated at USD 5,504 for men and USD 3,393 for women (UNDP 2008), bringing the 2006 ratio of the average female to male income to a quite low 0.62.

Angola presents a shocking paradox. The country still is one of the lowest ranked countries on the African continent in terms of the Human Development Index (HDI) of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), expressing life expectancy, education and per capita income. Half of its food is imported, and with only one small oil refinery, the country imports almost all its petrol. Still over half of the population has to make ends meet with an income (PPP corrected) below USD 1 a day. The societal challenges are enormous. A UNDP document (2006, 12) analyses, “In spite of its incredible wealth in oil, diamonds and water resources, its potential in agriculture, and its remarkable levels of economic growth, Angola is plagued by notable insufficiencies in terms of its capacity for institutional reform and long term development planning. This is a country in desperate need to improve its public management systems and basic service delivery at all levels and expand its ability to curb corruption and increase accountability (...)”.

In producing this report we seriously had to cope with the deplorable state of Angolan statistics; this is definitely true as it concerns social indicators related to the Millennium Development Goals. Such statistics are mostly outdated or simply not existing. Gathering data by the National Institute for Statistics (INE) remains in its infancy. Trade, industrial, demographic and employment data are nearly fully missing. The latest population census was held in 1983; a new census, on a sample basis, has been announced for 2010. Though quite understandable projected against Angola's past, the reader of this report has to keep in mind the Angolan situation concerning available statistics. There is an urgent need for improvement. As a recent report concludes, “Research and studies are required, for example, to identify the specific conditions of female-headed households, the barriers and constraints to women's access to the labour market and productive resources, and for participation in decision-making” (ADB/ADF 2008, 25).

2.1.2. Governance

From February 2004 on, the government of Angola officially based its poverty reduction strategy on the *Estratégia de Combate à Pobreza* (ECP, National Strategy to Combat Poverty). The overall objective of the ECP, revised in September 2005, was to consolidate peace and national unity by improving the living conditions of the Angolan people and encouraging the most vulnerable groups to actively participate in the economic and social development process. The ECP addressed reconstruction and development needs in the context of reaching the Millennium Development Goals, and identified gender equality and improvement

of women's position in society as national targets (Govt of Angola 2003). This has to be projected against recent war conditions under which, according to professor Marzia Grassi, an Italian expert, "women were forced to scrape a living, fighting for their own survival and that of their children while their men were at the battle front, from which many of them never returned" (NN 2007).

The Angolan government has committed itself to the MDG3 goals. Specific responsibilities were defined in the so-called national gender machinery. Already in 1997 the Secretariat of State was upgraded to a fully-fledged Ministry for Women's Affairs and Women's Promotion (MINFAMU), that was to act as a Gender Focal Point Ministry. In order to strengthen MINFAMU, the Multi-sectoral Gender Coordinating Council (MGCC) was set up in 1999 as a ministerial consultation mechanism on gender issues. However, in the 2000s the infrastructure for efforts towards gender equality and women's empowerment seems to have been weakened. Various evaluation reports conclude to the marginalisation of MINFAMU (a.o. Sørvald *et al* 2006, 9-12). A recent report states, "The efforts made by the GoA (Government of Angola, UvA) to improve gender equality and women's empowerment as part of the poverty reduction strategy have not been given high priority" (ADB/ADF 2008, 23). Yet, more promising developments are on the way as well. Due to the 2008 elections, 37% of the newly-elected members of parliament are women, instead of the former 12%. This influx of women MPs is an important development, as women have traditionally been side-lined in Angolan politics (website EISA; Corkin 2009). The position of the Women Parliamentarian Group (WPG), closely linked to the national gender machinery and embracing all 13 political parties, may well be strengthened. Recently Ana Marian de Oliveira from the ruling MPLA parliamentary bench stated that the group of women MPs tries to answer the concerns of gender turned to social and family stability as well as security of the physical integrity of woman (NN 2009).

In the 1990s, a substantial number of civil society organisations emerged: professional associations representing lawyers, economists, architects and the like, domestic NGOs –currently over 300!– participating in humanitarian relief, recovery and development activities, and advocacy organizations engaged in campaigns on issues such as the environment, women's rights and landmines (UN System 2002). The Angolan civil society is also characterized by the presence of a relatively high number of international donors, according to the US Dept of State (2007) over 100. The government established guidelines for cooperating with these international NGOs in *Strategic framework: Angola 2003-2005*. The priorities were defined as support to national and regional security, democracy and good governance, and resource management to promote poverty eradication and sustainable social and economic development: formally closely connected with

the mandate of notably the UN system in Angola, but in practice the relationship between NGOs and government is full of tensions (Sørvald *et al* 2006, 14; Foley 2007, 15-6).

Over 2008, the US Dept of State reported that the Angolan government's human rights record remained poor. The list of human rights abuses was long and included the abridgement of citizens' right to elect officials at all levels; unlawful killings by police, military, and private security forces; security force torture, beatings, and rape; harsh prison conditions; arbitrary arrest and detention; official corruption and impunity; judicial inefficiency and lack of independence; lengthy pretrial detention; lack of due process; restrictions on freedom of speech, press, assembly, and association; forced evictions without compensation; and discrimination, violence, and abuse perpetrated against women and children (US Dept of State 2009a). The latter practices seem to institutionalize problems of violence that have been especially serious in communities directly affected by the civil war, including sexual assault and rape (UN System 2002, 41). Over 2008, Amnesty International (USA 2008) reports that human rights defenders and organizations faced increasing intimidation and threats in a climate of restricted freedom of expression. Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index recently ranked Angola 142nd of 163 countries surveyed, also indicating that corruption continues to be widespread. According to among others the OECD and the World Bank (2006), although there have been some improvements, controls over public finances remain notoriously lax, with the government maintaining off-budget financing through the national oil company Sonangol, in violation of Angola's own financial legislation. A similar situation with the Endiama national diamond firm suggests a continuous lack of public oversight over billions of revenues from natural resources – feeding suspicions that high government ranks maintain practices of sharing their own interests with those of multinational oil and diamond firms.

2.1.3. Prospects

IMF and World Bank have repeatedly stressed that Angola's main socioeconomic challenges are to ease its deeply entrenched poverty and promote non-oil private sector growth, though the IMF calls it a risk that “the authorities face significant political pressures to deliver a “peace dividend” to the public in the form of improved social services and better infrastructure” (IMF 2007, 6). In 2007, on a World Bank “Angola day” one of the Bank's analysts warned for “the paradox of plenty”, for the tendency of oil-rich countries to create centralized bureaucracies to control oil profits, and with those corruption, waste, and vulnerability. Some of the main messages of the underlying World Bank report were that Angola needs to conclude the transition to a market economy; that a clear strategy to manage the country's growing mineral wealth must

be defined, and that the quality and supply of public services to the poor must improve (Carneiro 2007). Moreover, time is running out: because of exhaustion of reserves, oil revenue will most likely peak at some point between 2011 and 2013 and will decline thereafter (Kyle 2007, 19-20).

On top of this comes the impact of the current global crisis. In the first round, this impact seemed to remain rather marginal. In March 2009, another World Bank economist (2009a) divided the impact of the crisis on Angola into three parts. First, the impact on the financial sector would be marginal, due to the country's relative lack of financial integration with international markets. Second, the impact on inflation would be favourable due to the decline in import prices. Third, however, a large negative impact on the real economy would have to be expected as crude oil prices decline to low levels. The country's dependence on oil, accounting for about 50% of GDP, 85% of exports and 83% of government revenue in 2008, has made its economic and social prospects extremely vulnerable to fluctuating oil prices – and these prices are notorious for their volatility. World Bank (2009b) calculations depart from the fact that OPEC, with Angola is a fully-fledged member since 1 January 2008, agreed to a 13% production cut for Angola. If in 2009 the oil sector shrinks by 13% (assuming oil prices remain at USD 55 per barrel), the non-oil sector would need to grow at around 22% in order for total GDP to stay flat. As the non-oil sector depends strongly on public expenditures, budget adjustments are likely to cause a slowdown of the non-oil sector, in turn resulting in a fall in GDP in 2009 of about 8% in nominal terms. The World Bank notes that large cuts in growth-enhancing investment projects will hurt the economic diversification process the government has embarked upon, earlier projected to create 320,000 new jobs in 2009. A drop in income will also weaken the position of the Angolan government to pick and choose investment partners for its industrial development. And, most important, cuts in social expenditure will disproportionately hurt the poor (World Bank 2009b, 2009c). We can add that recently Sonangol is following a policy of investor diversification in order to mitigate the risks of relying on a handful of large oil multinationals or influential trading partners, including China. As regards attracting financing, Angola is growingly embarking on loans from the EU, Canada and Brazil (Embassy 2008; Corkin 2009).

Since May 2009, nearly all leading economists and international institutions have been growingly pessimistic about the prospects of developing countries in the light of the crisis. A World Bank research note as of July 2009 clearly states: “The global economic crisis is exposing households in virtually all developing countries to increased risk of poverty and hardship”, adding “While in the short-run, the non-poor may be the most affected by the crisis, experience from past economic and financial crises suggests that the adverse

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impacts are likely to spread in the medium-term to poor households.” The note ranks Angola among the 40 or so developing countries with high exposure to the poverty effects of the crisis; moreover, according to the World Bank experts the country has little room ability additional funding domestically and from abroad without jeopardizing macroeconomic stability or debt sustainability (Cord *et al* 2009).

2.2. Communication

Adequate communication facilities are absolutely essential for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. One has to be aware that a large part of Angola’s infrastructure has been damaged or remained underdeveloped because of the civil war. Fixed telephone lines are scant—about 98,000 in 2006. Until 2005 state-owned Angola Telecom had a monopoly for the fixed-line network; demand outstripped capacity, prices were high, and services poor. A travel guide (World Travel) on the Internet recently maintained that “Domestic and international telecommunications services are unreliable with connections frequently lost”, suggesting that this also applies to the mobile phone network. State-owned Angola Telecom started cell phone services back in 1993. In 2008 it had to privatize Movitel, its mobile phone service subsidiary, through the sales of 80% of its shares to China’s ZTE. Somewhat earlier, Movitel announced to have 2 million customers (ANIP Bulletins 5/47, 5/42). Unitel, a private-owned cell phone service provider, began operations in 2001, and is now covering all main cities and key roads by GSM 900. Already in 2007, 3.3 million cell phones were in use, one to each five Angolans (CIA World Factbook). Internet coverage is low but rapidly growing, from 170,000 Internet users in 2005 to 498,000 in 2007, 3% of the population (website InternetWorld Stats). In 2008, the country had only 3,562 internet hosts (CIA Factbook).

A commercial provider recently stated that growth in the internet sector is being held back by monopolistic pricing of international bandwidth, but that this is expected to change with the arrival of new fibre optic submarine cables reaching the country from 2009. According to the US Dept of State (2009a), individuals and groups could engage in the peaceful expression of views via the internet, including by e-mail; however, there have been reports that the government monitored internet chat rooms and websites and at times pressed for the removal of so-called defamatory material from websites. According to the same source, availability of internet service and internet cafes increased during 2008, though the high cost of

internet service still put it beyond the reach of most citizens.

The constitution and law of Angola provide for freedom of speech and of the press. However, government regulations and minimal independent media outside of the capital Luanda have limited these rights in practice. The press, television and radio were nationalized in 1976. Government controls the only news agency (ANGOP), the only daily paper (Jornal de Angola), the national radio station (Radio Nacional de Angola, RNA), and till 2006 also controlled the national television network (Televisao Popular de Angola, TPA). In November 2006, Human Rights Watch gave a cautious welcome to some aspects of a new Press Law which ended the state's monopoly over television broadcasting and created a public broadcasting service (Foley 2007, 14). There is a small independent press segment, including some weeklies, a local television station, a private TV channel, and some local radio stations. Radio is by far the most important medium of mass communication. Unfortunately, only older figures indicate its coverage. A 1996 survey indicated that 51% of urban households and 22% of rural households had radio sets, giving a national coverage of 33% while much larger numbers of households had and have access to radio through neighbours' sets (UN System 2002, 45). However, other radio and TV stations than the government-controlled are only allowed to broadcast locally: authorities do not allow independent stations to use repeaters to expand their signal reach, though they were required by law to open radio stations in every province they wished to reach. Also the Catholic station Rádio Ecclésia, often quoted abroad, has not been allowed a licence to cover more than just Luanda. Moreover, both government and private sector advertising is discouraged in independent newspapers, and hence, financial viability of the independent media is always in question. There are frequent reports that authorities are arresting, harassing and intimidating independent journalists. As a consequence, human rights activists and journalists practice self-censorship (sources: website Journalism.co.za; BBC-News; US Dept of State 2008, 2009a).

2.3. The sectoral labour market structure

Based on 2002 ILO estimates, of the 5.0 million economically active persons between 15 of 64 of age estimated in Angola (see section 2.6.3), 73% or about 3,650,000 persons were engaged in agricultural activities. In 2001-2002, about 80,000 of them were engaged in commercial agriculture, all others based their existence on subsistence agriculture. Another 10% or approximately 500,000 persons were engaged in any form of industry, and 17% or about 850,000 in services. Of these 1,350,000 persons, an estimated 200,000 employed in civil service and government-controlled (re)construction activities were definitely wage-earners.

Of the remaining 1,150,000 persons, roughly 420,000 had a formal employment relation, while roughly 730,000 were in informal labour (UN System 2002). Including those living on subsistence agriculture, this may have brought the total of the 15-64 of age active in the informal sector on 4,3 millions, over six-fold the amount of 700,000 working in the formal sector, as entrepreneurs and wage earners. These calculations fit quite well with figures from the 2001 UNICEF survey, showing that 85% of female heads of household and 75% of male heads of household were self-employed or work in informal private sector enterprises (ADB/ADF 2008, 14). With 55-57%, women formed a majority in the informal sector – 52-54% working in agriculture and only 3% in other industries as main activity (UNDP/UNPF 2004). However, building on these figures the number of women wage-earners in 2001-02 can be calculated on only 160,000, 23% of the total formal sector labour force.

In Table 2, we reproduce the outcomes of an urban employment survey carried out by the INE in 2001 in order to give a more detailed overview of the urban labour market structure and its various forms of employment. If one adds up self-employed, domestic workers, unpaid family workers and “others”, at least 43% can be included in the informal sector. The survey revealed that a majority of the urban youth by 2001 had ended up self-employed in the informal sector: 56% of those employed between the ages of 20 and 24 were working for themselves, 13%-points more than for all (INE 2001, cited in Ryan 2007). Like a UN report described, most of them were scraping a living by hawking goods in the markets and the streets (UN System 2002, 58). The male category under 30 of age is regarded as quite criminality-prone; notably in Luanda the incidence of crime is high and rising, also in seriousness (Embassy 2008, 2009).

Table 2 Urban employment by employment form, Angola, 2001 (headcount)

	x 1,000	share
public administration	111	8.5
private entrepreneur/worker	420	32.1
public entrepreneur/worker	215	16.5
self-employed	456	34.9
domestic worker	7	0.5
co-operative	4	0.3
unpaid family worker	16	1.2
other	78	6.0
Total	1,307	100.0

Source: INE 2001 urban employment survey, cited in Ryan 2007

In Table 3 we have tried to picture the development between 2001-2 and 2007 of three major parts of the formal sector: the civil service, including employment in state-controlled (re)construction; parastatal companies, and the private sector. We have tried to tackle the 2007 situation by using as many sources as possible. The table indicates an expansion of nearly 40%, yet solely due to a huge expansion in civil service including (re)construction.

Table 3 Employment in the formal sector, Angola, 2000-01 and 2007 (headcount, x 1,000)

	2000-01	2007
private sector	400	390
parastatal companies	100	80
civil service, incl. (re) construction	200	500
Total	700	970

Sources: 2000-01: UN System 2002, 44; 2007: authors' estimates based on various sources (a.o. ANIP Bulletins)

In section 2.6.3 (table 4) we have detailed the formal sector figures for 2007; we calculated female employment shares for seven major industries. The outcomes suggest that the growth of female employment accounts for two-fifth of recent employment growth in the formal sector.

2.4. Legislation and labour relations

2.4.1. Legislation

Angola has ratified all eight core ILO Labour Conventions 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138 and 182 (ITUC information). The adoption of the Constitutional Revision Law of May 1991 was accompanied by a series of other laws instituting reforms, like on associations, removing previous restrictions on the formation of civil society organizations, on political parties, giving way to a multi-party political system, on the right to assembly and demonstration, on strikes, on the press. Further to what we mentioned on governance, it is relevant to note that in November 2008, Angola ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and acceded to the UN Optional Protocol on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Amnesty International USA 2008). In general, the laws of Angola are non-discriminatory; suffrage is universal and women have the same rights as men to stand in elections and hold public office. A major weakness, yet, is compliance. According to Angolan economics professor Ana de Carvalho Rufino e Menezes, better known in her country as Sister Ana, the

position of women in Angola in general is more difficult than in Mozambique; in her country much more often than in Mozambique women would have to demand that the laws be enforced without discriminating against them (NN 2007).

Most of the regulations concerning work and leave arrangements of interest for the young female target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project have been laid down in the *Lei geral do Trabalho* (General Labour Law) no. 2/2000). Particularly important are the following articles:

- (Maternity and Work) “The State shall promote the necessary measures to ensure citizens the right to medical assistance and health, and the right to care in childhood, in maternity, disability, old age and in any situation of incapacity for work.” (included as art. 47 in the Constitution of September 2008)
- (Maternity leave) “Female employees shall be entitled to a maternity leave of three months, which must commence four weeks prior to the expected delivery date. The remaining time shall be enjoyed consecutively (.....) After maternity leave the employee is allowed to continue on leave, for a maximum period of four weeks, as to take care for the child. The additional period of unpaid leave can only be taken by previous communication to the employer (stating the duration of leave) and only when the company has no nursery or creche.”¹ (art. 272 General Labour Law)
- (Equal pay, prohibition of discrimination) “The labour legislation establishes that equal work or work of equal value should receive equal pay. The labour law prohibits discrimination in general, and gender discrimination in particular.” (art. 164)
- (Length of working time) “1. Except as otherwise provided by law, the normal period of work shall not exceed the following limits: (a) 44 hours per week (b) 8 hours per day; 4. The maximum limits on normal daily and weekly working time may be reduced under a collective agreement or by a joint order of the Minister of Labour and the Minister for the activity concerned, in activities where the work is performed in particularly unpleasant, tiring or dangerous conditions or which entail risks to workers’ health.” (art. 96)
- (Rest periods) “1. The normal daily working time must be interrupted by a rest and meal break of not less than one hour and not exceeding two hours, such that workers do not work for more than five hours of normal working time consecutively.” (art. 97)

1 During the maternity leave of three months, the female worker is entitled to a social security benefit if she has been insured in the social security system for at least six months during the last 12 months, according to the formula $SM = R \times 90$ (normal delivery) or $SM = R \times 120$ (several babies), in which R is the average daily remuneration, based on the average wage in the last two months before the delivery.

- (Weekly closure) “1. Industrial, commercial and service establishments must suspend work or close for one complete day per week, which shall be Sunday, except in the case of continuous processing or where the activities undertaken cannot be suspended on that day, for reasons of public interest or technical reasons.” (art. 125)
- (Freedom of join a union) “Under the labour law, workers and employers have the right to organize themselves in professional associations and unions.”(art. 6)
- (Health and safety at work) “It is a general obligation of the employer, concerning safety and hygiene at work, to take the necessary measures for the appropriate organization of the company or workplace, in order to assure the normal physical, mental and social development of workers and protection against accidents and occupational diseases.”
- (Right to vocational training) “Vocational training is designed in a systematic way to give workers general training theory and practice in order to obtain a qualification, training for the duties inherent to the job or to other sectors of production and services and increase their level of technical training.” (art. 44)

2.4.2. Labour relations

Recent Angolan union density is difficult to calculate. Around 2005, various sources took for granted that the Angolan trade unions organized about 200,000 workers. Projected against a workforce of about 800-850,000 in the formal sector (intrapolated from our Table 2), this might have implied a 23-25% density. Yet, a May 2008 message in the state-supported daily *Jornal de Angola* mentioned over 300,000 union members, be it that a minority was suggested to work in the informal sector. This message may imply an overall 26-28% density for 2008. Based on figures presented below, we estimate the union density for females in the formal sector for 2008 at about 20%. Union membership was divided over unions affiliated to three trade union (con)federations as well as three independent unions (see also Table 6):

- UNTA-CS (União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola, National Union of Angolan Workers);
- CGSILA (Central Geral de Sindicatos Independentes e Livres de Angola, General Centre of Independent and Free Unions of Angola);
- FSA-CS (Força Sindical Angolana – Central, Trade Union Force of Angola);
- SIMA (Sindicato Independente dos Marítimos de Angola, Independent Union of Maritime and Related Workers)
- SNEBA (Sindicato Nacional dos Empregados Bancários de Angola, National Union of Bank Employees of Angola);

- SINPTENU (Sindicato Nacional dos Professores e Trabalhadores do Ensino Não-Universitário, National Union of Teachers and Workers within the non-University Education System).

UNTA-CS is the oldest and largest trade union (con)federation. Operating side by side with the MPLA, UNTA played a major role in the liberation struggle and the civil war. Before 1991, it was the only union federation permitted. In the course of the 2000s, it has slackened its ties with the ruling party to some extent. UNTA-CS has ten direct affiliates, of which eight are federations in their own right and two are unions. Some of these federation unite group quite some unions, like FENSTACH (Federação Nacional dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Alimentar, Comércio e Hotelaria -National Federation of Unions of Food Industry, Commerce and Hotels) does with 20 unions, with a majority of about 90% members in the informal sector. FENSTACH has an own Women's Committee. For 2008 UNTA-CS on its website claimed a membership of 159,000, of which slightly more than 50,000 women (32%). It referred to 414,000 workers (of which 140,500 women) in the areas "controlled" by affiliated unions, implying a "UNTA-union density" of 38% and a "women UNTA-union density" of 36%. UNTA-CS said to be represented in 2,865 basis union delegations (Estruturas de Base) with 9,202 militants (Dirigentes de Base), among which 2,310 women (25%). This is about equal the share of female workers in the formal sector.

In 2005, the National Committee of Women has been included in the UNTA-CS. The National Committee emphasized the huge gaps in employment for women, and that women in the informal sector, such as domestic workers, lack legal rights as employees (ADB/ADF 2008, 14). For the 2009-2013 period, the action programme of this Committee focuses on the promotion of home work; measures of benefit for the working women and publicizing the laws; actions leading to greater participation of women in the union movement, and on conducting campaigns, education and communication on HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases (ANGOP 2009). UNTA-CS clearly strives for nation-wide coverage, with representation in all 18 provinces. While in the past affiliated with Prague-based WFTU, UNTA-CS currently is an ITUC member.

In 1996 CGSILA, with the assistance of the ICFTU world confederation, split off from UNTA-CS, the latter federation judged tied to the government's apronstrings. SINPROF, the teachers' union, still seems to be its stronghold. After being booked for years in international sources for a membership of 51,000, in May 2008 the government-friendly *Jornal de Angola* noted 92,000 members of CGSILA-affiliated unions. CGSILA is an ITUC member too. We found only very scant information about the youngest federation,

FSA-CS. If correct, the 60,000 members the Jornal de Angola ascribed to this federation at the same occasion (1 May 2008) may reflect a remarkable achievement.

The independent unions lead a rather necessitous existence. In 2007 one of them, STAD, organizing guards and domestic workers, joined UNTA-CS. By the time its membership, once 14,000, had fallen below 2,000. In 2005 the leadership of SNEBA, the bank employees' union, told an officer of the UNI global union federation with which SNEBA was affiliated, that in both public and private banks union members were in fear of persecutions from management if their affiliation to SNEBA was discovered. At the time, there were 12 banks in Angola (three public and nine private) with 5,000 employees and SNEBA membership was 2,200. The industry had one collective agreement in force, subscribed by 11 banks (UNI Africa website). The independent maritime workers' union, SIMA, can no longer be found on the membership list of the International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF). On the other hand, a new teachers' union SINPTENU took off in 2008 (NN 2008).

The Government of Angola is the largest employer within the country. Wages within the government are set yearly, with consultation from unions but without direct negotiations. The ITUC (2008) reports that in Angola the right to strike is recognised, but strictly regulated. The law does not contain any effective measures to prohibit employer retribution against strikers, and the government can force them back to work under various pretexts. The law prohibits strikes by the armed forces, police, prison workers and fire fighters. As of February 2006, the Strike Act was being revised and trade unions called for genuine tripartite consultation to ensure it complies fully with international labour standards. Already the General Labour Law of 1981 recognized the freedom of collective bargaining of employers' organisations and trade unions (art. 6). Equally, discrimination against union members is prohibited. Yet, according to the ITUC these rights are not consistently enforced.

Also outside the government sector in its strict sense, the influence of the government on collective bargaining and wage-setting still seems quite large. There is a National Council of Social Dialogue, in which union federations and the employers' association (the Chamber of Commerce and Industry) meet, but such meetings seem to limit themselves as to prepare advise to the government on the uplift of the statutory minimum wage (see next section). It may be a vague sign that the Ministry of Public Administration, Employment and Social Security (MAPESS) hardly publishes anything on workers' rights, but instead for example in March 2009 launched a national programme "More discipline, more production for a better life", as stated in a press sheet "(...) intended to sensitise workers to abide by the labour law, and give an incen-

tive towards the observation of discipline, thus contributing to increase production, productivity, stability, growth and social peace” (website Allafrica).

The ITUC comment cited above is in line with what spokespersons from the two largest union federations publicly have testified about frequent employers’ repression, not rarely suggesting that government officials are siding with these employers. These federations as well as independent unions’ representatives emphasized the lack of knowledge on economic and legal issues on the union side, and the need for collective bargaining training. As another issue for improvement they mentioned the weak use of new technologies as to inform membership and communicate with them (a.o. UNI Africa and Allafrica websites). UNTA-CS actually is the only Angolan union body with an own website.

2.5. Minimum wage and poverty

2.5.1. The statutory minimum wage

Already in the 1980s, the Angolan government established a statutory minimum wage; currently its binding force is laid down in art. 164(4) of the general Labour Law 2000. Over the period 2001-07, the real increase seems to have been rather small; the ILO (2008, Appendix Table A2) calculates a real annual growth rate in this period of 2.8%. In a Decree as of May 2008, the government specifies that ”(...) wages may not be less than what is established in the collective agreement applicable or, in its absence, the national guaranteed minimum wage (nowadays 8,609 kwanza [per month] except in those cases established by law”. Recalculated in PPP USD, this was about USD 126 per month. Obviously this message only related to the basic national minimum wage that was set to 7,420 kwanza effective 1 April, 2007, implying a rise of 16% compared to that basic rate. Yet, by 1 April, 2007 there was also a minimum wage set at 9,275 kwanza for the transport, service and manufacturing sectors, while the minimum wage for the mining industry in 2007 was set at 11,130 kwanza (ANIP Bulletin 2007, 4/30). Based on 2007 figures, the minimum wage rates varied from 42 to 51% of the average wage we estimated for the formal sector. We did not find information as to what amounts the rates for the transport, service and manufacturing sectors and for the mining industry were lifted in 2008 (if they were lifted).

Anyway, quite some unclarity remains concerning the realization of the (yearly) uplifts and, if realized, the way they are communicated and effected. In recent years, the ILO Committee concerning Convention No. 26, the Minimum-Wage Fixing Machinery, repeatedly questioned the role of Angolan unions and em-

employers' associations in preparing uplifts in the national minimum wage rate, the clarity of legislation and compliance with the law. For example, in 2004 the ILO Committee requested the Angolan government "(...) to specify the statutory instrument establishing the minimum wage at its current level and to transmit a copy of that instrument". Also, the Committee at that occasion observed that it "would appreciate receiving additional information on the functioning of the system of inspection which ensures the observance of the national minimum wage." In 2006 the Committee "would be grateful if the Government would make an effort to collect and communicate in its next report concrete information on the effect given to the Convention [No. 26] in practice, including, for instance, extracts from official reports or studies related to the national minimum wage, surveys, policy papers or other similar documents issued by the National Council of Social Dialogue, statistics on the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation or remunerated at the minimum wage rate, data on inspection visits and the results obtained in matters covered by the Convention, etc" (ILO, ILOLEX). As far as we could trace, such documents never reached the Committee.

2.5.2. Poverty

For 2000-06, the UNDP estimated that more than two-thirds (70%) of the Angolan population, on average over 10 million people, lived under the poverty line used by the United Nations,² that is below USD 2 a day (in PPP terms): 57% in the urban areas and even 94% in the rural areas. In 2000 a majority of the population, 54%, even had to make ends meet with an income below USD 1 (PPP) a day. If this USD 1 yardstick is applied, Angola is doing worse than South Africa (26%) and Botswana (31%), but better than Zambia (64%), Malawi (74%), and Mozambique (75%) (*MDG Indicator 1.1*, based on UN MDG Indicators). Moreover, in 2006 four million people had to survive under the extreme poverty line of USD 0.75 a day (UNDP 2006a; UNDP 2008; WDI 2008 Suppl). Though the government claimed a drop of 12% in the incidence of those under the USD-2-a-day poverty line in 2002-2007, the Catholic University of Angola's research center maintained that in 2007 still two in three Angolans lived on USD 2 or less a day (NYT 2007). For 2000, the UN estimated the consumption share of the poorest at 2.0% (*MDG Indicator 1.3*, based on UN MDG Indicators). In international perspective this is an extremely low figure, also compared with for example Mozambique (5.4% in 2003) and South Africa (3.1% in 2000). Considering developments in the 2000s, the Angolan figure is unlikely to have risen above 3%. Though hard evidence is lacking here, mobility out of poverty seems quite low.

2 The Angolan authorities do not use a national poverty line.

Though the relationship between the two can be complex, poverty cannot be separated from inequality. As a UNDP report (2006a, 6) stated, "Another indicator that clearly illustrates the level of poverty is the measure of inequality in the distribution of wealth." In terms of the Gini coefficient, an income distribution measure that rates 0 as perfect equality and 100 as perfect inequality, inequality in Angola grew from 0.52 to 0.62 between 2000 and 2005, according to UNDP. Already in 1995 to 2000-01, urban inequality grew: the Gini coefficient in urban areas rose from 0.45 to 0.51, and here the proportion of households living below the extreme poverty line rose to 25%, compared with 12% in 1995. Poverty is even more serious in the rural areas. A 1998 survey found that a large majority of rural households had little to spend beyond meeting their basic food requirements. Over-all, 76% of rural households' expenditure was on food, a proportion reaching 81% for the poorest 25% (UN System 2002). Based on such figures, the UN organisations in Angola jointly argued that an "effective poverty reduction strategy will not only require only high rates of growth, but also measures to halt and reverse the trend towards increased inequality in income distribution" (UN System 2002, V). Physical conditions in rural areas are mostly much worse than in urban areas. For example, in 2006 in the Angolan rural areas 39% of the population had access to a safe (in UN terms improved) drinking water source and only 16% to improved sanitation, while these proportions in urban areas were respectively 62% and 79% (WHO 2009).

UNDP's senior economist in Angola, Michel Botomazava, has argued that factors contributing to the disparity of wealth were the capital-intensive nature of the oil sector, while other sectors of the economy had collapsed during three decades of civil war: "There are very few people working in the [oil] sector. This is the main reason why inequalities are widening, as oil revenues benefit only very few groups." Yet, "there is a feeling that government is wasting money on white elephants", Botomazava added. He referred to the lack of public oversight over the "special use" part of the government budget, which he estimated at one-sixth of that budget (NN 2006): only some decrease compared to the "unexplained" and "extra-budgetary" government expenditure the IMF revealed for the years between 1996 and 2001 (Meredith 2005, 614). From the presidential headquarters at Futungo de Belas, those under presidential patronage –the *futungos*—have well been cared for. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit, in 2003 59 Angolans had fortunes exceeding USD 50 million, jointly about USD 4 billion. President Dos Santos was rated as the richest of the rich, while six of the seven wealthiest people were longtime government officials; the seventh was a recently retired official (Meredith 2005, 616).

The poverty distribution in Angola is heavily gendered. Though gender-specific poverty assessments are only available to a very limited extent, and notably poor people's own accounts are lacking, it may be taken for granted that given the social, cultural, economic and political situation in Angola, poverty strikes women and children particularly hard. Poverty on average is greater in female-headed households, a situation that is particularly evident in rural areas. Many women are also *de facto* heads of household because of being members of polygamous households, male labour migration or conscription. The share of female-headed households is reported at 31%, and according to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MINADER) and the FAO in 2004 they form the majority in the category of households living in extreme poverty; based on this survey the share of female-headed households among the poorest 20% can be estimated at 60%.

Unless the country's economic development in the 2000s, social progress remains limited, and most Angolans continue to face appalling living conditions, including sky-high infant mortality rates, dirty water, and widespread illiteracy. The score of Angola on the human development index (HDI) of the UNDP, mentioned earlier, improved a modest 0.034 points during 2000-06, bringing it to 0.484 in 2006. By that year, the country ranked 157th in a total of 179 countries, slightly above the HDI rankings of Malawi and Zambia but below those of Tanzania and Uganda. According to the UNDP ratings, the 2006 HDI rank of Angola was 50 places below its GDP per capita rank – the world's fourth largest difference between the two social and economic rankings. Again, these outcomes should be projected against the short time span for reconstruction after the end of the civil war. UNDP did not yet include Angola in calculations of the Gender-adjusted Development Index (GDI), like it did for neighbouring countries, obviously because gender data on educational enrollment were still missing (UNDP 2008). The Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum ranks Angola 114th of 130 countries for 2008, displaying the same gender gap score like in 2007 but losing in ranking according to the improving relative position of women in other countries (Hausmann *et al* 2008).³

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

2.6. Demographics and female labour force

2.6.1. Population and fertility

For 2007 UN sources estimate the population of Angola at roughly 17,100,000, of which 9 million under 18 of age (UNICEF Statistics). A thoroughly underpinned UN estimate came for 2005 to 16,090,000 persons: 8,160,000 women and 7,930,000 men, implying a ratio of 103.0 women per 100 men (UN 2007). It has to be noted that in the current Angolan situation, with among others large numbers of refugees returning and births often not being registered⁴, population countings remain extremely difficult and by necessity inaccurate. American sources mostly maintain much lower total population figures for Angola than UN sources do, like the CIA World Factbook putting that on 12,800,000 by July 2009. Again according to UN sources, the annual growth rate of both population and labour force in 2001-07 was 2.9%, which rate slowed down in 2008 to 2.1%. In 1970 only 14% of the Angolan population lived in urban areas, but recently the share of the urban population has been estimated at no less than 57%, one of the highest rates in the world. Subsequently, for 2005-2010 the yearly urbanisation rate is estimated at 4.4%. Already in 2002 the population of the capital, Luanda, surpassed 3 million; UN and American sources suggest that actually about one-third of the total population lives in or nearby this city. The median age is low: 18.0 years overall, both for males and females. The birth rate estimated for 2009 is 43.7 births per 1,000 population, the death rate estimated for 2008 24.4 deaths per 1,000. By 2000, women aged 15-49 gave birth to on average 6.5 children; for 2009, this total fertility rate (TFR) was somewhat lower, but with an estimated 6.1 still very high – the second highest in the world. For an indication of the situation of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE, the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-19 of age) is of special importance. In 2007 this rate stood at 165 – also a high figure, even compared to most neighbouring countries. As it stands now, by the age of 16 about 20% of all Angolan women/girls is (has been) pregnant and by the age of 20 about 70% of all Angolan women has had at least one baby (UN System 2002; World Bank – WDI; WHO 2009; CIA World Factbook).

4 A United Nations (System 2002) report states that it is important “to draw attention to the lack of an effective, comprehensive system of vital registration, which deprives many Angolan children (and adults in later life) of the legal documentation needed to prove their identity and nationality. The MICS 2001 survey found that only 29% of children aged 0-59 months have birth registration documents (34% in the urban areas and 19% in accessible rural areas). Although the percentage rises progressively with age, 55% of children still are not registered by the age of 48-59 months (...) the high cost of registration is the main reason for non-registration” (40).

On the other hand, infant (under age 5) mortality is going to fall from 219 per 1,000 live births in 2002 to an estimated 180 per 1,000 in 2009, though the last figure remains quite high in international perspective (World Bank 2008b; CIA World Factbook). Malaria is far the largest single cause of child mortality, as well as of deaths among adults; high maternal mortality is another major issue of concern. As the key underlying causes can be traced: the poor state of health services, poor nutrition, related to high proportions of household expenditure devoted to food, as well as lack of access to safe sources of water and lack of adequate sanitation (UN System 2002). For 2006, it is estimated that 49% of the Angolan population is not using an improved water source (UNDP 2008). In 2006, life expectancy at birth in Angola was on average 42.1 years, 43.7 years for females and 40.5 for males -- low figures even by African standards (UNDP 2008). What is more, estimates for 2009 show a considerable lower life expectancy, of 38.2 years – 37.2 years for males and 39.2 for females (CIA World Factbook).

2.6.2. HIV/AIDS

The lower life expectancy just cited cannot simply be reduced to the consequences of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The spread of the HIV prevalence has not been that fast in Angola, and recent investigations have even resulted in lower HIV prevalence rate estimates than older ones. In both 2004 and 2005, the median national HIV prevalence was estimated at 2.5% (UNAIDS/WHO 2008a), but more recently such figures have been corrected downward. The most recent estimated share, for 2007, was 2.0% (1,962 per 100,000) among adults 15-49 of age, compared to 1.9% in 2004 and 1.5% in 2000 (WHO 2009). This implies for 2007 an estimated number of people living with AIDS between 150,000 and 240,000 – still worrying, but for sub-Saharan Africa comparatively low. Notably the prevalence of HIV among pregnant women in Luanda turned out to be much lower (1.8%) than expected, and in sharp contrast to that in the capitals of neighbouring countries. The researchers conclude from these findings that the spread of HIV may have been hampered by the long armed conflict in the country, but they fear a rapid increase with the return of soldiers and refugees in a post-war situation; they stress that the challenge for preventive actions is urgent (Strand *et al* 2007). However, preventive and therapeutic services are still in their infancy. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), in 2005 only 2,700 of an estimated 52,000 people in need of antiretroviral (ARV) treatment were receiving it. There are very few places where people can have an HIV test voluntarily and confidentially, and only one hospital provides ARV treatment (Ryan 2007; UNICEF Angola website). Recently official policies, under pressure of women in government positions and women MPs, show a growing awareness of the seriousness of the pandemic and a willingness to co-operate with NGOs

in this field (see for example the GlobalHealthReporting.org website).

The burden of the HIV/AIDS threat falls heavily on women. In Angola women aged 15-24 are nearly three times more likely than men in the same age bracket to get infected by HIV/AIDS. In 2005, the prevalence rate for females of that age cohort was 2.5%, that of men of the same age group 0.9%. For 2003/2004, the number of children orphaned in Angola by HIV/AIDS was estimated at 110,000 (WDI 2007). Though a possible overestimate, this figure points at the serious problems the HIV/AIDS pandemic will notably cause for girls. Moreover, orphanage because of HIV/AIDS comes on top of the already huge orphanage problem in Angola that the civil war has caused, covering about 1.2 million children (UNICEF Statistics). As we argued in our country report for Mozambique, orphanage definitely ruins the prospects in life of many girls. UNICEF, in summing up the risk factors in Angola (return of displaced persons, destroyed social networks, increased contact with military personnel, low levels of education, a young population, a high poverty index) stresses weak female autonomy and few protection mechanisms. The UN children's organisation refers to a study as of 2003, stating that many young Angolans (43%) start to have sex very early in their lives, and that the proportion of adolescents who have had sex by the age of 15 is one of the highest recorded. Angolan adolescents also have many partners, know little about protecting themselves and do not practice what they do know. According to this study, only 55% of young urban Angolese used a condom in intercourse with their last casual partner (website UNICEF Angola; PSI/UNICEF/USAID 2003).

An earlier survey (MICS 2001), yet including accessible rural areas, found that only 6% of women practiced any form of contraception, and only 4.5% of them used modern methods. For any method, the rates reported were 8% in urban areas and 2% in rural areas: exceptionally low compared to averages for sub-Saharan Africa and developing countries. A UN report (2002, 32-3), citing these figures, points to another consequence of low contraceptive use, i.e. "(...) that many women resort to abortions to terminate unwanted pregnancies. Since abortion remains illegal in Angola and is therefore carried out clandestinely, often in unsafe conditions, abortion-related deaths are likely to be one of the factors contributing to the high maternal mortality ratio." This report, too, explains that "The risks are particularly high in the case of adolescent girls and young women, due to their economic dependence and weak bargaining power in negotiating sexual relations with male partners, especially when there is a large age difference. Adolescents account for a high proportion of unsafe, clandestine abortions" (33).

2.6.3. Women's labour market share

Angola suffers from a giant unterutilization of labour. For 2001-2002, 6,1 million people were estimated to be economically active, 45-48% of the total population. In order to comply with the internationally comparable Labour Force Participation Rate (LPR) or Employment-to-Population (EPOP) ratio that only takes stock of the 15-64 of age, we have to leave out the older and younger persons included in this estimation. This concerned about 300,000 active persons in the age of 65 and older as well as roughly 800,000 children under 15 of age: child labour was and most likely is widespread in Angola.⁵ The remaining 5.0 million people made up for an over-all LPR or EPOP of about 63%. Across countries, this LPR or EPOP is a very low rate (Compare, for example, with Mozambique's 83%, calculated for 2003 in our Country Report No. 1). With about 68%, an outcome for 1995 based on the ICPVD survey was somewhat higher⁶, but it can be assumed that in the meantime the civil war had further devastating effects on employment opportunities (cf. UN System 2002). The 1995 survey also concluded to almost equal LPRs for men and women, with men's rate only 0.5%-point higher. Based on the sectoral figures we also presented in section 2.3 and figures on male respectively female civil war victims, we assume that the 2001-02 outcomes in this respect have been reversed, with the female LPR being 3 or 4%-points higher. More recent statistics to underpin these calculations are lacking; the economically active share may have grown slightly, but it can be questioned whether the LPR as constructed above actually may have reached 68% again. Moreover, the "advantage" for women in terms of a somewhat higher LPR is likely to have continued till today. We finally estimate the Angolan female LPR for 2007 to be 66% (*MDG Indicator 1.5*).

The low LPRs point at a very high unemployment rate. By 2001 the national unemployment rate stood at about 45% and estimates of urban unemployment rate varied between 37 and 48%, with figures on unemployment in the Luanda capital on top (ADB/ADF 2008).⁷ Again, data underpinning recent unemployment developments are lacking. Notably the expansion of the civil service, including (re)construction works of the infrastructure, between 2000-01 and 2007 (see Table 2) has created new employment, but about half of its effects in terms of diminishing unemployment have leaked away because of population growth. As a result, unemployment in the end may have fallen with 5%-points to about

5 The IDR 2000-01 survey, conducted with a 90% urban sample, reported that 3% of children aged 0-9 and 23% of children aged 10-14 were working. The MICS 2001 survey, also conducted in accessible rural areas, found 30% of children aged 5-14 working (20% in the 5-9 age group and 41% of those aged 10-14). Of those working in the 5-14 age range, 76% were engaged in domestic work, of which 20% for more than 4 hours a day (UN System 2002, 38). US Dept. of State information for 2008 suggests that after 2001 these shares hardly dropped (cf. UNHCR website).

6 We recalculated the ICPVD result for the 15-64 of age, as that survey used a 10-years-old-and-above yardstick.

7 Some maintain that unemployment data for Angola are not credible, partly because unemployment is disguised by under-employment – a form of employment characterized by very low levels of productivity and incomes (cf. UN System 2002, 14). Others may argue that the latter situations indicate outright unemployment.

40% in 2007 (under the optimistic assumption that employment growth in agriculture could cope with population growth in rural Angola). Moreover, based on our calculations the proportion of own account and contributing family members in total employment (*MDG Indicator 1.7*) can be estimated for 2003 at 85%: in international perspective an extremely high figure.⁸

Below, we have refined the formal sector figures presented earlier for 2007; we have calculated female employment shares for seven major industries. The outcomes suggest that the growth of female employment is responsible for two-fifth of recent employment growth in the formal sector. According to 1995 data, women held 33% of jobs in the formal sector, but for 2001-02 we calculated a female share of 23%. We found that in the course of the 2000s the female wage-earning labour force expanded by just over 100,000 to some 267,000, implying a partial recovery of the female share to 27.5%. If we correct this outcome for employment in agriculture, we can estimate for 2007 the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (*MDG Indicator 3.2*) at 28%.

Table 4 Female employment shares in the formal sector by sub-sector, Angola, 2007 (headcount, x 1,000)

	x 1,000	%
commercial agriculture and fishing	23	26%
manufacturing and mining	34	17%
construction	22	11%
formal commerce, transport, telecom, tourism	72	40%
public administration	70	39%
education	29	36%
health care	17	42%
Total	267	27.5%

Sources: ADB/ADF 2008; authors' estimates based on various sources (a.o. ANIP Bulletins, various company directories)

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

2.6.4. Agriculture

The fact that agriculture recently contributes 7 to 8% to the Angolan GDP, while it provides employment and income for over 70% of the population, is a testimony not only to the dominance of oil in the Angolan economy but also to the extremely low productivity of much of smallholder production in agriculture (Kyle 2007, 5). For 2009-2012, the government has unfolded plans to reach full self-sufficiency in the area of legumes and to cover 50-70% of the needs for most other foodstuff (Embassy January 2009). The

8 For other countries in this series, we extensively produce female LPRs and EPOPs based on the ILO Labour Statistics (Laborsta database). Yet, in the Angolan case we refrain from this source, because the 2003 figures used as the basis for the Laborsta (EAPPEP) calculations are utterly unreliable.

2004 MINADER/FAO survey grounds estimates that about 80% of Angolan farmers are subsistence smallholders generally producing little or no surplus. Though less than half of all arable land is cultivated, farmers grow rain-fed food crops on plots averaging 2-3 ha, while smallholder household plots do not exceed 0.2 ha in areas with irrigated agriculture. Smallholders mainly use rudimentary and manual soil preparation practices.

Women constitute about two-third of the active agricultural labour force. In the Angolan traditional rural society, there has always been a division of labour between the sexes. Women are responsible for most aspects of daily family subsistence, including the production of food crops, the raising of small livestock, the fetching of water and firewood, cooking and the care of children, the elderly and the sick, while men prepare the soil, cultivate commercial crops (if any) and rear cattle. Household assets are generally the property of male heads of households, and inheritance, although traditionally in majority matrilineal, usually benefits the male relatives of the deceased, leaving widows in a particularly vulnerable situation (UN System 2002). The 2004 survey mentioned above suggests that many women make extremely long hours. Farming women may work 14 hours a day on household and economic activities if they have a husband, and 15 hours a day if they are single. Only 2% of all farmers deploy commercial activities and have a paid workforce (MINADER/FAO 2004, 18). With 26%, the share of women in the commercial agriculture and fishing labour force is much lower than their overall share in agriculture (ADB/ADF 2008). It stands to be seen whether this share will grow in the near future. The gradual expansion of commercial agriculture and fishing will most likely only open up new employment for women to a very limited extent.

2.6.5. Manufacturing

Prior to the oil boom and the civil war, Angola had a strong light manufacturing sector. In the course of the civil war, manufacturing dwindled, and unless an average yearly growth of nearly 16% in 1997-2007, manufacturing in 2007 contributed less than 6% to the Angolan GDP (World Bank 2008b). The IMF (2007, 14) recently talked about a “very limited manufacturing basis”, though experts maintain that such activities can flourish in Angola against the backdrop of its low wage structure and the ready availability of raw materials in the form of food and fiber (a.o. Kyle 2007, 11). In 2007 and 2008, many small and medium-sized manufacturing enterprises showed a rapid expansion, resulting in over 20% yearly growth. However, these companies seem mainly to expand in metal, engineering, plastics and related production, and hardly in industries with traditionally large shares of women workers, like clothing and textiles (ANIP 2007, 2008; Embassy 2008). The Basic Law on Private Investment (Law no. 11/2003) liberalised the conditions for FDI,

but in 2005 investors perceived the administrative burden still as quite high and felt frustrated by corruption (Da Gama 2005). These factors may help to explain why for the time being FDI focuses on mining and related activities, to a lesser extent on tourism and construction, but not on manufacturing.

2.6.6. Commerce

Up till rather recently, over 80% of Angolan women working in commerce can be found in the informal sector; here they are concentrated overwhelmingly in retail trading and are almost all self-employed (UN System 2002). In the last few years, the formal retail sector showed a rapid growth, like 22% in 2007. For example, under the governmental PRESILD program, in 2007 and 2008 27 large Nosso Super supermarkets have been opened throughout the country. The formal wholesale trade seems to expand more slowly (ANIP, 2007, 2008; Embassy 2008).

2.6.7. Services

As shown above, we estimate the share of women employed in formal wage employment working in commercial services (including commerce) for 2007 to be 40%. After a period of slow growth of private services such as transport, finance, telecom and tourism, the government seems to be aware that the country's current state of development justifies (allowing) considerable investments in these sectors. This is most clear in the tourist sector, which currently is –with in 2008 less than 200,000 visitors—fully underdeveloped. Fuelled by the award of the 2010 football African Nations Cup (CAN) to Angola and the awareness of prohibitive high room prices, the government jointly with private investors –notably from Portugal and South Africa—embarked upon an ambitious programme of hotel expansion, until 2010 covering over USD 300 million. Similar developments have been announced for the financial sector, though they may be hampered by the government's wish to remain largely in control. Related professional services like accounting and auditing and corporate legal consultancy will be pushed as well, though recently foreign investors in these services complained about shortages of skilled employees (ANIP 2007, 2008; Embassy 2007, 2008). Yet, such shortages may open up opportunities for young women.

2.6.8. Government

In 1998 about 40% of jobs in the civil service were held by women, according to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Public Administration, Employment and Social Security in that year; the scarce available evidence suggests that in 2007 this share was certainly not higher. Women will most likely also still be underrepresented in the higher administrative ranks; in 1998, their share in the *técnicos superiores* ranks in civil service

was 27% (UN System 2002). It seems that the growth of the administrative branch of public administration has come to a standstill, against rapid further growth of the technical and construction departments, up till now mainly offering employment for men. The government is attempting to address the challenge posed by the country's obsolete infrastructure, having proclaimed reconstruction a national priority. A programme of public investments (PIP) has been set up, managed by the Ministry of Finance (Corkin 2009). In May 2009, the Minister of Public Works stated that his ministry is the sector that has the capacity of absorbing the highest quantity of Angolan manpower. According to the minister, in 2005 72,000 people were employed and currently over 200,000 are involved in the rehabilitation of infrastructure, a number he expected to rise to 300,000 jobs by 2010 (Allafrica website). All in all, the civil service itself may not be a major source of growing employment for (young) females; most growth may well be expected in education (see next section) and health care, of course sectors that also heavily influenced by government programmes and government spending. The current government plans for education and health care may open up a considerable amount of employment opportunities for women (if they are not frustrated by budgetary constraints).

2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force

2.7.1. Literacy

Based on the MICS 2001 survey, the average adult literacy rate in Angola stood at 67%. We have to emphasize that this overall figure hides a large gender gap: in the same period male literacy was an estimated 82%, against only 54% for women (women to men parity 66%). In the urban areas, these ratios were respectively 88% for men and 63% for women (women to men parity 72%). Among rural women, even only 34% were literate, less than half the score of the men (69%; women to men parity 49%). In 2007, the literacy rate for 15-24 year-olds (*MDG Indicator 2.3*, derived from UN MDG Indicators and based on UNESCO data) was set at 72%, though, divided in 84% for young men and 63% for young women, again showing a considerable gender gap (women to men parity 75%).

In fact, all these figures may well understate the problem of illiteracy, since because of the war the survey in question was limited to accessible areas and literacy among the rural poor at large may be considerably lower (cf. UN System 2002, 22-3; UNDP 2008). Moreover, literacy among the urban poor is also much lower. A local survey, concentrated at Luanda city, came to the same overall literacy rate (67%) as well as that for women (54%), but this survey also found only 30% literacy amongst women in the lowest socio-

economic group (Govt of Angola 2003).

2.7.2. Education of girls and young women

Participation in education is still very low in Angola. In 2006 the gross enrollment ratio in education was 25.6%, the lowest ratio in sub-Saharan countries. At all three levels of education, school failure rates are quite high, ranging from 30 to 35%. Inadequate resources and lack of qualified teachers are pressing problems. It is estimated that at primary level the average ratio of pupils per teacher is about 45, reaching 70 in some coastal areas (UNDP 2008, based on UNICEF data). Enrollment statistics mainly date from the 1990s. A survey as of 1996 and 1998 administrative data gave net enrollment ratios for pupils aged 6-11 of 47-50% of the population of that age, with somewhat higher shares for boys (52-54%) than for girls (42-48%), implying girls to boys parity being 81 – 88%. These outcomes are in conformity with the ratio of 86% published in the UN MDG Indicators and obviously based on 1999 data (*MDG Indicator 2.3* and *MDG Indicator 3.1*). These are the relative figures; yet, the absolute figures for boys and girls were clearly below those of the sub-Saharan countries (cf. UN System 2002, 21). The Angolan government has clearly recognized the backward state of the country's primary education. For 2015, the Minister of Education has formulated as a main goal, "that everybody willing to study can enroll at school", adding: "We think that by 2015 we can assure complete education" (Imbondeiro 2008, 30).

At higher educational levels, gender disparities widen. Concerning secondary education, the scant statistics of the early 2000s suggest large gender differences: a 2001 estimate of female enrollment compared to male was 44%, bringing the enrollment of girls at about 30% (UN 2007). Though more recent statistics (of UNICEF, based on UNESCO data) may indicate that the gender gap has been largely bridged, with by 2007 84 girls net enrolled for every 100 boys, this change cannot be assessed very positively: it most likely happened because of a severe drop in the enrollment level of boys, and much less or not at all because of a lift in girls' enrollment. Finally, the (rather outdated!) available figures on the female share in higher education does not seem that low like in neighbouring countries. For example, in 1998 at Agostinho Neto University there were 70 female students enrolled for every 100 male students.⁹

⁹ We did not find any figures concerning the other university, the Catholic University of Angola.

In Angola most young people enter the labour market with limited skills and few opportunities. This is true for both sexes, but especially for young women, due to the gender disparities in education indicated above. Various reports emphasize that, besides achieving universal primary education and expanding secondary and technical education, there is a need to provide flexible means for young people, in particular young women, to make up for missed years of schooling (a.o. ADB/ADP 2008). Expecting contributions to this effect from human resources policies of the civil service and large companies seem quite reasonable.

2.7.3. Female skill levels

As a rule gender inequality in employment is reinforced by higher levels of illiteracy among women than among men. On behalf of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project it is important to note that in 2005, the ratio of young literate females (aged 15-24) was estimated 75% of that of males (WDI 2007). Indeed, female employment is heavily concentrated in low-skill jobs, particularly in the informal sector but to a considerable extent also in the formal sector. For example, in 2001 men occupied 66% of professional posts (*técnicos médios* and above) and 72% of senior professional posts (*técnicos superiores*). The situation was similar in qualified service occupations. For example, in 2001 only 29% of lawyers were women (UN System 2002). Based on these and related figures, the 2001 share of female professional and technical workers in this total group can be estimated at 30%.

Necessarily based on rather scant data, we calculated the shares of unskilled, skilled and high-skilled in the female respectively male Angolan labour force for 2001-2002. As Table 5 shows, according to our calculations in these years almost 96% of the female labour force was unskilled, compared to nearly 85% of the male employed. Only 3.4% of the female labour force was skilled (men: over 12%), and nearly 1% (men: 3%) highly skilled. These figures implied that women's share in the unskilled part of the labour force was 55%, in the skilled part 28%, and in the highly skilled part 25%. Most likely over 90% of the two latter groups could be found in urban areas.

Taking into account recent trends in girls' education and scattered information on employment opportunities, for 2009 the number of skilled women in the labour market can be extrapolated at 215,000, nearly doubling compared to 2001-02, and, on top of them, the highly skilled at 30,000, a growth of 25%. Though these groups nowadays may be somewhat more dispersed over the country, notably in tourism, at least 90% of them may still live in urban areas.

Table 5 Labour force by highest level of education completed, Angola, 2001-2002, by gender

	all		women		men	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x1,000	%
unskilled	4,494	89.9	2,461	95.8	2,033	84.7
skilled	410	8.2	115	3.4	295	12.3
highly skilled	96	1.9	24	0.9	72	3.0
Total	5,000	100.0	2,600	100.0	2,400	100.0

Sources: UN System 2002; UN 2007; UNDP 2006a, 2008

Based on the information grouped in the Tables 2 – 5, we can make a somewhat less inaccurate estimate of the size of our target group than we did in the application for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. We now estimate that about 70,000 young women aged 15-30 are currently in wage employment, over 90% living in urban areas. Another 20,000 young women can be expected to enter into such employment in the next five years.

2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group

2.8.1. Wages

Except for categories of expats working for the large multinational companies and recruited via international agencies, we did not find any reliable detailed wage information for Angola. This emphasizes the importance of the WageIndicator for this country, though making a start with salary indications for industries and occupations is not easy under these conditions.

2.8.2. Working conditions

Very little is available in writing on working conditions in Angola, neither for the informal sector nor for the formal sector. According to the 2005 USAID report on the Angolan health care system, all large companies active in the country provide some health service coverage for their employees. The covered population may also extend to employees' dependents and even employees of subcontractors. Health coverage is through on-site clinics, company-owned health facilities, or contracts with independent health facilities (Connor *et al* 2005).

3. Basic information for WageIndicator questionnaire

3.1. Introduction

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

3.2. List of trade unions

The country's trade union movement has already been introduced under Labour relations (section 2.3), section. Below, a full list can be found of the trade unions, designed for use in the web-survey.

Table 6 List of trade unions in Angola (by 01-01-2009)

pt_AO	pt_AO	List in web survey, 1 st tier	Source label in dataset	List in web survey, 2 nd tier
24100	24101	AGO Central Geral de Sindicatos Independentes e Livres de Angola (CGSIIA)	National Trade Union of Building and Housing Workers (SNTCH)	Sindicato Nacional dos Trabalhadores da Construção e Habitação (SNTCH)
24100	24102	Central Geral de Sindicatos Independentes e Livres de Angola (CGSIIA)	National Union of Teachers (SINPROF)	Sindicato Nacional de Professores (SINPROF)
24100	24103	Central Geral de Sindicatos Independentes e Livres de Angola (CGSIIA)	National Independent Trade Union of Health and Civil Service Workers (SNITTS-FP)	Sindicato Nacional Independente dos Trabalhadores de Saúde e Função Pública (SNITTSFP)
24100	24104	Central Geral de Sindicatos Independentes e Livres de Angola (CGSIIA)	Independent Union of Tourist Services, Hotels and Commerce (SISTHC)	Sindicato Independente dos Serviços Turísticos Hoteleiro e Comerciais (SISTHC)
24200	24201	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	National Federation of Unions of Food Industry, Commerce and Hotels (FEN-STACH)	Federação Nacional dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Alimentar, Comércio e Hotelaria (FENSTACH)
24200	24202	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions in Public Administration, Health Care and Services (FSAPSS)	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Administração Pública, Saúde e Serviço (FSAPSS)
24200	24203	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions of Workers in Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Related Trades (FSTAPPD)	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Agro Pecuária, Pescas e Derivados (FSTAPPD)
24200	24204	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions of Workers in Construction and Housing	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Construção e Habitação
24200	24205	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions of Workers in Education, Culture, Sports and Social Services (FTECDCSA)	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Educação, Cultura, Desporto e Comunicação Social (FTECDCSA)
24200	24206	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions of Workers in Leather Industries	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Ligeira
24200	24207	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federation of Unions of Workers in Metal, Extractive, Energy and Chemical Industries (FSIMEQ)	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores da Indústria Metalúrgica, Extractiva, Electricidade e Química (FSIMEQ)
24200	24208	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Federations of Unions of Workers in Transport and Communications of Angola (FST-TCA)	Federação dos Sindicatos dos Trabalhadores dos Transportes e Comunicações de Angola (FST-TCA)
24200	24209	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	National Union of Nurses of Angola (SINDEA)	Sindicato Nacional dos Enfermeiros de Angola (SINDEA)
24200	24210	União Nacional dos Trabalhadores de Angola - Central Sindical (UNTA-CS)	Union of Guards, Maintenance, Domestic Workers and Similar Professions (STAD-ANGOLA)	Sindicato dos Trabalhadores dos Serviços de Portaria, Vigilância, Limpeza, Domésticos, Profissões Similares e Actividades Diversas (STAD-ANGOLA)

24300		AGO Trade Union Force of Angola (FSA-CS)		Força Sindical Angolana - Central
24400		AGO Independent Union of Maritime and Related Workers (SIMA)		Sindicato Independente dos Marítimos de Angola (SIMA)
24500		AGO National Union of Teachers and Workers within the non-University Education System (SINPTENU)		Sindicato Nacional dos Professores e Trabalhadores do Ensino Não-Universitário (SINPTENU)
24600		AGO National Union of Bank Employees of Angola (SNEBA)		Sindicato Nacional dos Empregados Bancários de Angola (SNEBA)
9999		AGO Other		Outros

3.3. List of educational categories and ISCED levels

Below, a full list of the educational categories used in Angola, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found. The estimated respective ISCED levels are included.

Table 7 List of educational categories in Angola (by 01-01-2009)

pt_AO	Source label	List in web survey	ISCED
24001	AGO Preschool	Iniciação/pré-escola	0
24002	AGO Primary School (grades 1-6)	Ensino Primário	1
24003	AGO Secondary School – 1st cycle (grades 7-8-9)	Ensino Secundário - 1º ciclo	2
24004	AGO Secondary education – 2nd cycle (grades 10-11-12/13)	Ensino Secundário - 2º ciclo	3
24005	AGO Technical middle education (grades 10-11-12-13)	Ensino Médio Técnico	4
24006	AGO Pedagogical middle education (grades 10-11-12-13)	Ensino Médio Pedagógico	4
24007	AGO Bachelor	Bacharelato	5
24008	AGO Licentiate	Licenciado	5
24009	AGO Master of Arts or Master of Sciences	Mestrado	6
24010	AGO Doctoral Degree	Doutorado	6

3.4. List of regions

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

Table 8 List of regions in Angola (by 16-10-2008)

pt_AO	pt_AO	Source label	Source label	Source label	List in web survey	List in web survey
240100000	240100132	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo Ambriz	AGO Bengo Ambriz	Bengo	Ambriz
240100000	240100232	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo Capulo	AGO Bengo Capulo	Bengo	Capulo
240100000	240100304	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo Caxito	AGO Bengo Caxito	Bengo	Caxito
240100000	240109632	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	AGO Bengo A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Bengo	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240100000	240109704	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo A village (less than 10,000)	AGO Bengo A village (less than 10,000)	Bengo	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240100000	240109805	AGO Bengo	AGO Bengo Rural area	AGO Bengo Rural area	Bengo	Zona rural
240200000	240200131	AGO Benguela	AGO Benguela Benguela City	AGO Benguela Benguela City	Benguela	Cidade de Benguela
240200000	240200231	AGO Benguela	AGO Benguela Lobito	AGO Benguela Lobito	Benguela	Lobito
240200000	240209632	AGO Benguela	AGO Benguela A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	AGO Benguela A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Benguela	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240200000	240209704	AGO Benguela	AGO Benguela A village (less than 10,000)	AGO Benguela A village (less than 10,000)	Benguela	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240200000	240209805	AGO Benguela	AGO Benguela Rural area	AGO Benguela Rural area	Benguela	Zona rural
240300000	240300132	AGO Bie	AGO Bie Andulo	AGO Bie Andulo	Bié	Andulo
240300000	240300232	AGO Bie	AGO Bie Catabola	AGO Bie Catabola	Bié	Catabola
240300000	240300331	AGO Bie	AGO Bie Kuito	AGO Bie Kuito	Bié	Kuito
240300000	240309632	AGO Bie	AGO Bie A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	AGO Bie A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Bié	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240300000	240309704	AGO Bie	AGO Bie A village (less than 10,000)	AGO Bie A village (less than 10,000)	Bié	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240300000	240309805	AGO Bie	AGO Bie Rural area	AGO Bie Rural area	Bié	Zona rural
240400000	240400131	AGO Cabinda	AGO Cabinda Cabinda City	AGO Cabinda Cabinda City	Cabinda (Kabinda)	Cidade de Cabinda
240400000	240400232	AGO Cabinda	AGO Cabinda Landana	AGO Cabinda Landana	Cabinda (Kabinda)	Landana
240400000	240409632	AGO Cabinda	AGO Cabinda A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	AGO Cabinda A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cabinda (Kabinda)	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240400000	240409704	AGO Cabinda	AGO Cabinda A village (less than 10,000)	AGO Cabinda A village (less than 10,000)	Cabinda (Kabinda)	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240400000	240409805	AGO Cabinda	AGO Cabinda Rural area	AGO Cabinda Rural area	Cabinda (Kabinda)	Zona rural
240500000	240500132	AGO Cuando-Cubango	AGO Cuando-Cubango Cuchi	AGO Cuando-Cubango Cuchi	Cuando-Cubango	Cuchi

240500000	240500232	AGO Cuando-Cu-bango	AGO Cuando-Cubango Menongue	Cuando-Cubango	Menongue
240500000	240509632	AGO Cuando-Cu-bango	AGO Cuando-Cubango A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cuando-Cubango	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240500000	240509704	AGO Cuando-Cu-bango	AGO Cuando-Cubango A village (less than 10,000)	Cuando-Cubango	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240500000	240509805	AGO Cuando-Cu-bango	AGO Cuando-Cubango Rural area	Cuando-Cubango	Zona rural
240600000	240600132	AGO Cuanza-Norte	AGO Cuanza-Norte Dondo	Cuanza-Norte	Dondo
240600000	240600232	AGO Cuanza-Norte	AGO Cuanza-Norte N'Dalantando	Cuanza-Norte	N'Dalantando
240600000	240609632	AGO Cuanza-Norte	AGO Cuanza-Norte A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cuanza-Norte	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240600000	240609704	AGO Cuanza-Norte	AGO Cuanza-Norte A village (less than 10,000)	Cuanza-Norte	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240600000	240609805	AGO Cuanza-Norte	AGO Cuanza-Norte Rural area	Cuanza-Norte	Zona rural
240700000	240700132	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul Sumbe	Cuanza-Sul	Sumbe
240700000	240700232	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul Uku	Cuanza-Sul	Uku
240700000	240700332	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul Waku Kungo	Cuanza-Sul	Waku Kungo
240700000	240709632	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cuanza-Sul	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240700000	240709704	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cuanza-Sul	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240700000	240709805	AGO Cuanza-Sul	AGO Cuanza-Sul Rural area	Cuanza-Sul	Zona rural
240800000	240800132	AGO Cunene	AGO Cunene Ondjiva (N'Giva)	Cunene	Ondjiva (N'Giva)
240800000	240809632	AGO Cunene	AGO Cunene A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Cunene	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240800000	240809704	AGO Cunene	AGO Cunene A village (less than 10,000)	Cunene	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240800000	240809805	AGO Cunene	AGO Cunene Rural area	Cunene	Zona rural
240900000	240900132	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo Bailundo	Huambo	Bailundo
240900000	240900232	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo Caala	Huambo	Caala
240900000	240900331	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo Huambo City (Nova Lisboa)	Huambo	Huambo City (Nova Lisboa)

240900000	240909632	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Huambo	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
240900000	240909704	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo A village (less than 10,000)	Huambo	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
240900000	240909805	AGO Huambo	AGO Huambo Rural area	Huambo	Zona rural
241000000	241000132	AGO Huila	AGO Huila Caluquembe	Huila	Caluquembe
241000000	241000231	AGO Huila	AGO Huila Lubango	Huila	Lubango
241000000	241000332	AGO Huila	AGO Huila Matala	Huila	Matala
241000000	241009632	AGO Huila	AGO Huila A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Huila	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241000000	241009704	AGO Huila	AGO Huila A village (less than 10,000)	Huila	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241000000	241009805	AGO Huila	AGO Huila Rural area	Huila	Zona rural
241100000	241100107	AGO Luanda City	AGO Luanda Luanda	Luanda	Cidade de Luanda
241100000	241100202	AGO Luanda	AGO Luanda The suburbs of Luanda	Luanda	Os subúrbios de Luanda
241200000	241200132	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte Cafunfo	Lunda Norte	Cafunfo
241200000	241200232	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte Dundo	Lunda Norte	Dundo
241200000	241200332	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Luanda Luanda City	Lunda Norte	Luanda City
241200000	241200432	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte Nzagi	Lunda Norte	Nzagi
241200000	241209632	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Lunda Norte	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241200000	241209704	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte A village (less than 10,000)	Lunda Norte	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241200000	241209805	AGO Lunda Norte	AGO Lunda Norte Rural area	Lunda Norte	Zona rural
241300000	241300132	AGO Lunda Sul	AGO Lunda Sul Saurimo	Lunda Sul	Saurimo
241300000	241309632	AGO Lunda Sul	AGO Lunda Sul A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Lunda Sul	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241300000	241309704	AGO Lunda Sul	AGO Lunda Sul A village (less than 10,000)	Lunda Sul	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241300000	241309805	AGO Lunda Sul	AGO Lunda Sul Rural area	Lunda Sul	Zona rural
241400000	241400132	AGO Malanje	AGO Malanje Caxita Cameia	Malanje	Caxita Cameia
241400000	241400231	AGO Malanje	AGO Malanje Malanje City	Malanje	Cidade de Malanje

241400000	241409632	AGO Malanje	AGO Malanje A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Malanje	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241400000	241409704	AGO Malanje	AGO Malanje A village (less than 10,000)	Malanje	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241400000	241409805	AGO Malanje	AGO Malanje Rural area	Malanje	Zona rural
241500000	241500132	AGO Moxico	AGO Moxico Cazombo	Moxico	Cazombo
241500000	241500232	AGO Moxico	AGO Moxico Luena	Moxico	Luena
241500000	241509632	AGO Moxico	AGO Moxico A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Moxico	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241500000	241509704	AGO Moxico	AGO Moxico A village (less than 10,000)	Moxico	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241500000	241509805	AGO Moxico	AGO Moxico Rural area	Moxico	Zona rural
241600000	241600132	AGO Namibe	AGO Namibe Namibe City	Namibe	Cidade do Namibe
241600000	241609632	AGO Namibe	AGO Namibe A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Namibe	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241600000	241609704	AGO Namibe	AGO Namibe A village (less than 10,000)	Namibe	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241600000	241609805	AGO Namibe	AGO Namibe Rural area	Namibe	Zona rural
241700000	241700132	AGO Uíge	AGO Uíge Negage	Uíge	Negage
241700000	241700231	AGO Uíge	AGO Uíge Uíge City	Uíge	Cidade do Uíge
241700000	241709632	AGO Uíge	AGO Uíge A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Uíge	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241700000	241709704	AGO Uíge	AGO Uíge A village (less than 10,000)	Uíge	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241700000	241709805	AGO Uíge	AGO Uíge Rural area	Uíge	Zona rural
241800000	241800132	AGO Zaire	AGO Zaire M'Banza Kongo	Zaire	M'Banza Kongo
241800000	241800231	AGO Zaire	AGO Zaire Soyo	Zaire	Soyo
241800000	241809632	AGO Zaire	AGO Zaire A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Zaire	Pequena cidade (10,000 - 100,000)
241800000	241809704	AGO Zaire	AGO Zaire A village (less than 10,000)	Zaire	Uma aldeia (10,000 ou menos)
241800000	241809805	AGO Zaire	AGO Zaire Rural area	Zaire	Zona rural

3.5. Lists of ethnic groups and languages

3.5.1. Ethnic groups

Concerning ethnic groups, Ovimbundu make up 37% of the population of Angola, followed by Kimbundu with 25%, Bakongo 13%, mestiços (mixed European and native African) 2%, European 1%, and other 22% (source: CIA World Factbook). Below, a list of ethnic groups, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 9 List of ethnic groups in Angola (by 01-01-2009)

pt_AO	Source label	List in web survey
24001	AGO Ovimbundus	Ovimbundu
24002	AGO Kimbundu	Quimbundos
24003	AGO Bakongo	Bakongos
24004	AGO Mestiço	Mestiços
24005	AGO European	Branços
24099	AGO Others	Outros

3.5.2. Languages

According to data from the 1983 Census, Portuguese is –besides being the official language—the predominant language, as it was spoken as a first language in 60% of the Angolan households and as a second language by many more in the country. Of the native Portuguese speakers, half could speak Portuguese, while the other half spoke a Bantu language as a second tongue. About 40% of Angolans spoke Bantu languages as their first language. Most spoken Bantu languages were Kimbundu, Umbundu, and Kikongo. The foreign language mostly learnt by Angolans was English (wikipedia).

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

Table 10 List of languages in Angola (by 01-01-2009)

pt_AO	Source label	List in web survey
24001	AGO Portuguese	Português
24002	AGO Bantu	Bantu
24997	AGO Other African language	Outra idioma africano
24998	AGO Dialect	Dialeto
24999	AGO Other Language	Outra língua

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What is WageIndicator?

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

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

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

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

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

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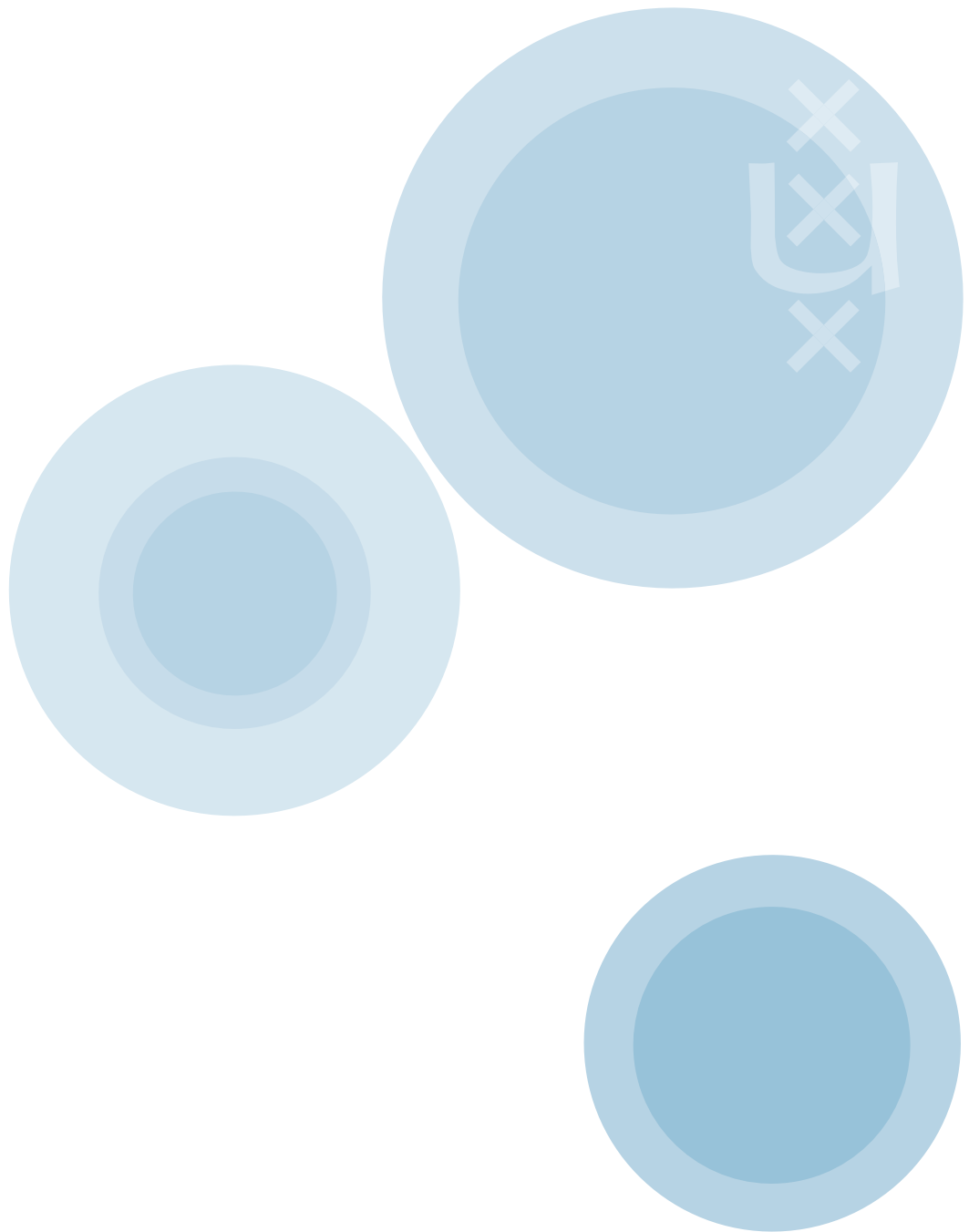
Information about AIAS

AIAS is a young interdisciplinary institute, established in 1998, aiming to become the leading expert centre in the Netherlands for research on industrial relations, organisation of work, wage formation and labour market inequalities. As a network organisation, AIAS brings together high-level expertise at the University of Amsterdam from five disciplines:

- Law
- Economics
- Sociology
- Psychology
- Health and safety studies

AIAS provides both teaching and research. On the teaching side it offers a Masters in Comparative Labour and Organisation Studies and one in Human Resource Management. In addition, it organizes special courses in co-operation with other organisations such as the Netherlands Centre for Social Innovation (NCSI), the Netherlands Institute for Small and Medium-sized Companies (MKB-Nederland), the National Centre for Industrial Relations 'De Burcht', the National Institute for Co-determination (GBIO), and the Netherlands Institute of International Relations 'Clingendael'. AIAS has an extensive research program (2004-2008) on Institutions, Inequalities and Internationalisation, building on the research performed by its member scholars. Current research themes effectively include:

- Wage formation, social policy and industrial relations
- The cycles of policy learning and mimicking in labour market reforms in Europe
- The distribution of responsibility between the state and the market in social security
- The wage-indicator and world-wide comparison of employment conditions
- The projects of the LoWER network



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