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Preface

It has become increasingly apparent that to enhance the capacity of labour statistics to describe the economic activities of women, improved national statistics are needed on home-based workers and street vendors, as these are types of activities where women tend to be relatively numerous.

Through discussions reflected in the papers presented in this publication the variable “place of work” has emerged as a possible key variable which could help identify members of these two groups, e.g. in national labour force surveys, as this is a variable which will describe whether the work activities are undertaken in close connection with the worker’s abode, at the premises of an employer, in the streets, etc.. While not sufficient on its own, such information will be central for the identification of not only home-based workers and street workers, but also domestic workers and producers of goods for consumption by their own household.

While the variable “place of work” is recommended for inclusion in specialized surveys on child labour and employment in the informal sector it has not been included systematically in national labour force surveys outside Latin America, and even in that region only limited use have been made of the results. The objective of the papers presented in this publication therefore is to review the Latin American experience with particular focus on Columbia and Mexico, as well as on the results from pilot surveys in South Africa and Jordan, in order to arrive at some general conclusions and recommendations about how “place of work” can help to identify the homeworkers and streetworkers, as well as on the use of this variable more generally. Both those using the results from surveys which include this variable and those planning surveys with the variable “place of work” will benefit from studying these papers.

The papers reproduced in this publication were commissioned by the ILO Project Measurement of the variable Place of Work GLO/98/318/B/11/31. The views expressed in them are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position of the ILO Bureau of Statistics. They have not undergone any revision by the Bureau. The project was funded by the UNSD/IDRC/UNDP Project on Gender Issues in The Measurement of Paid and Unpaid Work. It was directed by Ms. Adriana Mata Greenwood of the ILO Bureau of Statistics.

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Is asking for “place of work” a pertinent and efficient way to better measure and understand the category of homeworkers, and more generally, outworkers in the labour force ?

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The question of the “place of work” as an important characteristic of employment to be collected in labour force surveys and population censuses is not new. Many countries, especially in Latin America, have collected information on this topic for a long time and on a continuous basis, but curiously they did not make much use of the results for in-depth analyses, as if the reason for such collection had been forgotten. The issue recently came back under the spotlights, in the discussions arising from the new international definition of the informal sector adopted by the XVth International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 1993, as well as from the discussions for the revision of the International Classification on Status in Employment (ICSE), at the same time. The question of “place of work” was later raised in connection with the renewed efforts towards a better measurement of women’s activities. It seems that time has come now for the preparation of ad hoc recommendations in view of more systematic studies of the data collected and the experiences gained.

In this report, we will examine, in a first section, why and how the issue was raised, discussed and tackled in various statistical fora. Then, in a second section, we will analyse several countries’ experiences reviewed for this project. In a third section, we will try to elaborate a conceptual framework for statistics on “place of work” and their use.

1.1. The issue of “place of work” in the discussions on labour statistics.

The adoption of an international definition of the informal sector as a concept of labour statistics in 1993 (ILO, 1993 a and b) is a landmark in the long history of statistical labour force concepts and

of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians in particular. This definition makes this a characteristic of the enterprise or establishment in which the person is working, and only through this work relationship a characteristic of the person. The reference to a “sector” and to the economic unit is due to established analytical and descriptive conventions as well as the recognition that the concept would be nested within the household institutional sector in the System of National Accounts (SNA, 1993, 4th revision). This means that the “outworkers” (those paid employees working for a firm but outside the firm’s premises) also called “homeworkers” (when referring to the place where they actually work) will be classified in the informal sector or in the formal sector, depending on the characteristics of the firm which employs them.

The adoption of a convention on homeworkers by the International Labour Conference in 1996 (ILO, 1996), emphasised the need for a measure of the category and for adequate instruments of measurement. A basis for achieving this had been laid already in 1993, when the XVth ICLS examined the proposal for a revision of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) (ILO, 1993 c) and in this context discussed the definition of this group. ICSE-93 refers to the “place of work” in the definition of “outworkers” (or “homeworkers”) as one of several groups to be considered for “possible treatment of particular groups of workers”.

In ICSE-93 the category of “outworker” is defined as follows:

“Outworkers are workers who: a) hold explicit or implicit contracts of employment under which they agree to work for a particular enterprise, or to supply a certain quantity of goods or services to a particular enterprise, by prior arrangement with that enterprise; but b) whose place of work is not within any of the establishments which make up that enterprise. These workers may be classified as being in “paid employment” or in “self-employment” according to the specific terms of their contract; they may be classified as “employers” if they engage other workers on a continuous basis.” See par. 14, h) of the Resolution concerning the International Classification of Status in Employment 1993 (ICSE-93)

This Resolution says that “countries may need and be able to distinguish one or more of these groups; and par. 18 of the Resolution on Statistics of Employment in the Informal Sector, 1993, is practically written in the same terms, and a similar definition is included in the System of national Accounts (SNA-93).

The ILO Convention on Homework defined the homeworker as follows:

- S** *“the term “homework” means work carried out by a person, to be referred to as a homeworker,*
- (i) in his or her home or in other premises of his or her choice, other than the workplace of the employer;*
 - (ii) for remuneration;*
 - (iii) which results in a product or services as specified by the*

employer, irrespective of who provides the equipment, materials or other inputs used, unless this person has the degree of autonomy and of economic independence necessary to be considered an independent worker under national laws, regulations or court decisions;

- S persons with employee status do not become homeworkers within the meaning of this Convention simply by occasionally performing their work as employees at home, rather than at their usual workplaces;*
- S the term “employer” means a person, natural or legal, who, either directly or through an intermediary, whether or not intermediaries are provided for in national legislation, gives out home work in pursuance of his or her business activity.”*

It is thus clear that the term “homeworker” is synonymous of “outworker”, the latter being somewhat more logical as it is required from the worker that he perform his or her activity outside the premises of the enterprise.

Although these definitions have finally been formulated independently from the definition of the informal sector, the discussion on homework or outwork cannot be set out of the conceptual framework of the informal sector for at least two reasons:

- S** in the common sense, the homeworkers subcontracted by large, medium or even small firms are an illustration of the links relating the formal and the informal sector: it is an example of their articulation,
- S** and the fact is that there is some difficulty to distinguish these kinds of employees from economic units, as they may themselves employ family workers, or even casual employees.

For informal employment statistics, outwork is a crucial issue for this precise reason and because it may be an important cause of underestimation.

In practice, that is when applying the new definition of the informal sector to the operational concepts and methods used in recent surveys or to the data recently collected, the category of “outworkers” revealed itself not operational for several reasons:

- S** Neither the informal firms nor the formal ones declare spontaneously and separately these categories of workers and, as a result, the outworkers are either concealed or not included (most commonly, and often explicitly) in establishment surveys.
- S** There is some doubt about the category of status in employment under which the home-based workers declare themselves in the household surveys: a piece-rate pay or a pay per task can be interpreted as a job for own-account by some respondents and as a salaried job by others.
- S** As usual, the employees are not in a position to know the characteristics of the firm in which

they work or for which they work, not even the size in number of jobs in the case of home-based workers.

- S As far as the outworkers do not constitute independent firms, detailed information is not collected on the firm for which they work.
- S Consequently, the labour force surveys cannot easily distinguish either between the formal and the informal segments of this category of employees, or between the own-account and the dependent workers: two major issues to be tackled when measuring the homeworkers.

Finally, one can observe that very few formal firms will hire outworkers directly: most of them will do it through intermediary or contractors' firms or middlemen presenting the usual characteristics of the informal sector. In a firm's accounts, the payment to outworkers are not usually accounted for as part of the wage bill, but as intermediary consumption as outsourced services. Similarly, some informal firms do use this type of workers, but in numbers which are negligible when compared with those employed through the complex sub-contracting chains which go from the home-based worker to the trans-national firms. Consequently, the challenge and the aim of the definitions and surveys are to identify as such this category of the labour force, irrespective of the formal/informal sector to which they may belong.

These observations brought back the discussion to the "place of work", as a separate - but related - question in the surveys. As a matter of fact, the question of the "place of work" raises even more issues than the question of homeworkers or outworkers, and its scope is far broader. Not only does it play a crucial role in any definition of those two categories of employment, and allow to distinguish more clearly some sub-categories of homeworkers and outworkers, but it can also be used when defining other categories of the labour force which are not working within the premises of the enterprise or of its establishments. For instance, there are outworkers (paid employees of an enterprise) who are not home-based but street-based, or who are mobile; many workers are to-day working from home (and not at home). Furthermore, the use of the question in rural areas makes it more complex to distinguish between home, farm and workshop: an issue which is more and more often relevant for urban areas where households open shops or workshops within the home or its annexes.

Such a diversity of situations has become, from now on, an essential characteristic of employment: the extension and generalisation of the market economy and the massive entry of women into the labour markets as well as the encounter between a wide and large informal sector and the globalisation/delocalisation strategies of transnational firms in search of more labour flexibilisation have given rise to the renewal of old forms of work (such as the revival of the "putting out system") which remain hidden or at least hardly captured within the current concepts, categories and classifications of the labour force. This is why there is an urgent need for refining, adapting and completing some of our usual and widely used instruments for measuring these aspects of employment.

As a matter of fact, the question of the "place of work" had already been experimented and is still being used within different ways by quite a lot of countries, and very often in population censuses. The recently revised "Principles and Recommendations concerning censuses of population and

housing” of the United Nations (UN, 1998b) quotes “place of work” as one of the economic characteristics of the population to be collected, with the main objective of comparing “place of working” with “place of living”. Despite this objective and despite the simple proposed classification (home-based workers, workers without fixed location for work, workers with a fixed location for work outside home), the inclusion of this question in population censuses is of particular importance because only population censuses allow the cross-classification of this variable with the detailed classification of occupations (ISCO), status in employment (ICSE) or industries (ISIC).

1.2. Countries’ experience in data collection on “place of work”

Countries’ experience is interesting to look at and to lean on for two purposes: 1) the variety of classifications they have used in their data collection system; 2) the type of results and tabulations they have published.

Regarding the classifications for “place of work”, it can be noted that establishment censuses and surveys have generated such classifications at least as often as household surveys. The reason is that in the field, the interviewers are confronted with the actual variety and diversity of places of work, also when they deal with establishments. And these classifications can be used to complete those developed in household surveys, especially labour force surveys.

There are several categories of classifications or typologies (generally precoded in the questionnaires) for “place of work”. One category defines “place of work” by reference to the enterprise or economic unit as such. Another category defines “place of work” by reference to the actual place where the person perform the work.

1.2.1. Classifications referring to the place of economic unit

Among the classifications used for economic units, some are mixing up the criteria related to “place of work” as a variable, with those for the industrial sectors, and the size and legal status of the enterprise. The classification used in the **Mexican national survey** on urban employment as well as in the survey on micro-enterprises is an example which is typical of this kind of mixing (Gonzalez Gutierrez T., 2000). It divides the enterprises into two main categories: without premises and with premises, with sub-categories:

i) Without premises

S In cultivated land, launch, wells, etc.: refers to persons working in agricultural, fishing, forest and gathering activities without fixed premises or equipment for

automated operation.

- S Door-to-door or street: refers to persons whose enterprises lack a physical location and who develop their activities walking in the streets or visiting their customers door-to-door.
- S In a vehicle, bicycle, car, etc.: includes persons carrying out their activities in some type of vehicle such as a motorcycle, bicycle, car, etc., except for cargo or passenger transportation services.
- S Improvised stand in public streets: includes economic entities or persons who use improvised stands in public places. Some of these stands include stands set weekly on a specific location.
- S In his/her own household: includes persons working in their own households, using their own homes as the place of work.
- S In his/her employer or customer's household: the activities are carried out in the employer or customer's household, whenever the business lacks a physical location.
- S In vehicles for transportation of persons or goods (taxi, truck, etc.): includes businesses providing transportation services, both for persons and for goods, provided the company, the employer, or the self-employed worker has only one unit with which to work.
- S Semi-fixed stand in a public street: includes businesses that use a semi-fixed stand in a public street, regardless of the economic activity. These stands are generally of a tubular nature, are set daily and sometimes have a license or an operational permit.

ii) With premises

Small: Refers to workshops and locations not belonging to a chain (and with 5 workers or less).

- S Fixed premises in a public street. Includes economic entities that have fixed premises in the street for carrying out their activities, regardless of type of activity. A fixed premises means a permanent structure with an assigned location, generally having a license or an operational permit.
- S Commercial location, grocery store, hardware store, shoe shop, bakery, etc. Includes small enterprises not part of a chain, whose purpose is trading of goods.
- S Production workshop, pastry, bakery, press, carpentry, etc. Means small enterprises not part of a chain, carrying out production activities.
- S Repair, mechanical, electrical, electronic, etc. shop. Includes small enterprises not part of a chain where various types of repair services are provided.
- S Services: restaurant, bar, boarding house, etc. Includes businesses with small premises, not part of a chain and only recognised in the location where the food or boarding services are provided.
- S Services: professional, specialised technical, personal, educational, assistance, etc. Includes businesses with limited premises, not part of a chain and providing professional, technical, etc. services.

Medium and large-sized. Medium and large-sized enterprises (with more than 5

workers), including the government's offices.

- S Enterprises of a medium to large size involved in production, construction and extraction, plants, mines, oil wells, etc. Includes businesses from the transformation, construction, and mining industries, all medium to large size.
- S Enterprises of medium and large size, involved in commercial, financial, transportation, health, and educational activities and in other services, grocery stores, banks, bus lines, clinics, schools, hotels, etc. Includes parastatal and decentralised enterprises, as well as some offices from the Secretary of State performing specific activities or services other than public administration, such as public schools, PEMEX, hospitals from the Social Security Service, etc. Includes owners of two or more transportation units, urban or foreign buses, taxis, regardless of whether they own premises or not.
- S Administrative offices from the federal, state, or municipal government. Includes government offices with administrative functions. Government entities involved in other activities are classified according to the economic activity performed.

Other. Those that cannot be included in the above categories. ”

In this example survey statisticians have tried to anticipate all cases by building a combination of several variables and their relevant classifications to not less than 17 alternatives. Although this instrument had been successfully used in Mexico for several years, it seems difficult to generalise and other countries have preferred a less complicated set of categories. In **Chile** for instance, 11 categories are distinguished (Pollack M., 2000):

“Where is your activity executed, or where the establishment, enterprise or office where you work, is located:

- S in the household as independent worker,
- S in the household as employee (specify for other status),
- S in another household,
- S in a place adjacent to the household,
- S in an independent establishment,
- S in an agriculture area,
- S in a maritime area,
- S domestic work,
- S in a public area,
- S transport (land, air, water, etc.)
- S other (specify)”

and 8 categories are distinguished in **Bolivia** (and even less in other countries):

- S in the household,
- S in premises adjacent to the household,
- S in exclusive premises,
- S in the street (street vendor),
- S in a kiosk,

- S in a vehicle,
- S domestic work,
- S other (specify).

These few examples show that the design of such classifications, referring to the economic unit, raises several ambiguities: 1) the household may be the owner's or the client's (for the self-employed) or the employer's (for paid employees), 2) some economic activities have, by nature, a specific place of work: domestic work, transport, agriculture, and also construction (although this last category is not separately identified by the preceding classifications).

In other countries or other regions, even simpler classifications have been designed, for instance in **Tunisia** (1997):

- S administration and public enterprises,
- S private enterprises,
- S private establishments,
- S home,
- S mobile,
- S construction or public works sites,
- S farms.

Classifications are developed in relation with the economic and social structures in the countries and regions. The usual classification adopted in **Mali** since 1985 is the following:

- S enterprise,
- S shop or workshop,
- S building sites or road works,
- S fixed market,
- S mobile market,
- S home with specific outfits,
- S home without specific outfits,
- S street,
- S mobile,
- S other.

In Africa, the informal sector has often been surveyed through establishment censuses and these operations have sometimes been extended to the street vendors, so that detailed classifications have been designed for these categories of workers: for example **Guinea** in 1987, **Niger** in 1982 have further specified street vendors in fixed locations (not mobile) by distinguishing, in their establishment censuses :

- S street vendors with only bowls, baskets or mats,
- S street vendors with stools,
- S street vendors with tables (called table-owners or -dressers in Niger),
- S street vendors with porch-roofs or sheds, or window dress,

and, for mobile street vendors (hawkers and peddlers):

- S walking street vendors,
- S street vendors with cart, bicycle, etc...

In its new labour force survey, **South Africa** (Budlender D. and Buwembo P., 2000) has used a rather simple classification in 8 categories:

- S in the owner's home,
- S in someone else's home,
- S inside a formal business premises such as a factory or office,
- S at a service outlet such as a shop, school, post office, etc.,
- S at a market,
- S on a footpath, street, street corner, open space or field,
- S no fixed location,
- S other.

All these examples show that the main difficulty encountered in the development of classifications referring to the place of the economic unit, is that they have to take account of the specific circumstances of some economic activities such as agriculture, construction, transport, administration, etc., which complicate a list of pre-coded categories, the aim of which was to remain as simple and short as possible.

1.2.2. Classifications referring to the place where the person actually works.

In industrialised countries (Europe and other OECD countries), it is labour force surveys which usually have included a question on the place where the active person actually works.

For instance in the **United Kingdom**, the related question in the labour force survey is designed as follows for all employees, self-employed and unpaid family workers:

“(In your main job) Do you work mainly...

- S in your own home (often part of the living accommodation is set aside for the purpose of work),
- S in the same grounds or buildings as home (if the place of work is a separate unit attached to the respondent's home - e.g. a doctor's surgery, or farmers who work in fields or buildings adjacent to their home; this aims to capture tied accommodation, rented or owned, with business premises attached),
- S in a different place using home as a base (many self-employed people, such as builders, may use home as a base - e.g. as an office - but mainly work elsewhere; this group also includes mobile workers - e.g. mobile hairdressers and mechanics).
- S or somewhere quite separate from home?”

The same questions are asked for the second job. In the UK, homeworkers are defined on the ground of responses to this single question.

From this example, it is clear that the question does not try to identify and specify all kinds of “place of work”: in particular, when the activity is not carried out at home or from home, no other question is asked to know where this activity takes place.

Can such a methodology fit with the actual situation prevailing in developing countries?

For instance, it implies that street work in particular is carried out using home as a base. And it leaves out the situations which are not of interest for the issues raised by the question of “place of work”, for instance the fact that a policeman works in the streets or outside office for a long time in a day.

The **Jordan** 1999 national labour force survey addressed these issues by designing a question and a classification as follows (Nsour F., 2000):

“Where do you work:

- S an exclusive workplace such as: ministry, department, commercial store, office, factory, school, hospital, hotel restaurant, etc.
- S an exclusive residence such as: households that produce or process certain items (dairy products, oil, olives, jam, etc.),
- S a bi-purpose place (for both work and residence) such as: doctor’s clinic, lawyer’s office, cloth sewer, etc.
- S open or semi-open place assigned for work such as: construction worker, pipe-fitter, painter, stands, vegetable markets, occasional markets, gas station, quarrying, open farm workers,
- S public open space such as: taxi driver, garbage collector, traffic police, pilot, street extension workers, hunter, interviewer, sales representative, etc.
- S open space not assigned for work such as: cleaner, cigarette salesman, vendor, shoe shiner, knock-door salesman, etc.
- S other, not elsewhere classified.”

Here, the attempt is to classify places of work, by distinguishing close and open space, public and private, assigned and not assigned for work. Because this kind of classification was experimental and quite unusual, and also because female activity rates are very low in Jordan, the survey did not result into reliable figures for work in “exclusive residence” nor for work in “bi-purpose places”. It was actually expected that the number and proportion of people working at home and in open places would be much larger.

Other attempts have also been made by adapting the classification of status in employment. But then the adaptation was often limited to the category of own-account workers, for instance in the 1982 population census of Morocco or the 1984 population census of **Tunisia** where 3 sub-categories of independent or own-account workers were distinguished:

- S independent with business premises,

- S independent at home,
- S independent with mobile location.

Such simple and easy-to-apply classifications gave interesting and reliable results, but they should have been extended to the other categories of statuses (paid employees and family workers in particular) and this was actually done in the following censuses and surveys.

Finally, what measures of homeworkers or home-based workers have resulted from these experiences?

1.2.3. Statistics of homeworkers and street vendors.

There is much anecdotal information about the situation and conditions of work of homeworkers, but few reliable statistics from representative surveys on their actual number: this is why it is a major issue for labour statisticians, in a period when it is obvious that this form of work is the main means by which labour costs are cut and social protection is got round on a competitive market that is world-wide. The lack of data prevents such an assumption to become an empirical evidence, although some examples can be given, for instance about the unexpected pro-cyclical trends of the informal sector during the Asian financial crisis, likely due to home-based work (Charmes J. 2000c).

Available national statistics on homework to be presented in the following tables are based on the variable “place of work” and relate to data on persons working “at home” some of the time: in most cases, those figures include self-employed as well as paid employees and in this respect they don’t fit with the international convention which is limited to dependent workers. Wherever possible, the data have been cross-classified with status in employment in order to make the distinction between the two categories. Also, particularly in Europe and due to the formulation of the question, the data may include some occupations which are undertaken at home or from home on a part-time basis (teachers for instance who may be included in Europe and are not included in developing countries except in their secondary activities where they are recorded). Moreover, transport and construction workers are not easy to classify along the lines of the international convention of homeworkers although they do not work in the enterprises’ premises and are paid (dependent) employees, but they may be considered as ordinary paid employees rather than homeworkers. These few examples give an idea of the difficulties of application of a definition which is precise but still insufficient to take account of the variety of situations.

The Eurostat survey on labour force provides some information which proves that definitions and legislation are widely varying among countries. Table 1 below presents the statistics of homeworkers in Europe (defined as spending more than half of their working hours at or from home).

The highest rate was found in Ireland until 1995 when a new law made the category shrink by means of definition or/and sending it underground. The results of the 1998 UK Labour Force Survey (autumn) show a drop to 2.3% of total employment (and 2.4% in comparison with non-agricultural employment) with 625,000 people working as homeworkers in their main

job, to whom could be added 168,000 people working as homeworkers in their second job.

In other OECD countries, the share of homeworkers culminates in Australia with 25.8% in 1995, against 6% in Canada (1996) and 3.8% in New Zealand (1991) (see Felstead and Jewson, 2000).

Table 1.1: Homeworkers (persons working at home, sometimes or usually) in Europe, 1992-96 (in % of total employment).

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
EU 12	4.9	4.2	4.6	4.6	4.6
Belgium	11.6	11.3	11.1	10.8	10.1
Denmark	11.0	10.3	11.8	11	11
France	0.8	2.6	5.5	5.4	5
Germany	5.2	5.1	5.1	4.1	5
Greece	1.7	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.4
Ireland	20.6	19.5	18.6	18.2	7.1
Italy	5.5	5.1	4.5	4.6	4.6
Luxembourg	5.5	6.9	6.3	6.9	6.1
Netherlands	5.6	6.4	6.8	6.8	6.8
Portugal	4.4	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.5
Spain	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
UK	7.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6

Source: Eurostat, 1992-1997. From Felstead and Jewson (2000), In Work at Home.

From the few developing countries for which it has been possible to obtain data (Table 1.2), there is some evidence that home-based workers are mainly women. Their share in the non-agricultural labour force is around 5%, but it may be as high as 15% where, as in the Philippines, this category of the labour force is surveyed independently from the main activity undertaken by the person: the calculation of this indicator is then made possible by the comparison with non-

Table 1.2: Proportion and characteristics of home-based workers in various developing countries.

	Number of home-based workers	% of non-agricultural labour force	% females	Females					
				% own-account	% employees	% family workers	% manufacturing (textiles)	% trade	% services
Jordan (1999)	15,000	0.7	66.7	48	52.0	...	70.0
Morocco (1982)	128,237	4.1	78.8	100.0	95.7	1.4	1.9
Tunisia (1984)	123,060	9.4	75.6	100.0
Tunisia (1994)	86,267	4.8	71.3	63.8	9.2	27.0	90.2	1.3	2.1
Tunisia (1997)	211,336	10.7	37.9
Kenya (1999)	777,100	15.0	34.9	62.5	37.5	...	24.4	67.6	8.0
Benin (1992)	595,544	65.8	74.1	11.9	77.6	10.5
India (1999-2000)	23,496,80	16.8	44.3
Thailand (1999)	311,790	2.0	80.0	...	81.2	17.9	90.0
Philippines (1993-)	2,025,017	13.7	78.8	100.0
Chile (1997)	79,740	1.8	82.3	33.5	51.6	14.9
Peru (1993)	128,700	5.2	35.3	100.0	100.0
Brazil (1991)	2,141,972	5.0	57.1	91.5	5.8	2.0	12.8	10.4	77.6
Brazil (1995)	2,700,000	5.2	78.5	12.0	5.0	83.0

Sources: Own calculations on the basis of national sources (1982 Population Census for Morocco; 1984 and 1994 population censuses and 1997 Labour Force Survey for Tunisia; 3rd round of 1999 Employment and Unemployment Survey for Jordan; 1991 population census for Brazil; NSSO, 1999-2000 NSS 55th round in India; 1993 NSO Survey of Homeworkers in the Philippines; 1998 NSO Survey of Homeworkers in Thailand; 1999 National Baseline Micro and Small Enterprise Survey in Kenya; 1992 population census and establishment census in Benin) and for Chile, Peru and Brazil 1995 : Manuela Tomei (1999) : El Trabajo a domicilio en países seleccionados de America Latina : una vision comparativa, ILO Geneva.

Notes : ... not available. All countries exclude construction, transport and domestic services, except Brazil 1995 and Tunisia 1984 and 1997. Thailand, Philippines only refer to homeworkers in industries and engaged in sub-contracting arrangements excluding own-account workers, and Peru refers to independent own-account home-based workers only.

agricultural employment, since these home-based activities are undertaken as a second job mainly by farmers. For Thailand where an ad hoc survey was designed and carried out in 1999 as a module attached to the labour force survey, the low figure (2%) can be explained by the fact that the scope of the survey was essentially limited to the wage-earners (and the family

workers who help them).

Benin is rather particular in this respect, as the home-based workers were defined as those who were not working in establishments: consequently most non-agricultural workers in rural areas have been classified as home-based.

When statistics on homework are constructed using information on “place of work”, it should be kept in mind that, for a correct interpretation, the figures need to be compared with total non-agricultural employment and to exclude agricultural or primary activities. The same can be said of statistics on street based work and the informal sector. The reason is because the question of “place of work” is not pertinent to capture the variety of categories of farmers and more generally primary activities, because most if not all of these activities are performed at home or from home. For most descriptive and analytical purposes figures on home-based and street-based work also need not to be comprised of:

- S domestic workers (who are home-based workers, but working in the homes of their employers),
- S workers in transport activities, who, by nature undertake their activities in the streets (but in a way which is not comparable to street vending),
- S workers in construction activities, who are undertaking their work on building sites or road works sites and also should not be combined with street vending.

The exclusion of domestic workers lowers women’s incidence of home-based work, while the exclusion of transport and construction activities lowers men’s incidence of street-based work. Overall, the exclusion of these three types of activities considerably reduces the number of workers engaged in home-based and street-based work, but the resulting figures are much more relevant for studies of the phenomena that are supposed to be tackled with when addressing the issue of home-based work and street-based work.

Comparability between countries and between periods is made quite difficult for various reasons:

- S in some countries and for certain periods, only own-account workers have been taken into account (Morocco, Tunisia 1984, Peru 1993): this is reflected by a share of 100.0% in the column “own-account”,
- S where possible, and as mentioned above, the transport and construction industries, as well as the domestic workers, have been taken out of the figures, in order to leave alone the actual home-based workers (Tunisia, 1984 and 1997 and Brazil, 1995 are exceptions to this rule),
- S figures for all countries refer to direct results of national surveys or censuses, except for Benin where the figures result from a comparison of various sources (and consequently all rural activities have been assumed to be home-based – or street- road-based),
- S figures for all countries in Table 1.2 refer to nation-wide results, including rural areas.

Morocco, Tunisia (1994) and Brazil (and Peru) surprisingly have the same share of home-

based workers in the non-agricultural labour force: approximately 4 to 5 percent, and women account for more than 78 percent in Morocco and Brazil (1995), and 71 percent in Tunisia. Nearly 2/3 of home-based workers are classified as own-account and only 9 percent as employees in Tunisia, compared to more than 90 percent and 6 percent respectively in Brazil (in Morocco, the place of work has been recorded only for own-account). In fact, both countries are quite comparable when their share of females own-account if family workers are taken into account, but they totally diverge as to the sector of industry in which female home-based workers are engaged: manufacturing activities account for more than 90 percent (and 86.4 percent in textiles) in Tunisia and Morocco, against services which are far ahead in Brazil (77.6 percent). For Brazil, the 1995 household survey on homeworkers confirmed the population census results: 5.2 percent of the non-agricultural labour force, of whom 78.5 percent are females, a proportion that brings Brazil in the average of the countries for which data are available. Concentration of these homeworkers in services is also confirmed (83.0 percent), raising many questions about the corresponding detailed activities or occupations, as the published data do not provide the required details of classification.

In Kenya and the Philippines, home-based workers approximately represent 15 percent of the non-agricultural labour force, and nearly 17 percent in India, but only 35 percent are females in Kenya, while they are 44.3 percent in India and 79 percent in the Philippines. However, these figures are certainly under-estimates in both countries: own-account workers were excluded in the Philippines survey which focused on homeworkers involved in sub-contracting arrangements (consequently the majority of home-based workers are employees), and in Kenya the National Baseline Micro and Small Enterprise Survey failed (because this was not its objective) to capture those home-based workers (mostly females in services) who were recorded as employees in the labour force.

In 1999, Thailand carried out its first national household survey of homeworkers and intends to repeat the survey every two years, as a module attached to its monthly labour force survey (quarterly at the time of the first survey in 1999), but the rather low figure reached (2 percent of the non-agricultural labour force) seems to greatly underestimate a phenomenon which was felt as sufficiently important to justify the creation of an Office of Homeworkers at the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. Like in the Philippines, the own-account home-based workers were excluded of the survey coverage, but one of the main reasons for the underestimation is probably the undercounting of family workers: most surveys focus on sub-contractees who receive the orders and they fail to enumerate the family workers; yet these family workers, unless captured as piece-rate workers in the surveys, should not be forgotten as they are mobilised by the person who got the order and whose interest and obligation is to finish the job as soon as possible: in this case, the paid homemaker is at the same time a subcontracted employee and an own-account worker employing family workers. As a matter of fact, this is the main form of child labour.

On the ground of the results for these two countries which have undertaken the most comprehensive surveys in order to deal with this category of the labour force, and despite the small sample of countries reviewed, it can be taken for granted that, in countries which have reached a certain level of industrialisation, home-based workers (own-account as well as homeworkers) represent between 1/5 to 1/4 of the non-agricultural labour force and 4/5 of them are females.

The case of Benin is different: the high share of home-based workers in this country (65.8 percent) is a characteristic of its huge informal sector (more than 92 percent of the non-agricultural labour force is in the informal sector) and a consequence of their enumeration as non located in an establishment. Therefore this figure must be interpreted simultaneously with the share of street-based vendors (5 percent of the non-agricultural labour force): in this country, street vendors have been enumerated separately, but only in urban areas; many of the home-based workers in rural areas are probably farm-based workers or vendors, or road-based vendors.

It should be noted that surprisingly, the share of women in home-based work dramatically dropped in Tunisia from the 1994 population census to the 1997 labour force survey, while the total incidence of home-based work more than doubled: these two estimates have not been generated from the same type of tables, and this probably means that this type of variable is very sensitive to the survey instruments and methods. The same effect (in the opposite direction) can be observed for Brazil where the share of women in home-based work increased between the 1991 population census and the 1995 labour force survey.

Table 1.3 indicates the share of street workers in the non-agricultural labour force of various developing countries.

Compared with home-based workers, street workers (as recorded on Table 1.3) are far fewer in number: between 3 and 8 percent of the non-agricultural labour force. Most of them are engaged in trade activities and for own-account.

If the proportion of street vendors seems consistent in the various countries, the share of women in this component of the labour force is quite variable from country to country: very few women are engaged in street vending in Tunisia, an Arabic-islamic country where religion and culture prevent women from undertaking activities in the street. At the opposite end of the scale, very many women operate in the streets in Benin (contrary to home-based workers, the number of street vendors in Benin has been enumerated through an ad hoc census). Brazil and Kenya have, in the middle, a share of 30 percent of women involved in street vending.

Table 1.3: Proportion and characteristics of street-based workers in various countries.

	Number of street vendors	% of non-agricultural labour force	% females	Females		
				% own-account	% trade	% under-employed
Tunisia (1984)	59,200	4.5	1.8	100.0	...	25
Tunisia (1994)	132,832	5.2	3.9	54
Tunisia (1997)	125,619	6.4	2.1
Kenya (1999)	416,294	8.1	32.7
Benin (1992)	45,591	5.0	81.3	...	98.8	...
India (1999-2000)	3,881,700	2.8	14.0
Brazil (1991)	1,445,806	3.4	30.0	88.8	91.7	...

Sources: Own calculations on the basis of national population censuses and household surveys as indicated in sources for Table 1.2. **Notes:** ... not available

Finally, homework and street vending would typically represent at least 10 percent of the non-agricultural labour force in the developing countries reviewed, and more probably 20 to 25 percent, of which 3/4 to 4/5 are females. These categories of the labour force are normally characterised by having the worst conditions of work, the lowest wages, often piece-rate, and they do not benefit of any social protection. These labourers are the means by which competition at world level implements the reduction of labour costs and gets round the labour laws and the systems of labour protection. Consequently, they are not declared by the enterprises which hire many of them through sub-contracting arrangements by the means of middlemen (these are the homeworkers to whom the 1996 ILO Convention refers). The underestimation of this category of the labour force is a real issue for the application of the fundamental labour standards and the extension of social protection systems.

A last example can illustrate the pertinence of data collection on “place of work” in order to estimate the size of the phenomenon. It refers to the Egyptian long experience of including this variable in censuses. The statistical Agency CAPMAS has collected data on “place of work”, both in population censuses and in establishment censuses which are carried out in parallel with the population censuses, at national level every ten years. This was not to develop a detailed classification of workplaces, but rather to identify whether domestic premises are used for economic activities (population census) or whether economic units are using domestic premises for undertaking their activities (establishment census).

In this country, which is one of the few to have carried out, simultaneously and on a regular basis, both types of censuses, comparisons between the two sources provide significant insights on the relative size of homework, outwork and enterprises in domestic premises. Correspondingly, comparisons facilitate the estimation of informal sector employment, and

they are particularly pertinent to reveal the importance of work in domestic premises and to refine the assumptions concerning the proportion of outworkers. The population census asks whether homes or dwelling places are used for economic activities, and in the establishment census, the question is raised as to whether the activity is performed in domestic premises. It is then possible, by simple comparison, to measure the size of the labour force in large, medium and small establishments (in the establishment census), and for these 3 categories, and mainly, but not only, for the last one, the proportion of workshops and jobs taking place in domestic premises. Furthermore, since the total number of jobs in establishments is always lower than the total number of jobs declared in households (because home-based and street-based work is always more underestimated in establishment censuses and surveys than in household censuses and surveys), and since the underlying difference is larger than self-employed work carried out within homes, one can estimate the segment of the labour force “concealed” in the establishment census. Table 1.4 gives an idea of the size of this component of the informal sector in Cairo.

The above review of some of the available statistics has shown how difficult they are to collect, and how highly sensitive the results are (to changes in legislation in particular). But the review also clearly indicates the potential usefulness of such statistics and where are their main shortcomings relative to the users’ needs. Major efforts are still needed to arrive at more appropriate and precise definitions and a better measurement of this component of the labour force. The following section outlines possible orientations for further efforts in data collection and compilation on “place of work” in the perspective of a better enumeration and knowledge of homeworkers and street workers.

Table 1.4 : Estimated number of concealed establishments, and number of establishments in domestic premises - Cairo, 1976-1986.

	1976		1986	
	Cairo Centre	Total Cairo	Cairo Centre	Total Cairo
Number of establishments (census of establishments)	93,939	168,881	104,869	236,371
- of which: in domestic premises (1)	14,277	18,819	15,256	26,237
Number of domestic premises used for economic activity (2) (population census)	21,949	29,210	24,577	45,181
Number of concealed establishments (2) – (1) = (3)	7,672	10,391	9,321	18,944
Total number of establishments (4)	101,611	179,272	114,190	255,315
% domestic premises (2)/(4)	21.6	16.3	21.5	17.7
% concealed among establishments in domestic premises (3)/(2)	35.0	35.6	37.9	41.9

Source : Charmes J. (1990b)

1.3. Next steps towards the measurement of outwork or homework.

From the few experiences to have been examined, it can be observed that several solutions have been tested: merging the “place of work” variable with other variables and their classifications such as: legal status, industries, status in employment, type of enterprise, etc. The resulting pre-coded classifications used have sometimes become lengthy and maybe difficult to apply. It is rather surprising to note that data collected for this variable have rarely been analysed in any detail in the publication of results from censuses and surveys, perhaps because the issues to be investigated had not been clearly formulated. A conclusion is that there is a huge need for formulating the issues related to this variable and for showing the rising importance of these categories of the labour force which remain out of any social protection and which need to be made more visible in labour statistics.

It should also be emphasised that greater attention needs to be given to the similarities between street workers and outworkers as the tasks of both groups are often done under sub-contracts from large firms. Street vendors or, more broadly speaking, street-workers might not be as independent as they may seem to be: they may purchase or hire from the same supplier the goods that they sell or tools that they use, or they may be given the goods by the supplier who pays more or less the equivalent of a salary. The employment status of street vendors is not easy to identify. As for outworkers, it is a challenge for data collection because they have always been assumed to work for own-account: the literature on street vendors is generally dumb about the fact that some or many of them may be piece-rate employees. Similar issues relating to questionnaire design and data collection methods can be raised for enumerating and surveying street vendors and homeworkers.

The recent, rapid and visible (although not documented) expansion on the pavements of large cities, especially in Africa, of the segment of the informal sector labour force which operates outside an enterprise's premises has also implied, in many countries, to enlarge the concept of street vendors to the category of street workers including, among others, the following: tailors specialised in mending, carrying their sewing machines on their heads, hairdressers carrying their stools, cheap and fast meal sellers, cycles and motor vehicles' repairers and so many other services workers. Such workers for a long time have taken to the pavements and the streets of the towns. More recently manufacturing activities such as furniture's makers or metal workers are leaving the courtyards to be done in the street. The share of street vendors in the crowd of street workers and outworkers in general has tended to drop. In a sense, the streets have become an annex of the homes, although the necessity of being visible to the clientele is not as important for homeworkers as for street vendors.

Consequently, the measurement of home-based work as a category of the labour force cannot be distinct and should not be distinguished from the measurement of street vendors for three reasons:

- S both categories can be measured through the variable “place of work”,
- S an unknown proportion of “outworkers” may work in the streets as well as in their homes,

- S an unknown proportion of street vendors are dependent workers, paid by formal traders.

Two additional issues should be considered relating to the differences between street vendors in rural and in urban areas. First, street vending is not only an urban phenomenon. Perhaps even more than in urban areas, the non-agricultural labour force in rural areas is located outside enterprises' premises. Vendors are particularly numerous along roads that cross villages or at the cross-roads, and many farmers or family workers who are classified in agricultural activities for their main jobs, are road vendors or market vendors for their second (annual or seasonal) jobs. Second, the trade and sales activities may concern goods produced by the same persons on their farms or in their homes and this represents a conceptual and methodological difficulty in rural as well as in urban areas (in terms of the separate classification of the activities and measurement of their value added). To sell self-produced goods should not be considered as a different activity from producing them, except if there is a kind of transformation (such as crushing the grains or cereals, but this will not be the case for fruit or vegetables) or if they have been carried on long distances to be sold in market places. This is not a marginal point concerning the measurement of women's activities. It is probably an important source of underestimation of their contribution as far as this contribution is limited to commercial margins and does not take the value added in the production process into account (see Charmes, 2000b). This is important for a correct counting of street vendors: on the one hand, many (especially men) will have declared themselves as producers in households surveys while they will be registered as vendors in establishments censuses. On the other hand and in the contrary, many female street vendors will spontaneously declare themselves as traders, while they have (invisibly) processed the goods they sell.

Having said that and given the use made of data collected on "place of work" until now, it should be emphasised that this variable is collected for the main purpose of measuring home-based and street-based work. In this regard, there is an urgent need for a clarification of the concepts.

Rather than trying to pursue an exhaustive, coherent but illusory coverage of all encountered situations by mixing up existing classifications with ad hoc various (and internationally-difficult-to-compare) shopping lists of work locations, it can be recommended to start with a classification of work-locations distinguishing:

- S Dwellings: 1) own dwellings (at home), 2) attached or adjacent to dwellings, 3) from home; and as clearly separate from the three previous sub-categories 4) clients' or employer's home.
- S Open spaces: 1) street adjacent to home; 2) street; 3) door to door; 4) building sites; 5) agricultural areas.
- S Other permanent structures.

Such a classification could be progressively and empirically built on the basis of the following conclusions of the present study.

1.4. Conclusions and recommendations

Measurement of the “place of work” in labour force surveys, informal sector surveys and population censuses as a tool for identifying homeworkers/outworkers and street vendors emerged as an important issue to tackle at international level as early as the second meeting of the Delhi Group in Ankara (1998). Further to the adoption of the convention on homeworkers by the International Labour Conference in 1996, the international coalition on “Women in Informal Employment : Globalising and Organising” (WIEGO) stressed the existence of two categories of workers which are not clearly identified in the new international definition of the informal sector adopted by the XVth ICLS in 1993, either because they overlap the boundaries of the concept of informal sector (the “outworkers”) and constitute a major category of what is now referred to as “informal employment” or because they are a sub-category which the currently and usually collected variables fail to identify separately (the street vendors or street workers).

The overlap of the “outworkers” category is a consequence of the definition of the informal sector through the characteristics of the economic unit. The 1993 definition splits the outworker category between the informal and the formal sectors, making it difficult to be captured as a single category of the labour force all the more so as employers would not spontaneously declare these workers who must be identified at the household level rather than at the enterprise level. Outwork is nevertheless a major instrument for maintaining the flexibility of labour markets, especially in a context of increasing competition and globalisation, as they are a means by which formal firms get round the labour and social laws. Consequently, it is a major issue for labour statistics.

In the labour force surveys, the knowledge of the characteristics of the sub-contracting firm by the outworkers is even more uncertain than for the workers employed on the site of the enterprise. On the demand side, in the enterprise surveys, the outworkers are unlikely to be spontaneously declared by the sub-contracting – formal as well as informal – firms. While the 1993 ICSE has defined the category of homemaker/outworker and provide guidelines on how this can be included in household surveys as part of the categories of status in employment, most countries do not try to identify separately the category in their labour force surveys.

As to the street vendors category, although it is a category of the ISCO, they are unlikely to be recorded as such in the labour force surveys unless a specific question on the place of work is asked in the questionnaire. An additional problem is that “street vendor” is at a 3-digit level in the occupational classification while most surveys record occupation only at the 1- or 2-digit level (contrary to ILO and UN advice).

Both categories raise gender issues as women represent a majority of these workers, at least in some regions of the world. Both categories are of special interest for socio-economic security, social protection and child labour, because of their vulnerability, their lack of social protection, their potentialities towards putting children to work, their lack and difficulty of organisation.

Certainly the question of “place of work” is not sufficient per se to throw the light on a supposedly increasing and surely vulnerable component of the labour force. But it is a

necessary step towards a better capture and understanding of the phenomenon. Moreover, it is a rather concrete question which – although more difficult to manage in the conduct of surveys than usually taken for granted – arouses less reluctance to design, incorporate and respond than the more difficult, complex and abstract question on “types of contractual arrangements”.

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Examining Place of Work in South Africa

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Statistics South Africa

2.1. Introduction

This report was prepared as part of a joint project of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO)¹. The UNDP/ILO programme focuses on the use of questions concerning place of work in labour force surveys. One of the motivating factors is a concern that certain groups of workers, such as street vendors and home-based workers, are poorly identified in conventional labour force surveys. The project hopes to establish whether questions on place of work would address this shortcoming and, if so, what the best form for such questions would be.

This report discusses the experience with place of work questions in Statistics South Africa, the government statistical agency of the country. It discusses three recent surveys which have included place of work questions. The first survey, the survey of activities of young people (SAYP), was commissioned by the South African Department of Labour as part of the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), and was funded through the ILO. Fieldwork for the survey was conducted during 1999. The second survey is a newly introduced labour force survey (LFS) which was conducted for the first time in February 2000, and which will be repeated on a six-monthly basis. The third survey is the first national time use survey. This latter survey is being conducted with financial and technical assistance from Norway. The survey involves three tranches

¹Thanks are due to ILO and Norway for financial and technical assistance in respect of the Survey of activities of young people and time use study respectively. Thanks are also due to Marge Guerrero and Adriana Mata-Greenwood for assistance and encouragement for this paper, and to all those at Stats SA who contributed in many different ways to the surveys discussed here.

of fieldwork so as to capture seasonal variations. This report examines data from the first tranche, conducted in February 2000.

The three surveys were at different stages at the times of writing this paper. The SAYP was complete, and analysis was thus possible on the full, cleaned dataset. The dataset from the LFS was not yet available, and this paper can thus only discuss the questions which were asked and what we hope to get out of the analysis. For the time use survey, only the data from the first tranche, unweighted and uncleaned, was available. The figures presented below are thus very tentative.

2.2. Survey of activities of young people (SAYP)

The Survey of activities of young people (SAYP) was conducted during 1999. It was commissioned by the Department of Labour, with assistance from the ILO.

The SAYP was conducted in two phases, with different questionnaires administered in each phase of the survey.

- S The first phase questionnaire was used for screening purposes;
- S The second phase questionnaire explored details on persons from households identified in the first phase as having child labour characteristics.

The screening questions were directed at the main respondent to the first phase questionnaire. A household was considered as having child labour characteristics if any one child in the household:

- (a) had been engaged, at any time in the preceding 12 months, in any of the following economic activities *for pay, profit and/or economic family gain*:
 - S running any kind of business, big or small for the child him/herself;
 - S helping unpaid in a family business;
 - S helping in farming activities on the family plot, food garden, cattle post or kraal;
 - S catching or gathering any fish, prawns, shellfish, wild animals or any other food, for sale or for family consumption;
 - S doing any work for a wage, salary or any payment in kind; or
 - S begging for money or food in public; and/or
- (b) had been engaged regularly for one hour per day or more on any or all of the following activities:
 - S housekeeping activities within their households;
 - S fetching wood or water or in unpaid domestic work; or
 - S helping in cleaning and improvements at school.

The main body of questions in the second phase were thus addressed to all children aged 5-17 years in households identified as containing children engaged in some type of work – whether strictly economic (which included begging), extended economic (fetching wood or water, and

working unpaid as domestic worker in own household where mother, father and grandparents not present), or cleaning and improvement at school.

The prompts for the strictly economic work were as follows:

7.1 In the last 12 months, up till yesterday, did you do any of the following activities?

- (a) Any kind of business, big or small, for yourself? (*Examples: Selling things, making things for sale, repairing things, guarding cars, donkey cart or other transport business etc*)
- (b) Help unpaid in a family business of any kind? (*Examples: Help to sell or make things for sale, cleaning up for a business, etc. Don't count normal housework.*)
- (c) Help on the family plot, food garden, cattle post or kraal? (*Examples: Ploughing, harvesting, weeding, looking after livestock.*)
- (d) Catch any fish, prawns, shells, wild animals, or other food for sale or family food?
- (e) Do any work for a wage, salary, or any payments in kind, even if only for one hour? (*Examples, Part time or casual, domestic work for pay, work in exchange for food or housing.*)
- (f) Beg for money or food in public?

Each child was asked each of the questions (a) to (f). An individual child could, thus, specify having performed more than one of these economic activities during the past 12 months. As with all Stats SA questionnaires, the words in italic were for the fieldworker rather than for reading out to the interviewee.

The location question (Question 7.14) fell in the same section of the questionnaire, but was asked only of those who had engaged in certain types of work. It was also asked only of the main type of work performed in the past twelve months. The question was not asked of those whose status was recorded as working in private households as a paid domestic worker, or working on the family plot or collecting natural products. It was not asked of those who said they worked for government, parastatal or other non-private organisations. It was not asked of those who worked in a business with ten or more workers.

The location question read as follows:

Is/was this business located:

- 1 – In the owner's or someone's home
- 2 – In another permanent building/fixed location
- 3 – At a market (excluding wholesale market)
- 4 – On a footpath, street or open space
- 5 – No fixed location
- 6 – Other, specify

The logic behind skipping this question for certain workers was that it was intended as one indicator of formality or informality. Domestic workers and those working on their own plot were excluded on the basis that these are automatically classified as informal.

The location question was placed among a series of questions probing other aspects of the formal/informal divide. The other questions in the series were:

7.13 How many workers has the business/activity where you worked?

1 – 1 person only (i.e. yourself)

2 – 2-4

3 – 5-9

4 – 10-19

5 – 20 or more

6 – don't know

(Those who answered categories 4 or 5, were directed to skip the following questions, including the ones on place of work)

7.15 Would you call this business:

1 – formal, or

2 – informal

(Interviewer instructed to assist respondents with guide as to the meaning of formal/informal and reach agreement with the respondent as to the answer)

In designing the slightly later LFS, Stats SA realised that the location question was useful in respect of both formal and informal economy work. The question was thus addressed to the categories excluded in the SAYP. For the purpose of this analysis, we added children working for private households were to the 'owner's or someone's home' category on assumption that they all work from private homes. Children working on family farms or collecting natural products from the forests, veld or sea were added to the category 'other'.

Unfortunately these assumptions had to be implemented in respect of almost 70% of the working children. The skip instructions were given on the basis of the response to Q7.10, which asked about work status, rather than on the basis of the activities the child said he or she performed. During analysis we discovered some anomalies between the recorded activities and the status. Thus, 48 out of 82 children whose occupation was recorded as domestic worker, did not have their status recorded as working for a private household. These 48 children were thus assumed to be in 'other' location according to our rule above, rather than the more likely 'home' location.

Table 2.1 shows the place of work by type of main activity and sex. Overall, it shows 70% of children working in the 'other' location. Many of these will be there because of the application of the rule for family farms. So, for example, 90% of those who did work on a family plot have location specified as 'other'. The second largest category was private homes, accounting for 15% of children, while 8% of children had no fixed location for their work. There are extremely few children working in markets. This almost certainly reflects the absence of markets more than anything else. There are also relatively few working on a footpath, street or open space.

The table suggests that of all the children engaged in economic activities, 15,3% work in homes. Girls are more likely than boys to work in homes – 17,3% of them are in homes, compared to 13,7% of boys. Focusing in on particular activities, the table shows that children who helped unpaid

in a family business are most likely to work from homes. Over three in five (61,1%) of these children work from homes. A large proportion (41,1%) of those who run their own business also say that they work from homes.

Table 2.1. Economic activities, by location, main activity & sex (000s)

Type of activity	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/fix ed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Run or do any kind of business	Boys	39	39,0	4	3,6	1	0,6	12	12,1	28	27,6	17	16,8	0	0,3	100	1000
	Girls	57	44,0	7	5,0	0	0,0	9	6,5	44	33,9	12	9,4	1	1,1	130	1000
	Unspecified	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	46,1	0	0,0	0	53,9	0	0,0	1	1000
	Total	96	41,7	10	4,4	1	0,3	21	9,1	72	31,1	30	12,8	2	0,8	231	1000
Help unpaid in a family business	Boys	115	62,4	8	4,1	2	0,9	6	3,4	37	19,9	15	8,2	2	1,2	185	1000
	Girls	153	60,0	24	9,3	0	0,1	10	4,0	51	20,2	13	5,2	3	1,3	255	1000
	Unspecified	1	80,6	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	19,4	0	0,0	1	1000
	Total	269	61,1	31	7,1	2	0,4	16	3,7	88	20,0	29	6,5	5	1,2	441	1000
Do any work on family plot,food garden or kraal	Boys	51	3,9	4	0,3	0	0,0	5	0,3	24	1,8	1180	90,6	41	3,1	1303	1000
	Girls	40	3,7	4	0,3	0	0,0	3	0,3	34	3,1	976	89,2	37	3,4	1095	1000
	Unspecified	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	1,5	16	98,5	0	0,0	17	1000
	Total	91	3,8	7	0,3	0	0,0	8	0,3	58	2,4	2173	90,0	78	3,2	2415	1000
Catch any fish,wild animal	Boys	1	1,0	0	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	8,0	56	84,9	4	5,9	66	1000
	Girls	1	5,8	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	12,0	8	79,0	0	3,2	10	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	1	1,6	0	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	6	8,5	64	84,1	4	5,5	76	1000
Do any work for pay	Boys	37	24,2	17	10,8	5	3,4	8	5,3	28	18,1	57	37,5	1	0,7	153	1000
	Girls	24	25,1	11	11,8	0	0,0	1	1,4	2	1,9	57	59,0	1	0,9	96	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	61	24,6	28	11,2	5	2,1	9	3,8	29	11,8	114	45,8	2	0,8	249	1000
Begging	Boys	2	15,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	2,5	5	46,7	2	21,5	2	13,5	11	1000
	Girls	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	9,4	1	22,2	1	15,2	2	53,2	4	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	2	11,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	4,2	6	40,6	3	19,9	4	23,4	15	1000
Unspecified	Boys	9	29,9	0	0,0	0	0,1	0	0,0	5	16,6	12	40,0	4	13,4	30	1000
	Girls	2	11,9	1	4,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	24,2	8	43,3	3	16,5	19	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	22,9	1	1,6	0	0,1	0	0,0	10	19,5	20	41,3	7	14,6	49	1000
Total	Boys	253	13,7	31	1,7	7	0,4	31	1,7	131	7,1	1340	72,5	54	2,9	1849	1000
	Girls	278	17,3	46	2,9	0	0,0	24	1,5	138	8,6	1075	66,8	48	3,0	1609	1000
	Unspecified	1	5,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	1,9	0	1,3	17	91,5	0	0,0	19	1000
	Total	532	15,3	78	2,2	8	0,2	55	1,6	270	7,8	2433	70,0	102	2,9	3476	100

Table 2.2 presents the same information, but this time records percentage of the row rather than the column. Instead of showing what percentage of children engaged in a particular activity are in each of the locations, it shows what percentage of children in a particular location are doing each of the activities. Overall, it shows 70% of children reporting work on a family plot, 13% reporting unpaid work in a family business, and 7% running or doing their own business. Boys are more likely than girls to do work on the family plot, while girls are more likely to help unpaid in a family business.

Table 2.2. Economic activities by location, main activity and sex (000s)

Type of activity	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Run or do any kind of business	Boys	39	7,3	4	4,6	1	7,9	12	21,9	28	10,2	17	0,7	0	0,3	100	2,9
	Girls	57	10,8	7	8,4	0	0,0	9	15,4	44	16,4	12	0,5	1	1,4	130	3,7
	Unspecified	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,6	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,0
	Total	96	18,1	10	13,0	1	7,9	21	38,0	72	26,6	30	1,2	2	1,7	231	6,6
Help unpaid in a family business	Boys	115	21,6	8	9,8	2	21,5	6	11,3	37	13,6	15	0,6	2	2,1	185	5,3
	Girls	153	28,8	24	30,6	0	2,4	10	18,4	51	19,1	13	0,5	3	3,1	255	7,3
	Unspecified	1	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,0
	Total	269	50,6	31	40,4	2	23,9	16	29,8	88	32,7	29	1,2	5	5,2	441	12,7
Do any work on family plot, food garden or kraal	Boys	51	9,5	4	4,6	0	0,0	5	8,2	24	8,8	1180	48,5	41	40,0	1303	37,5
	Girls	40	7,6	4	4,9	0	0,0	3	5,9	34	12,7	976	40,1	37	36,5	1095	31,5
	Unspecified	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,1	16	0,7	0	0,0	17	0,5
	Total	91	17,1	7	9,5	0	0,0	8	14,2	58	21,5	2173	89,3	78	76,4	2415	69,5
Catch any fish, wild animal	Boys	1	0,1	0	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	2,0	56	2,3	4	3,8	66	1,9
	Girls	1	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,4	8	0,3	0	0,3	10	0,3
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	1	0,2	0	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	6	2,4	64	2,6	4	4,1	76	2,2
Do any work for pay	Boys	37	7,0	17	21,3	5	67,8	8	14,5	28	10,3	57	2,4	1	1,1	153	4,4
	Girls	24	4,5	11	14,6	0	0,0	1	2,4	2	0,7	57	2,3	1	0,9	96	2,8
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	61	11,5	28	36,0	5	67,8	9	16,9	29	10,9	114	4,7	2	2,0	249	7,2
Begging	Boys	2	0,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,5	5	2,0	2	0,1	2	1,5	11	0,3
	Girls	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,6	1	0,3	1	0,0	2	2,0	4	0,1
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	2	0,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	1,1	6	2,3	3	0,1	4	3,5	15	0,4
Unspecified	Boys	9	1,7	0	0,0	0	0,4	0	0,0	5	1,8	12	0,5	4	4,0	30	0,9
	Girls	2	0,4	1	1,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	1,7	8	0,3	3	3,1	19	0,5
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	11	2,1	1	1,0	0	0,4	0	0,0	10	3,6	20	0,8	7	7,0	49	1,4
Total	Boys	253	47,6	31	40,4	7	97,6	31	56,5	131	48,7	1340	55,1	54	52,8	1849	53,2
	Girls	278	52,2	46	59,6	0	2,4	24	42,9	138	51,2	1075	44,2	48	47,2	1609	46,3
	Unspecified	1	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,6	0	0,1	17	0,7	0	0,0	19	0,5
	Total	532	100,0	78	100,0	8	100,0	55	100,0	270	100,0	2433	100,0	102	100,0	3476	100,0

The table shows that of all children who work from home 50,6% help unpaid in family business. Again, more girls than boys are likely to help on an unpaid basis. However, when it comes to working for pay from homes, there are more boys than girls.

Table 2.3 disregards the type of activity, but looks at the population group and sex patterns in respect of location. It shows what percentage of girls and boys in a particular group work in each of the different locations.

Table 2.3. Economic activities by location, population group and sex (000s)

Population group	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
African	Boys	200	12,1	11	0,7	7	0,4	26	1,6	111	6,7	1260	75,8	46	2,7	1661	1000
	Girls	232	15,8	35	2,4	0	0,0	20	1,3	130	8,9	1012	68,8	42	2,9	1471	1000
	Unspecified	1	5,5		0,0		0,0	0	2,0	0	1,4	16	91,1		0,0	18	1000
	Total	433	13,8	46	1,5	7	0,2	46	1,5	242	7,7	2288	72,6	88	2,8	3151	1000
Coloured	Boys	28	40,7	10	14,3	0	0,1	5	7,8	4	5,6	20	28,8	2	2,5	68	1000
	Girls	26	39,2	1	1,5		0,0	2	3,6	1	1,1	33	49,1	4	5,5	67	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	54	39,9	11	8,0	0	0,1	8	5,7	5	3,4	52	38,9	5	4,0	134	1000
Indian/Asian	Boys	6	21,9	1	4,7		0,0		0,0	7	28,5	12	44,9		0,0	26	1000
	Girls	4	32,6	3	23,1		0,0	0	0,2	2	13,6	4	30,4		0,0	13	1000
	Unspecified		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	100,0		0,0	1	1000
	Total	10	25,1	4	10,7		0,0	0	0,1	9	23,0	16	41,1		0,0	40	1000
White	Boys	20	22,4	9	10,8	0	0,3		0,0	9	9,9	45	51,8	4	4,8	88	1000
	Girls	15	28,6	7	12,8		0,0	2	3,2	5	10,1	22	41,4	2	4,0	53	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	35	24,7	16	11,5	0	0,2	2	1,2	14	9,9	67	47,9	6	4,5	141	1000
Other	Boys	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	4	63,1	2	36,9	6	1000
	Girls	0	9,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	90,9	0	0,0	5	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	4,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	9	76,3	2	19,4	11	1000
Total	Boys	253	13,7	31	1,7	7	0,4	31	1,7	131	7,1	1340	72,5	54	2,9	1849	1000
	Girls	278	17,3	46	2,9	0	0,0	24	1,5	138	8,6	1075	66,8	48	3,0	1609	1000
	Unspecified	1	5,3		0,0		0,0	0	1,9	0	1,3	17	91,5		0,0	19	1000
	Total	532	15,3	78	2,2	8	0,2	55	1,6	270	7,8	2433	70,0	102	2,9	3476	1000

The table shows clear variation across the population with regard to place of work. Thus 14% of the African children who are engaged in economic activity work from home as compared to 40% of coloured children. When it comes to no fixed location, 8% of the African children work from no fixed location as compared to 23% of the Indian children. Close on three-quarters (73%) of African children are recorded in the 'other' category. This partly reflects the fact that we allocated work on the family plot to this category. However this location also accounts for a large proportion for each of the other population groups.

The table shows that, across all race groups except coloured, girls are more likely than boys to work in homes. The pattern is strongest for Indian children. On the other hand, coloured and Indian boys are far more likely than girls to have work with no fixed location.

Table 2.4 presents the same information, but with the percentages summed column-wise rather than row-wise. It thus shows what percentage of children working in a particular location belong to each race-sex grouping.

Table 2.4. Economic activities by location, population group and sex (000s)

Population Group	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/ fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
African	Boys	200	37,7	11	14,1	7	92,4	26	46,9	111	41,3	1260	51,8	46	44,8	1661	478
	Girls	232	43,6	35	45,7	0	2,4	20	35,4	130	48,3	1012	41,6	42	41,6	1471	423
	Unspecified	1	0,2	-	0,0	-	0,0	0	0,6	0	0,1	16	0,7	-	0,0	18	5
	Total	433	81,4	46	59,8	7	94,8	46	82,9	242	89,8	2288	94,1	88	86,3	3151	906
Coloured	Boys	28	5,2	10	12,6	0	1,2	5	9,6	4	1,4	20	0,8	2	1,7	68	20
	Girls	26	4,9	1	1,3	-	0,0	2	4,3	1	0,3	33	1,3	4	3,6	67	19
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	54	10,1	11	13,9	0	1,2	8	14,0	5	1,7	52	2,1	5	5,3	134	39
Indian/Asian	Boys	6	1,1	1	1,5	-	0,0	-	0,0	7	2,7	12	0,5	-	0,0	26	7
	Girls	4	0,8	3	3,9	-	0,0	0	0,1	2	0,7	4	0,2	-	0,0	13	4
	Unspecified	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	1	0,0	-	0,0	1	0
	Total	10	1,9	4	5,5	-	0,0	0	0,1	9	3,4	16	0,7	-	0,0	40	11
White	Boys	20	3,7	9	12,2	0	4,0	-	0,0	9	3,2	45	1,9	4	4,2	88	25
	Girls	15	2,8	7	8,7	-	0,0	2	3,1	5	2,0	22	0,9	2	2,1	53	15
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	35	6,5	16	20,9	0	4,0	2	3,1	14	5,2	67	2,8	6	6,2	141	40
Other/ unspecified	Boys	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	4	0,2	2	2,1	6	2
	Girls	0	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	0,2	0	0,0	5	2
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	9	0,4	2	2,1	11	3
Total	Boys	253	47,6	31	40,4	7	97,6	31	56,5	131	48,7	1340	55,1	54	52,8	1849	532
	Girls	278	52,2	46	59,6	0	2,4	24	42,9	138	51,2	1075	44,2	48	47,2	1609	463
	Unspecified	1	0,2	-	0,0	-	0,0	0	0,6	0	0,1	17	0,7	-	0,0	19	5
	Total	532	100,0	78	100,0	8	100,0	55	100,0	270	100,0	2433	100,0	102	100,0	3476	1000

The table shows that African children form a smaller percentage of children working in homes than of any other location. However, they still account for 81% of those working from home. Coloured and white children account for disproportionately large proportions (14% and 21%) of children working in permanent buildings or fixed locations. This reflects the relatively privileged position of these two population groups in respect of more formal work. Coloured children also account for a disproportionately large proportion (14%) of those working on a footpath, street or open space.

Disregarding race, we now look at the interplay between work status and location. This table uses Q7.10 rather than Q7.1. By our rule for dealing with skips above, all the children working on a family plot are thus recorded in the 'other' location.

Table 2.5. Economic activities by location, work status and sex (000s)

Status of work	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/ fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Working for someone else for pay	Boys	19	14,1	17	12,9	5	3,8	7	5,4	35	26,5	48	36,5	1	0,8	132	1000
	Girls	12	12,5	11	11,9	-	0,0	1	1,4	13	13,8	57	60,0	0	0,4	94	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	30	13,4	28	12,5	5	2,2	8	3,7	48	21,2	105	46,3	1	0,7	226	1000
Working for one or more private household	Boys	33	100,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	33	1000
	Girls	19	100,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	19	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	52	100,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	52	1000
Working on your family land/plot or collecting natural products from the forest, veld or sea	Boys	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	1273	100,0	-	0,0	1273	1000
	Girls	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	1005	100,0	-	0,0	1005	1000
	Unspecified	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	17	100,0	-	0,0	17	1000
	Total	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	2294	100,0	-	0,0	2294	1000
Working on your own or with a partner in any kind of business	Boys	34	32,1	4	3,5	1	0,7	11	10,8	44	41,5	12	11,2	0	0,2	105	1000
	Girls	53	38,5	7	5,2	-	0,0	8	5,9	65	46,6	5	3,6	0	0,2	139	1000
	Unspecified	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	0	59,6	0	40,4	-	0,0	-	0,0	1	1000
	Total	87	35,6	11	4,5	1	0,3	20	8,2	109	44,4	17	6,9	1	0,2	244	1000
Helping without pay in a family business	Boys	167	65,3	11	4,1	2	0,6	13	5,0	53	20,5	7	2,9	4	1,6	256	1000
	Girls	194	62,6	28	9,0	0	0,1	14	4,6	60	19,5	9	2,9	4	1,3	310	1000
	Unspecified	1	100,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	1	1000
	Total	362	63,9	38	6,8	2	0,3	27	4,7	113	19,9	17	2,9	8	1,4	567	1000
Unspecified	Boys	0	0,2	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	48	99,8	48	1000
	Girls	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	43	100,0	43	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0,1	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	-	0,0	91	99,9	92	1000
Total	Boys	253	13,7	31	1,7	7	0,4	31	1,7	131	7,1	1340	72,5	54	2,9	1849	1000
	Girls	278	17,3	46	2,9	0	0,0	24	1,5	138	8,6	1075	66,8	48	3,0	1609	1000
	Unspecified	1	5,3	-	0,0	-	0,0	0	1,9	0	1,3	17	91,5	-	0,0	19	1000
	Total	532	15,3	78	2,2	8	0,2	55	1,6	270	7,8	2433	70,0	102	2,9	3476	1000

The table shows that of the children working for someone else for pay, a large percentage (47%) are recorded in the 'other' location. However there is also a relatively large proportion (21%) who work from no fixed location and 13% who work from a private home. No fixed location is a common occurrence (accounting for 44%) for children working for themselves or with a partner in any kind of business. Helping without pay in a family business mainly takes place at home – close on two-thirds (64%) are in this position.

Table 2.6 looks at location by industry. Because children were clustered in a few industries, we have aggregated all except agriculture and wholesale and retail trade.

Table 2.6. *Economic activities by location, industry and sex (000s)*

Industry	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another building/ fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Agriculture	Boys	40	2,9	4	0,3		0,0	7	0,5	24	1,7	1296	94,4	2	0,1	1374	1000
	Girls	32	2,9	4	0,4		0,0	3	0,3	14	1,2	1038	95,1	0	0,0	1091	1000
	Unspecified		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	0	1,4	17	98,6		0,0	17	1000
	Total	72	2,9	9	0,4		0,0	10	0,4	38	1,5	2352	94,7	2	0,1	2482	1000
Wholesale and retail	Boys	152	49,7	23	7,4	7	2,3	19	6,3	81	26,5	20	6,7	3	1,1	306	1000
	Girls	213	51,8	40	9,7	0	0,0	20	4,8	115	27,9	23	5,6	1	0,1	411	1000
	Unspecified	1	73,3		0,0		0,0	0	26,7		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	1000
	Total	366	50,9	63	8,7	7	1,0	39	5,5	196	27,3	43	6,0	4	0,5	718	1000
Other	Boys	61	50,8	4	3,5	0	0,3	5	4,3	26	21,5	23	19,5	0	0,1	120	1000
	Girls	31	54,2	2	3,5		0,0	0	0,8	10	16,9	14	23,5	1	1,0	58	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	92	51,9	6	3,5	0	0,2	6	3,2	36	20,0	37	20,8	1	0,4	178	1000
Unspecified	Boys		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	1,2	0	0,2	49	98,6	49	1000
	Girls	2	4,3		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	47	95,7	49	1000
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	2	2,1		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	0,6	0	0,1	95	97,2	98	1000
Total	Boys	253	13,7	31	1,7	7	0,4	31	1,7	131	7,1	1340	72,5	54	2,9	1849	1000
	Girls	278	17,3	46	2,9	0	0,0	24	1,5	138	8,6	1075	66,8	48	3,0	1609	1000
	Unspecified	1	5,3		0,0		0,0	0	1,9	0	1,3	17	91,5		0,0	19	1000
	Total	532	15,3	78	2,2	8	0,2	55	1,6	270	7,8	2433	70,0	102	2,9	3476	100,0

The table shows 95% of children in agriculture working classified in the 'other' category in respect of location. Again this is largely explained by work on the family farm. For those working in trade, private homes (51%) and no fixed location (27%) account for the majority. The large number selling from home may seem strange to a non-South African, but is explained by the prohibition of most forms of business in urban African areas during apartheid.

Table 2.7 shows the same information, but this time with percentages summed column-wise. It thus shows the percentage of children in each location who are found in a particular industry.

Table 2.7. *Economic activities by location, industry and sex (000s)*

Industry	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/ fixed location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspec		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Agriculture	Boys	40	7,6	4	5,7		0,0	7	12,4	24	8,8	1296	53,3	2	1,6	1374	3
	Girls	32	5,9	4	5,7		0,0	3	5,9	14	5,0	1038	42,7	0	0,3	1091	3
	Unspecified		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	0	0,1	17	0,7		0,0	17	
	Total	72	13,5	9	11,4		0,0	10	18,4	38	13,9	2352	96,7	2	1,9	2482	7
Wholesale and retail	Boys	152	28,6	23	29,3	7	92,8	19	34,8	81	30,1	20	0,8	3	3,2	306	
	Girls	213	40,0	40	51,3	0	2,4	20	36,0	115	42,6	23	0,9	1	0,6	411	1
	Unspecified	1	0,2		0,0		0,0	0	0,6		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	
	Total	366	68,7	63	80,6	7	95,3	39	71,4	196	72,6	43	1,8	4	3,8	718	2
Other	Boys	61	11,5	4	5,4	0	4,7	5	9,3	26	9,6	23	1,0	0	0,2	120	
	Girls	31	5,9	2	2,6		0,0	0	0,9	10	3,6	14	0,6	1	0,6	58	
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	92	17,4	6	8,0	0	4,7	6	10,2	36	13,2	37	1,5	1	0,7	178	
Unspecified	Boys		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	0,2	0	0,0	49	47,8	49	
	Girls	2	0,4		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0		0,0	47	45,8	49	
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	2	0,4		0,0		0,0		0,0	1	0,2	0	0,0	95	93,6	98	
Total	Boys	253	47,6	31	40,4	7	97,6	31	56,5	131	48,7	1340	55,1	54	52,8	1849	5
	Girls	278	52,2	46	59,6	0	2,4	24	42,9	138	51,2	1075	44,2	48	47,2	1609	4
	Unspecified	1	0,2		0,0		0,0	0	0,6	0	0,1	17	0,7		0,0	19	
	Total	532	100	78	100	8	100	55	100	270	100	2433	100	102	100	3476	1

The table shows that of those working from home, over two-thirds (69%) are in the wholesale and retail industry. Girls are more commonly found in this situation than boys. Looking at other locations, trade is found to account for more than 70% or work in all other locations except 'other'. In the latter, as expected, agriculture accounts for 97% of work.

The final table from the SAYP looks at selected occupations of particular interest for this project. As might be expected from the finding above that many in the trade industry work from home, 45% of shop salespersons and 86% of stall and market salespersons are said to work from homes. Girl salespersons are more likely than boys to work from home. Even among street vendors, 33% are said to work from private homes, with 46% recorded as working from no fixed location. Again, girls are more likely than boys to work from home. Farmhands and labourers are, as expected, mainly recorded (95%) in the 'other' location. The 69% of domestic workers recorded in this location is a result of the mismatch between occupation and status discussed above.

Table 2.8. Economic activities by location, occupation and sex (%)

Occupation	Sex	Owner's or someone's home		Another permanent building/fixe d location		Market		On a foot path, street or open space		No fixed location		Other		Unspecified		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Shop salespersons	Boys	10	40.0	10	37.8	0	0.4	0	0.4		0.0	5	18.2	1	3.2	25	100.0
	Girls	13	49.6	8	31.8		0.0		0.0		0.0	5	18.6		0.0	26	100.0
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	23	44.9	18	34.8	0	0.2	0	0.2		0.0	9	18.4	1	1.6	51	100.0
Stall and market salespersons	Boys	72	82.6	8	9.4		0.0	1	1.5	2	2.6	3	3.2	1	0.6	87	100.0
	Girls	97	88.3	6	5.7		0.0	3	2.5	1	1.2	2	1.7	1	0.5	109	100.0
	Unspecified	1	100.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	100.0
	Total	169	85.9	14	7.3		0.0	4	2.1	4	1.8	5	2.4	1	0.6	197	100.0
Gardeners	Boys	29	24.1	4	2.9		0.0	0	0.3	2	2.0	86	70.6		0.0	122	100.0
	Girls	5	5.9	4	4.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	78	90.1		0.0	87	100.0
	Unspecified		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	100.0		0.0	1	100.0
	Total	34	16.4	7	3.4		0.0	0	0.2	2	1.2	165	78.8		0.0	210	100.0
Street food vendors	Boys	47	31.6	4	2.7	5	3.2	15	10.4	67	45.0	9	5.8	2	1.3	148	100.0
	Girls	77	34.1	18	8.2	0	0.1	11	4.7	105	46.8	12	5.3	2	0.8	224	100.0
	Unspecified		0.0		0.0		0.0	0	100.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	0	100.0
	Total	123	33.1	22	6.0	5	1.3	26	7.1	172	46.1	20	5.5	4	1.0	373	100.0
Domestic workers	Boys	7	21.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	28	78.9		0.0	36	100.0
	Girls	19	37.6		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	32	62.4		0.0	52	100.0
	Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	27	30.9		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	60	69.1		0.0	87	100.0
Farmhands and labourers	Boys	27	2.6	1	0.1		0.0	5	0.5	18	1.7	1016	95.0	2	0.2	1069	100.0
	Girls	20	2.3	1	0.1		0.0	3	0.4	13	1.6	816	95.5	1	0.1	854	100.0
	Unspecified		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	5	100.0		0.0	5	100.0
	Total	47	2.5	1	0.1		0.0	9	0.4	31	1.6	1836	95.3	3	0.1	1927	100.0

2.3. Labour force survey (LFS)

In February 2000 Stats SA conducted the fieldwork for our first labour force survey (LFS). We will be conducting fieldwork for these surveys, using a rotating-panel method, on a six-monthly basis. The sample size was 10 000 households for the first round of the rotating panel, but this sample size will increase to 25 000 households in the second round. Within selected households, all individuals fifteen years and above are interviewed. Wherever possible, the person him or herself is interviewed, rather than relying on proxy answers of other household members.

In the LFS, similarly to the SAYP, each person is required to respond, one prompt at a time, as to whether s/he:

- ran or did any kind of business, big or small for himself/herself;
- did any work for a wage, salary, commission or any payment in kind;
- did any work as a domestic worker for a wage, salary, or any payment in kind;
- helped unpaid in a family business of any kind;
- did any work on his/her own or the family's plot, farm;
- did any construction or major repair work on his/her own home, plot, cattle post or business or those of the family;

- (g) caught any fish, prawns, shells, wild animals or other food for sale or family food; or
- (h) begged for money or food in public.

Each individual can be recorded as doing more than one of these activities.

One of Stats SA's ongoing concerns is to improve our capture of informal and atypical work. Employment in the formal sector has declined over the last few years, and there is much debate as to the extent to which growth in the informal sector has compensated.

In determining the size and shape of the informal sector, we are no longer relying – as we did previously – only on VAT registration and/or the person's assessment of whether the business is "formal" or "informal". Instead we are asking several questions probing other attributes which the ILO recommends be considered in defining the informal sector. We ask how many regular workers the business employs. We ask whether the business is a registered company or close corporation, and whether it is deducting unemployment insurance contributions, as both of these constitute a form of registration with government. We ask about the location of the business. Finally, we ask whether the informant thinks the business is in the formal or informal sector, explaining that formal means that the business is "registered".

With this range of questions we hope to be able to define the informal sector more clearly. We should also get a clearer picture of how our respondents (and perhaps our fieldworkers!) understand the concept of the informal sector. At this stage we unfortunately do not have the data to report any findings.

The questions discussed above focus on the informal sector rather than the type of work done in it, or individual conditions of employment. A different understanding of informal work relates to the individual rather than the place of work. Internationally, in both developed and developing countries, there is a move towards non-standard forms of employment. Instead of a norm of permanent, full-time workers, people are increasingly working under more varied contract conditions. Some observers have referred to this trend as the informalisation of formal work. Others talk about atypical work.

As with the informal sector, there is as yet no international standard on how to capture this type of work. If anything, individual informal work is even more unexplored than the informal sector as a whole. In the February round of the LFS, we started experimenting with questions which would probe this issue.

The first question asks whether the respondent's work is permanent, fixed period contract, temporary, casual, or seasonal. The second question asks who owns the tools and/or equipment that the respondent uses at work. The third question asks whether the respondent has any written contract with the employer. The fourth asks whether someone else supervises the respondent's work or whether s/he works independently. The final question in the set asks who pays the worker – the establishment or enterprise for which s/he works, a labour broker, a contractor or agency, or someone else. Of relevance to this paper, **the question on location of work could be useful in distinguishing those sub-contractors or home-workers who are working from private dwellings, and those who are working in small establishments elsewhere.** The combination of

place of work and type of contract could tell us more about the conditions under which home-based work occurs.

As with the earlier questions, it is too soon for us to report how well or badly these questions work. We are, however, simultaneously planning other strategies to gauge to what extent the reported fall-off in employment overstates the problem by missing new, non-standard forms of work. Thus, within our formal sector establishment surveys we will this year be testing a questionnaire that asks about various forms of outsourcing by the businesses on our register.

In the future, we plan to attach rotating modules to the core LFS questions. We hope during 2001 to have a module that deals specifically with the informal sector. We plan to adopt the approach used in Botswana and elsewhere where the main questionnaire will be used to identify individuals who have informal businesses, and a second set of more detailed questions is then addressed to these individuals.

Question 4.18 is the question on location of work. It reads as follows:

Is this business/enterprise/branch located

- 1 = In the owner's home
- 2 = In someone else's home
- 3 = Inside a formal business premises such as factory or office
- 4 = At a service outlet such as a shop, school, post office, etc
- 5 = At a market
- 6 = On a footpath, street, street corner, open space or field
- 7 = No fixed location
- 8 = Other

This list is an expanded version of the location questions in the SAYP and should thus allow for somewhat more refined analysis. Another improvement on the SAYP is that all workers are routed through the question on place of work. A weakness of the LFS in comparison with the SAYP is that the work questions are not addressed to household members under 15 years of age, which is the legal minimum for work in the country. This prevents analysis as to whether – as we might expect – younger workers are more likely to be found in the “hidden” locations. There are plans, however, for attaching a module on child labour to the main questionnaire at regular three-yearly intervals. It will be important to include the location question in this module.

2.4. Time use survey

The time use survey fieldwork is taking place in 2000. The fieldwork is being done in three tranches so as to capture seasonal changes. The first tranche was conducted in February 2000, the second in June, and the third will be conducted during October 2000. Like the other two studies, the time use study covers all provinces of South Africa, and both rural and urban areas.

2.4.1. The questionnaire and approach to coding

The substantive part of the time use questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section asked for relevant details of the household. At the end of this section, two individuals aged ten years and above were selected as time use respondents. The second section, administered to each of the selected respondents, asked for the demographic details of the individual. This section included the core questions which we ask in labour force and other household surveys to establish employment status, work status, occupation, industry, formal or informal sector, and so on. The third section contained the diary.

A total of 4 747 diaries were collected during the first tranche. Of these 2 159 were from men, 2 538 from women and two from individuals of unspecified sex.

The diary covered a twenty-four hour period, from 4am the day before the interview to 4am on the day of the interview. The diary was divided into 30-minute slots. Each slot contained three lines, allowing for multiple activities in any slot, whether simultaneous or consecutive. At least one activity was required for each slot. For each listed activity, we also asked (a) whether this activity was simultaneous with another in that time slot, and (b) where the activity occurred. We avoided any specification as to which activity was primary in any period.

We used the trial international classification developed under the auspices of the UN Statistics Division for coding activities. As recommended by the UN, we adapted the schema slightly to match local conditions, but left the basic structure unaltered. In particular, the first three categories between them account for virtually all work activities included in the System of National Accounts (SNA). **Category 1 includes all work for establishments. Category 2 covers primary activities not for establishments. Category 3 covers services and production not for establishments.** With a few exceptions (described below), these activity categories are what we consider ‘strictly economic’ in the analysis below when looking at location of work.

In early testing and during the pilot we discovered that the term ‘establishment’, central to the above schema, had not been clearly defined by the UN team. After discussion with ILO and UN experts, we came up with the following definition:

An establishment is defined as a fixed structure (for example, a shop, office, factory, mine) in which production of goods and services is carried out on a regular basis. It includes commercial farms. It includes private households when they are employing domestic workers. Usually establishments will have regular employees working in them, while non-establishment work (categories 2 and 3) does not involve regular employees.

Importantly, this definition means that the three work categories do not distinguish clearly between formal and informal work. While category 3 activities will mostly be informal, work in an informal establishment would fall under category 1 if the fieldworkers understood and followed the rules strictly.

For location, we used a combination of two codes for every activity which we developed ourselves after examining examples used elsewhere. The two grey boxes provide the codes.

Location code 1	
1	Own dwelling
2	Someone else's dwelling
3	Field, farm or other agricultural workplace
4	Other workplace outside private dwelling
5	Educational establishment
6	Public area i.e. not in a private dwelling, workplace or educational establishment
7	Travelling or waiting to travel
8	Other (specify)

Location code 2	
1	Inside
2	Outside
3	Travelling on foot
4	Travelling by private transport (car, van, motorcycle)
5	Travelling by taxi (kombi or other)
6	Travelling by train
7	Travelling by bus
8	Travelling by bicycle
9	Travelling by other means (specify)

The manual explains the coding system as follows:

The two location codes work together. If location code 1 is 7 (travelling or waiting to travel), then location code 2 must be between 3 and 9 to show the mode (how) the person was travelling. If the person was waiting to travel, location code 2 will show what type of travel they were waiting for.

Sometimes two different location codes will seem to apply to a particular activity. For example, a teacher can be said to be working in an "other workplace outside private dwelling" (code 4) as well as to be working in an "educational establishment" (code 5). When two codes apply, you must choose the one that is higher on the list. So for the teacher you would choose code 4. For a domestic worker you would usually choose code 2, someone else's dwelling. Where someone is working on a plot which is attached to their dwelling, you should usually code this as 3 – field, farm or other agricultural workplace i.e. the field is not considered part of the dwelling.

The inside (1) and outside (2) choices for location code 2 show whether the person was under a roof (inside) or not (outside). For example, if the person is in the yard of the neighbour's dwelling, location code 1 will be "2" and location code 2 will be "2".

Fieldworkers did their own coding of both activity and location. Head office staff were responsible only for the coding of occupation and industry codes. This was an innovation for Stats SA. There were three reasons for adopting the novel approach. Firstly, head office staff had no prior experience of time use work, and so would have been as new to the concepts as the fieldworkers. Secondly, we felt that the fieldworker who had conducted the interview would have a better sense of what the activity involved than someone who only read a brief note about the activity. Thirdly, we hoped that fieldworkers would ensure that they had the necessary information if they knew that they were responsible for coding and could not leave it to someone else.

Fieldworkers were told to code location during the interview. The activity coding was to be done in the evening of the interview while the details were still fresh in the fieldworker's memory.

Stats SA fieldworkers are not full-time staff. At the beginning of each survey we advertise and recruit people from each of the nine provinces. Applicants must have completed secondary school and are selected largely on the results of a competency test. In the competency test for the time use survey we tried to include items which would indicate whether an applicant had the conceptual ability necessary for coding. After recruitment all fieldworkers attend intensive training. For the time use survey, several sections were devoted to coding. The activities in the table below – with the suggested location codes – are examples we used during training for the first and second tranches.

Activity	Code 1	Code 2
Sitting in the yard of friend's house	2	2
Waiting at the busstop	7	7
Sitting in a car driving to work	7	4
Sweeping someone else's home as domestic worker	2	1
Working in mielie field attached to own household	3	2
Guarding cattle of commercial farmer	3	2
Teaching at primary school	4	1
Attending class at secondary school	5	1
Selling fruit and vegetables at the side of the street	6	2
At home, sewing garments to sell	1	1
Drinking at the shebeen	6	1
Travelling in the bus to work	7	7
Walking to the shop	7	3
Selling vetkoek from your home	1	1
Watching a play in a theatre	6	1
Buying groceries at Pick 'n Pay	6	1
Working in Stats SA provincial office	4	1
Interviewing someone in their home for time use survey	2	1
Milking your household's cow in the cowshed	1	1

For activity codes – on the advice of the ILO – we constructed an activity code index in addition to the activity list. The activity list contained our coding scheme in order of code, i.e. in numerical order under the ten international categories. The activity index contained activities listed in alphabetical

order, with the corresponding activity code alongside. The number of potential activities to be included in such an index is, of course, virtually infinite. After constructing a basic list from our first focus group and behind-the-glass tests, we added all the activities reported during the pilot which preceded our survey. To this basic list we added a few activities which we thought might cause particular problems. We also included alternative words for some of the activities where we knew that more than one phrase or word was common.

During training for both the pilot and the survey proper we advised fieldworkers to start off by consulting the index, and then to check against the list. Generally, we think that this system worked and that most fieldworkers were able, after some time, to understand the conceptual framework underlying the listing. Some of the anomalies which are reported below in respect of both activity and location codes are, no doubt, a result of our approach. Nevertheless, we are not sure that head office coding would have been better. Some of the anomalies were probably our fault as trainers, in that the coding system was new for all of us. We are trying as much as possible to use the same fieldworkers in all three tranches. Already in the second tranche we observed that fieldworkers were more confident as to what they were doing.

Before proceeding to the analysis, we must stress that the data were uncleaned, and that they are unweighted.

2.4.2. Analysis of data

Table 2.9 lists each of the three-digit activity codes within the three economic categories for which there is a non-blank location code 1. It shows, for each, the number of times this activity was accorded a given location code 1. Overall, 'other workplace' is the most common code, accounting for over a third (37%) of activities. Next most common is travel, at 18%, followed by field (18%), own dwelling (11%) and public space (9%).

The numbers in bold in the Table highlight the most common location for each activity. Some activities are particularly concentrated in a single location. These include:

- Wage/salary work, break from work and apprentice-type work, with 64%, 63% and 88% respectively in other workplace
- Domestic work, with 65% in other person's dwelling
- Non-establishment crop farming and tending of animals, with 74% and 52% respectively in a field or on a farm
- Collecting water, with 70% in a public place
- Non-establishment food processing and production of goods, with 95% and 91% respectively in own dwelling.

The travel-related activities all have over 92% or more with the travel location code.

While the patterns above are largely credible, they also **suggest some errors in coding of the activity or location**. Most obviously, the travel codes which do not have corresponding travel location must be errors. Similarly, the non-travel activities with travel code are errors.

With paid domestic work, the 11% in own home could probably be explained by ‘live-in’ domestic workers who live on the premises of their employers. Similarly, the crop farming and tending of animals which was said to occur in own or other dwelling, could mean that the activity is in the attached garden or chicken-run. Shackleton et al report that the majority of rural households have grounds in or near their homestead which they cultivate for household consumption, while a much smaller proportion of households cultivate additional arable fields (1999:26-7). Respondents and fieldworkers might correctly see some of the former category as part of the dwelling.

Table 2.9. Detailed activity codes by location 1

		Own dwell	Other dwell	Field farm	Other Wrkplc	Educ estab	Public space	Travel	Other	Total
111	Wage/salary	502	726	2528	9115	442	837	156	13	14430
112	Outworker	24	2	19	30	1	1			77
113	Domestic	121	848	53	281	1	6	1		1311
114	Unpaid estab	40	37	21	33	1				132
115	Employer	372	74	134	267	2	58	35		942
130	Apprentice	2		9	127	2		4		144
140	Break from work	29	69	109	562	64	46	7	1	1027
150	Seek work	15	40	10	446	5	412	56	3	1137
180	Travel work	57	15	8	52	5	43	3855	2	4217
190	Estab nec	1			1		16	1		19
210	Crop farm	345	38	1207	8	1	7	16		1622
220	Tend animals	177	29	374	17		87	32		716
230	Hunting	12	5	14	2		23	1		57
236	Collect fuel	56	13	128	17		102	28	1	581
240	Digging	5	16		14		2			37
250	Collect water	59	19	23	2	4	495	100	1	953
260	Buy/sell	66	11	1			56	3		137
280	Travel primary	12	1	18			14	551		596
290	Primary nec	29		15			7			51
310	Food process	52	1		2					55
320	Prepare food	206	21	1	76		175	1		480
330	Make goods	512	5		24		15	1		557
340	Build dwell	80	87	2	69			16		254
350	Petty trade	270	44			1	286	33		634
360	Fitting machin	87	33		11		19	1		151
370	Services	21	14		17	2	45	62		161
380	Travel non-est	8	1		3		5	276		293
390	Non-est NEC	121	1	10	16		44			192
	Total	3281	2150	4684	11192	531	2801	5236	21	30963

The large number of non-establishment services and production activities said to occur in own dwelling may be surprising to a non-South African. It is, in fact, plausible as many women, in particular, run small shops and other service activities from their own homes.

Another way to analyse the information in Table 2.11 is to see which activity was most common for each location. What emerges is that wage/salary work accounts for the largest proportion of all categories except making goods for non-establishments, travel and domestic work. This is unsurprising as wage/salary work accounts for 47% of all economic work activities. However, the extent of the dominance differs:

- Wage/salary work accounts for 15% of activities in own dwelling, while making goods for non-establishments accounts for only marginally more, at 16%.
- Domestic work accounts for 39% of activities in another person's dwelling, and wage/salary work for another 34%.
- Wage/salary work accounts for 54% of activities in fields or on farms. The next most dominant activity is non-establishment crop-farming which accounts for another 26%.
- Wage/salary work accounts for between 81% and 83% of work in other workplaces and educational establishments.
- Wage/salary work accounts for 30% of activities in public places, with a further 18% accounted for by collecting water and 15% by seeking work.

Again, the patterns seem largely believable, but could indicate some errors. For example, it seems unlikely in South Africa that people are doing so much wage/salary work other than domestic work in their own or other people's dwellings.

Table 2.10 shows, for men and women separately, how the activities in each of the three economic work activities² are spread across the locations. The following differences between women and men are evident:

- Category 3 accounts for 49% of women's activities in their own dwellings, as opposed to 34% of men's activities. Establishment work accounts for 43% of men's work in their own dwelling.
- Establishment work – probably mostly domestic work – accounts for 95% of women's work in other dwellings, compared to 71% of men's work in this location.
- Men are more likely to be working for an establishment – usually a commercial farm – when working in a field or on a farm (69% of activities in this location), while women are more likely to be doing category 2 work, probably primary production for home consumption (52% of the activity).

²Category 1: work for establishments, category 2: primary activities not for establishments, category 3: services and production not for establishments.

- For both women and men, 97-8% of work done in ‘other workplaces’ is performed for establishments.
- Similarly, 98% or more of the work done by women and men in educational establishments falls in category 1.
- Over two-thirds (68%) of the work done by men in public areas is performed for establishments. For women, on the other hand, 44% is primary production not for establishments, including fetching fuel and water, and 28% is other work for non-establishments.
- Both women and men are most likely to travel for establishment work. The rest of men’s travel is more or less equally divided between primary and non-primary work for non-establishments while women are markedly more likely to travel for category 2 than for category 3.
- Overall, 80% of men’s economic work activities are in establishments, 12% in primary non-establishment work and 8% in non-primary non-establishment. For women, 71% is in establishment, 18% in primary non-establishment and 11% in other non-establishment.

Table 2.10. Location 1 by main category and sex

	Men				Women			
	Cat 1	Cat 2	Cat 3	Total	Cat 1	Cat 2	Cat 3t	Total
Own dwelling	699	390	553	1642	464	371	804	1639
Other dwelling	695	104	178	977	1116	28	29	1173
Field, farm etc	2152	982	3	3137	739	798	10	1547
Othr workplace	6869	26	151	7046	4045	34	67	4146
Educ establish	181		2	183	342	5	1	348
Public area	1092	265	252	1609	327	528	337	1192
Travelling	2595	370	287	3252	1520	361	103	1984
Other dwelling	17			17	2	2		4
Grand Total	14300	2137	1426	17863	8555	2127	1351	12033

Table 2.10 also tells us where women and men are mostly likely to work. For both, the most common location is other workplace. This location accounts for 39% of men’s work activities and 34% of women’s. For men, the next most common location outside of travel is fields or farms (18%), followed by public areas and own dwelling (each 9%). For women, the next most common is own dwelling (14%), followed by field or farm (13%) and public area (10%).

In South Africa race is always a pertinent issue. Table 2.11 gives the location breakdown for the three main economic work categories for three of the four ‘official’ population groups operative in the apartheid era. (The Indian group is too small to allow reliable disaggregation.) The italicised rows give the totals across the three categories for each population group.

Other workplace is again the dominant location for each population group, but the extent of that dominance varies. Among white people, this location accounts for over half (56%) of all activities. Among coloured people it accounts for 38% and among African for only 33%. African and coloured activities are more evenly spread among the different locations than those of white people.

This suggests a larger proportion of people without formal work and thus a greater variety of livelihood strategies among African and coloured people.

Table 2.11. Location by activity category and population group

Race	Activity cat.	Own dwell	Other dwell	Field	Other wrkplc	Educ estab	Public	Travel	Other	Total
African	1	677	1457	2123	6856	365	1235	2983	5	15701
	2	628	109	1144	57	5	776	620	2	3341
	3	1071	191	13	143	3	510	310		2241
	Total	2376	1757	3280	7056	373	2521	3913	7	21283
Coloured	1	73	315	559	1443	96	112	540	1	3139
	2	11	14	421	1		16	53		516
	3	90	16		53		25	66		250
	Total	174	345	980	1497	96	153	659	1	3905
White	1	352	29	153	2126	43	32	463	13	3211
	2	107	9	213	2		1	56		388
	3	165			22		27	11		225
	Total	624	38	366	2150	43	60	530	13	3824

Table 2.12 displays the patterns in the second location code which, for non-travel activities, distinguish between activities happening inside and outside. (Activities for which location codes 1 and 2 do not match in terms of the travel rules are excluded.) The following patterns are revealed:

- Over two-thirds (68%) of activities in own dwelling are performed inside. The rate is, however, only 24% for primary non-establishment activities, but more than 80% for the other two categories.
- A slightly smaller proportion (64%) of activities in other dwellings are carried out inside. Here only 9% of primary non-establishment activities and only 36% of other non-establishment activities are performed inside. (An error in coding, discussed below, explains some of the category 2 pattern).
- The overwhelming majority (86%) of activities in fields or on farms are performed outside. The occurrence of inside activities in this location is more prevalent in establishment and primary non-establishment work.
- Close on four in five (79%) of all work activities in other workplaces occur inside. However, all the primary non-establishment activities in this location were performed outside.
- Close on nine in ten (89%) of all activities in educational establishments were inside.
- Conversely, four-fifths of work in public areas was performed outside. This was most common (96%) in respect of primary non-establishment work and least common (71%) for establishment work.

Table 2.12. Activity categories by both location codes

		Own dwell	Othr dwell	Field farm	Other wrkpl	Ed est	Pub area
Category 1	Inside	953	1272	377	8720	469	403
	Outside	197	529	2474	2159	50	966
Category 2	Inside	179	12	258			34
	Outside	580	118	1508	44	5	742
Category 3	Inside	1091	75	1	121	1	93
	Outside	263	131	12	95	2	486
Total	Inside	2223	1359	636	8841	470	530
	Outside	1040	778	3994	2298	57	2194

The international activity classification contains a code (with second digit 8) within each of the ten main categories which is used for travel related to that category of activity. Table 2.13 shows the mode of travel – indicated by location 2 – for each of the three economic work categories. Overall, the most common mode of travel is on foot. This accounts for 87% of travel in respect of primary non-establishment work, and 40-42% for the other two categories. The next most common modes (19% each) are taxis and private transport. In South Africa the term “taxi” is used for the privately-owned minibuses which serve poorer communities in the absence of adequate state-provided public transport. Taxis account for a third (36%) of all non-primary non-establishment travel and 20% of establishment travel. Private transport is used for only 8% of primary non-establishment work, but 21% of the other two categories. Buses, which are largely public sector, account for only 8% of work-related travel.

Table 2.13. Mode of travel by activity category

	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Total
Foot	1634	480	110	2290
Private transport	807	44	58	939
Taxi	789	12	99	1007
Train	171	1	1	173
Bus	354	11	2	382
Bike	40	2	3	43
Other	56	4	2	93

Up to this point in the paper, analysis has included all category 1 to 3 activities. From this point analysis is confined to “strictly economic” activities i.e. it excludes travel, work-seeking and collecting wood and water. The restriction reduces the number of diaries to 2 195 i.e. 46% of the total sample.

2.4.3. Formal and informal sector

The time use questionnaire contained two questions that can be used to distinguish between the formal or informal sector. Both responses are only available for respondents who were employed at the time of the survey or had been previously employed. The first question asked how many people besides the informant worked regularly in the business they worked in. The second question asked whether they would call the business formal or informal. For the second question, fieldworkers were instructed to offer assistance if the respondent said they did not understand these terms. The manual gave the explanation to be read out as follows:

Formal sector employment is where the employer (institution, business or private individual) is registered to perform the activity. Informal sector employment is where the employer is not registered.

Table 2.14 shows the correlation (or lack of it!) between the two variables. The match is not good. The matching ‘formals’ account for 44% of the total. The matching ‘informals’ account for 8% of the total. The matching ‘missings’ account for 0% of the total. The largest number of mismatches are the cases where the number of workers is missing but the sector has been classified as informal. Given the large number of missing responses for number of employees, the simple formal/informal question is used in further analysis below.

Table 2.14. Comparison of two measures of formal and informal sectors

	Formal	Informal	Unknown	Total
Less than 6	742	60	6	808
6 or more	49	134	174	357
No response	246	278	6	530
Total	1037	472	186	1695

As with other questions in the demographic section of the time use survey, there will not necessarily be an exact match between the responses to these questions and individual activities. For example, a person’s main occupation might be as a waged employee, but they might also sell cooked food from home. Overall, however, we expect that the majority of a person’s economic activities will match their main reported occupation.

Table 2.15 gives the number of strictly economic activities in each location according to whether the person concerned’s main job was said to be in the formal or informal sector. The table excludes informants for whom the sector is unspecified, either because they had never worked, or because they did not answer the question.

- Overall, ‘other workplace’ is the most common location for formal work, at 59% of all activities. The second most common location is fields and farms, which accounts for a further 21%. These two locations thus account for four-fifths of all formal work activities.

- Informal sector activities are much more evenly spread across the location. Own home (26%) and other person's dwelling (25%) are the most common locations, followed by other workplace (21%), field or farm (14%) and public place (13%).

Table 2.15. Location by sector

	Formal	%	Informal	%
Own dwelling	1214	8%	1368	26%
Other dwelling	609	4%	1326	25%
Field, farm	3443	21%	756	14%
Other workplace	9499	59%	1089	21%
Educational establishment	478	3%	11	0%
Public place	909	6%	693	13%
Total	16152	100%	5243	100%

We can also look at the question from the perspective of the place. Excluding activities done by people who did not specify their occupation as formal or informal, work in dwellings (own and other) were the only two locations where over half the economic activities were linked to an informal sector worker. In the case of other dwellings, the percentage was as high as 69%. Educational establishments were the most formal-dominated, at 98% of all recorded activities. The next most formal-dominated were other workplace (90%) and field or farm (82%).

Table 2.16 elaborates on the above analysis by distinguishing between the three main economic work categories. (Categories in which there are only a small number of observations have been omitted.) Overall, 82% of establishment work, 60% of primary non-establishment work, and 30% of other non-establishment work was done by people in the formal sector.

- Work in own dwelling tends to be in the formal sector when it is establishment work, but in the informal sector otherwise.
- Work in other dwellings is more likely to be informal than formal across all three activity categories.
- Work in fields or on farms is largely formal for both establishment and primary non-establishments. (See note below.)
- Work in other workplaces is overwhelmingly formal for establishment work, two-thirds formal for primary non-establishment, and two-thirds informal for other non-establishment.
- Work in educational establishments occurs almost exclusively in the formal sector, as establishment work.
- Work in public spaces is largely formal for establishment work, but largely informal for the other two activity categories.

Table 2.16. Location by sector and activity category – version 1

	Categ 1		Categ 2		Categ 3	
	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal
Own dwelling	65%	35%	31%	69%	37%	63%
Other dwelling	31%	69%	43%	58%	27%	73%
Field, farm	87%	13%	73%	27%		
Other workplace	91%	9%	66%	34%	31%	69%
Education estab	98%	2%				
Public space	80%	20%	43%	57%	17%	83%
Total	83%	17%	60%	40%	30%	70%

The categorisation of so much primary non-establishment work as formal is, to a large extent, a result of a consistent error in two of the nine provinces whereby work on commercial farms was coded as category 2. One province alone accounted for 59% of non-establishment crop and animal farming activities coded as formal.

2.4.4. Finding hidden employment

One of the aims of the South African time use survey is to find out how well our labour force and other household surveys are capturing economic activity and employment. This issue is related to the work location issue, as one of the primary motivations for looking at place of work is a concern that certain forms of work are hidden and thus under-recorded in surveys.

The demographic section of the time use questionnaire contains questions that are very similar to the formulations in the SAYP and the labour force survey. The most important classification question is 2.11, which asks whether the person, during the past seven days:

- did any kind of business, big or small, for themselves;
- helped unpaid in a family business;
- did any work on a household plot, food garden, kraal;
- caught any fish or wild animals for food or sale;
- did domestic work for another household for payment in cash or kind; and
- did any other work for wage, salary, piecework pay, commission or payment in kind

The informant is prompted separately about each of these activities. A positive response to any one of the items characterises the person as employed.

Looking at only those people who recorded strictly economic activities, there were a total of 33 different combinations of reported work activities for the 1 695 individuals. 319 (19%) of the individuals said they belonged to none of the six categories.

- 170 (10%) said they only did business, big or small, for themselves
- 39 (2%) said they only helped unpaid in a family business

- 104 (6%) said they only did work on a household plot, food garden, kraal
- 3 (0%) said they only caught fish or wild animals for food or sale
- 68 (4%) said they only domestic work for another household
- 763 (45%) said they only worked for wage, salary, piecework pay, commission or payment in kind

In total, then, about two-thirds said that they only engaged in one type of work in the past seven days. This leaves about 15% who did two or more of these types of work. The most common combinations were (a) work on household plot and wage work (76 respondents, or 5%); (b) business and working on a household plot (34 or 2%); and (c) business and wage work (24 or 1%). All other combinations accounted for fewer than 1% of respondents.

Table 2.17 below compares the responses to these questions to the strictly economic activities reported for the previous day. The table shows that, overall, 12% of all strictly economic activities were reported by people who said they were not employed. The category breakdown shows that 9% of category 1 activities, 24% of category 2 and 18% of category 3 were done by people who were reportedly unemployed. Expressed different, 60% of all activities recorded for people who were reportedly not employed were in establishment work, 23% were in primary non-establishment work and 16% were in other non-establishment work. The mismatch would almost certainly be even more stark if we were to ask about the full seven days' activities.

Table 2.17. Activities by category and employment status

Status	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Total
Not employed	1646	638	447	2731
Employed	16257	1985	2042	20284
Total	17903	2623	2489	23015

The table above records activities. We can look at the same phenomenon in terms of individuals. A total of 319 (19%) of the 1 695 individuals who reported strictly economic activities said they were unemployed. Of these 319, 118 (36%) reported category 1 activities, 139 (44%) category 2 activities and 76 (24%) reported category 3. There were, thus, several "unemployed" individuals who reported economic activities in more than one category. There was a slight difference in the probability that women and men would be in this situation. 166 (18%) of the 940 men who reported economic activities and 153 (20%) of the 755 women who reported economic activities said they were not employed. (In the realised sample as a whole, 54% of individuals were women, while 45% of those reporting economic activities were women i.e. women were less likely than men to engage in economic activities.)

If we disaggregate to individual activities, we find that 47% of activities related to making and selling goods outside establishments were reported by unemployed people, 45% of 'other' primary category 2 activities, 41% of hunting and fishing, 30% of digging and related activities, 29% of outworker activities, and 28% of non-establishment animal farming. However, together these six categories account for only 20% of the anomalous activities. The 9% of wage/salary activities that

were recorded for unemployed people accounted for close on half (49%) of the total of work activities by reported unemployed people.

Next we look at the location in which reportedly unemployed people undertook economic activities. Table 2.18 shows that 21% of activities recorded in own dwelling and 18% of those undertaken in public places were reported by allegedly unemployed people, while for other locations the percentage was 10% or less. **This result suggests that labour force surveys under-report economic activities in persons' own dwellings and in public places more seriously than other locations.** If this is the case, a location question in a labour force survey will not give the full picture of work in these locations until we find a better way of capturing these activities.

Table 2.18. Location by employed status

	Not employed	Employed	Total	% unemployed
Own dwelling	638	2436	3074	21%
Other dwelling	189	1872	2061	9%
Field, farm	467	4030	4497	10%
Other workplace	1031	9641	10672	10%
Education estab	44	473	517	9%
Public place	318	1412	1730	18%

Table 2.19 looks in more detail at the activities reported as occurring in workers' own dwellings. It includes only those activities reported for at least 50 time periods. The highest level of unemployed actors is found in respect of making and selling goods, where half of the activities were undertaken by reportedly unemployed people. Other activities with high levels were non-establishment crop farming (42%), non-establishment animal husbandry (31%), building (23%) and repairs (23%). There was virtually no under-reporting of employment in respect of petty trading.

Table 2.19. Activities in own dwelling by employment status

	Not employed	Employed	Total	% unemployed
Wage/salary	51	451	502	10%
Domestic work	17	104	121	14%
Employer/self-employ	15	357	372	4%
N-e crop farming	144	201	345	42%
N-e animal farm	55	122	177	31%
N-e primary purchase	1	65	66	2%
Food processing		46	52	12%
Food preparation	10	196	206	5%
Making goods	260	252	512	51%
Building	18	62	80	23%
Petty trading	1	269	270	0%
Repairing	21	66	87	24%
Other n-e, non-primary	14	107	121	12%

Table 2.20 provides similar information, but this time for activities occurring in public places. In this case 'unemployed' people account for 52% of non-establishment animal farming and 34% of

employer/self-employed activities respectively. About one in eight mentions of petty trading are by reportedly unemployed people.

Table 2.20. Employment in public spaces by employment status

	Not employed	Employed	Total	% unemployed
Wage/salary	142	695	837	17%
Employer/self-employ	20	38	58	34%
N-e animal farm	45	42	87	52%
N-e primary purchase	0	56	56	0%
Preparing food	25	150	175	14%
Petty trading	36	250	286	13%

We identified a number of occupation codes in respect of which we were particular interested in finding the corresponding location of work. We were interested, firstly, in those occupations which one would expect to find practised in public spaces such as the street. Secondly, we were interested in domestic workers given the large number of women in this occupation in South Africa. The identified occupation codes were as follows:

5230 Stall and market salespersons, including salesperson for street stall

9111 Street food vendors

9112 Street vendors, non-food products

9113 Door-to-door and telephone salespersons

912 Shoe cleaning and other street service elementary occupations

9131 Domestic helpers and cleaners

9132 Helpers and cleaners in offices, hotels and other establishments

9133 Hand launderers and pressers

9162 Sweepers and related labourers, including street sweepers

In the first tranche of the survey we found economic activities recorded for all but stall and market salespersons (5230) and shoe cleaners (912). Table 2.21 tabulates the location of strictly economic work activities for these individuals.

- For food street vendors it shows somewhat over half (51%) of activities occurring in public spaces and another 27% in their own dwellings
- For non-food street vendors it shows 42% of activities occurring in own dwelling, 37% in public spaces and 21% in other workplaces
- For domestic workers, it finds 57% of activities taking place in other dwellings, 20% in other workplaces and 14% in own dwelling
- For helpers and cleaners in offices and hotels, four in every five activities are recorded in other workplaces

- The few recorded activities for hand launderers and pressers were recorded in other workplaces
- Over two-thirds of the relatively few work activities of sweepers were recorded in other workplaces and 31% on farms or in fields.

Table 2.21. Specified occupations by location

	9111	9112	9131	9132	9133	9162
Own dwelling	27%	42%	14%	7%	0%	0%
Other dwelling	4%	0%	57%	4%	0%	0%
Field, farm	3%	0%	7%	3%	0%	31%
Other workplace	15%	21%	20%	81%	100%	69%
Education establishment	0%	0%	0%	5%	0%	0%
Public space	51%	37%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Total (n)	571	178	1809	572	37	62

Table 2.22 shows where economic activities were most likely to occur on different days of the week.

- Activities in own dwelling remained constant at between 10% and 13% on weekdays, but increased to 19% on Saturday and to 32% on Sunday.
- Sunday was again a peak day for work in other dwellings, but the maximum percentage was only 17%. Thursday was the day of least activity in other dwellings.
- Work in the field reached its peak contribution midweek.
- Work in other workplaces accounted for a substantial proportion of economic work time on every day of the week. The peak contribution was towards the beginning of the week (53% Monday and 50% Tuesday), with the lowest levels over the weekend (40% on Saturday and 26% on Sunday).
- Virtually no work was recorded in educational establishments over the weekend.
- Work in public spaces made its biggest contribution on Saturday (15%), with the next highest levels on the surrounding days.

Table 2.22. Location of work by days of the week

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednes.	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
Own dwelling	12%	13%	11%	10%	13%	19%	32%
Other dwelling	10%	10%	7%	5%	9%	10%	17%
Field	15%	17%	28%	35%	11%	16%	16%
Other workplace	53%	50%	46%	39%	57%	40%	26%
Educational estab.	2%	2%	3%	4%	2%	0%	1%
Public space	8%	8%	5%	6%	9%	15%	8%
Total	4528	4690	3626	3264	3521	1398	1281

In the demographic section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked about work status. The categories were paid domestic employee, other employee, working for self or family in a business with no non-family workers, and working for self or family in a business with non-family workers.

Among those who recorded strictly economic work activities, other employees accounted for 62% (1 051 individuals) of those who answered this question, and domestic employees for 8% (139). Over two-thirds (217) of those working for self/family were in businesses without non-family workers and 105 were in businesses with non-family workers. The breakdown of activities was not necessarily proportional to the number of people in each category as some people did more work activities in a day than others.

Table 2.23 shows that work by paid domestic workers occurred primarily in dwellings. Nevertheless, about a quarter of all economics activities of these workers were said to occur in other workplaces. Other employees worked overwhelmingly in other workplaces (58%), or in fields or on farms (22%). Those working for self or family where no non-family members were involved were found predominantly in their own dwellings (43%). Where non-family workers were involved, the proportion of activities in other workplaces increased although own dwelling was still the largest category, at 36%.

Table 2.23. Location by work status

	Paid domestic	Employee	Self/family, no employees	Self/family, employees
Own dwelling	13%	5%	43%	36%
Other dwelling	45%	6%	6%	8%
Field	9%	22%	18%	12%
Other workplace	28%	58%	16%	27%
Education establ.	0%	3%	0%	0%
Public space	4%	6%	17%	17%
Total	1755	16063	2339	1330

If we examine the figures horizontally rather than vertically, we find that own businesses without employees account for the largest percentage (39%) of activities in own dwelling, domestic and other employees were the main workers in other dwellings (48%), employees were the overwhelming majority in fields or on farms (83%), other workplaces (88%) and educational establishments (96%). Employees also accounted for over half (57%) of all activities in public spaces. This analysis excludes informants who did not declare a work status for either current or most recent employment.

Gender analysts in South Africa and elsewhere suggest that women with children may choose to work at home so as to be able to combine work with childcare. At first glance, the time use data does not support this hypothesis. Table 2.24 shows the distribution of work activities in own home and elsewhere for women and men with and without children under 7 years living in the household. For both women and men, there is less likelihood of working in own home for those with children. Women are, however, more likely than men to work in their own homes whether or not they have children under 7 years in the household.

Table 2.24: Work activities at home by presence of children and sex: all ages

	Men		Women	
	No children	Children	No children	Children
Not home	87%	94%	80%	91%
Home	13%	6%	20%	9%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
	10312	3538	6620	2545

The pattern above could be a result of the way the questions were framed combined with common childrearing practices in the country. Thus the questionnaire asked about own children, whereas many children from poorer families are left with and looked after by grandparents while the parents go elsewhere to look for work. If we restrict the analysis to those aged 40 years and below, there is little change for men – 13% of activities of those with no children and 5% of those with children were done at home. For women, there is a shift in the percentages, but the pattern still runs contrary to expectations – 14% of activities of women with no children, as opposed to 10% of those with children were then said to be done at home.

Another possible source of bias is that the above calculations are based on activities rather than persons. We can hypothesise that those who work from home on account of children might also do less economic work because of the conflicting childcare needs. Table 2.25 again restricts the analysis to informants aged 40 years or less, but this time reports on individuals rather than activities. It suggests that childless men are still more likely than those with children to work from home. But for women it shows no overall difference at all in the likelihood of those with and without children will work from home. The more sophisticated analysis still does not support the usual hypothesis. It does, however, show how different ways of looking at the data can significantly change the results.

Table 2.25: Work activities at home by presence of children and sex: all ages

	Men		Women	
	No children	Children	No children	Children
Not home	76%	85%	72%	72%
Home	24%	15%	28%	28%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
	504	180	301	202

2.5. Conclusions

The analysis above suggests that questions on location can be used in many different ways which add to our understanding of society and how it and the people who make it up work. The data does provide some evidence about the key areas of street vending and home-based work, but has a much wider potential contribution than this. Some of the patterns which emerge from the data support our preconceptions. Others suggest that crude generalisations or hypotheses do not provide a good match with reality.

There is a need for greater clarity as to exactly what the different location classifications mean. In South Africa we used a practical but ad hoc approach in drawing up the options. We consulted with the ILO, the United Nations Statistics Division, and WIEGO in devising our categories, but did not consider many of the deeper theoretical questions. We also did not think of some practical questions which have emerged in other qualitative research - for example how one classifies someone who works partly from one location and partly from another. We also did not think enough - particularly in the SAYP and LFS - about the rules that must be adopted when more than one location code is applicable.

The South African classifications need to be reviewed in light of the tighter conceptual schema developed in other countries and by the ILO. After developing these concepts, there needs to be thorough training of those responsible for asking and answering the questions and coding. At the same time, concepts must be simple and not go against the way ordinary people think about the world. If this is not so, both fieldworkers and informants will be confused and provide "incorrect" responses.

Questionnaire design needs to ensure that certain types of workers "skip" the location questions. This is a clear weakness of the South African questionnaires, and generally reflects the perception that the question is relevant primarily for informal sector workers.

The "other" category in the SAYP is clearly capturing far too many activities for a residual category. This partly reflects the pattern of child work combined with a large number of agricultural child work. The category should be smaller for the LFS. At the least, though, we need a separate category for fields and farms. In the time use survey, the "other workplace" category is catching a large number of activities. Here the predominance reflects, firstly, a focus on the informal sector when designing the categories. Secondly, it reflects the fact that the study as a whole covers both work and non-work activities and the "other workplace" category would thus constitute a smaller proportion when analysing all activities. Nevertheless, there may be room for further disaggregation.

Location questions alone will not "solve" the undercounting of groups such as street vendors and home-based workers. The comparison of diary data and responses to labour force-type questions in the time use survey shows that the latter miss out on significant numbers of workers despite questions which prompt for a range of activities. One strategy is to improve the list of explicit prompts. This will, however, still almost certainly not capture all workers and work.

Questions on location can provide overall patterns and trends but will not provide individual detailed data on type of work and location unless there is allowance for multiple jobs/occupations and the location is recorded for each of these.

A related concern is that most instruments concentrate on work in the past seven days. To the extent that street vending and home-based work may be less regular than some other types of work, the restricted time focus may be less effective in picking the activities up than questions which cover a longer period of time.

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Review of the variable Place of Work in two Latin American Countries based on national household-based surveys

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3.1. Introduction

Identification and investigation of specific population groups through results obtained from the households survey has been a concern of social-economic analysts in all countries. Economic and social happenings in Latin American countries during the last few years, associated to urban processes, have resulted in drastic changes in production and in working relationships.

Within this context, variables associated to the labor market reflect these changes, and among these variables the "place of work" of the working population could be used to better understand the development of the labor market, and also to identify specific groups within the working population.

This paper intends to examine the "place of work" variable for two Latin American countries, Colombia and Mexico^β. In the Colombian case, the information in the Households Survey containing this variable is scarce, making it necessary to request the Statistics Office to process the information required in order to obtain the best possible knowledge on the variable's behavior. In

^β I will like to thank Adriana Mata-Greenwood for the comments and encouragement to this paper.

the Mexican case, the variable is found in several output charts, both in the urban employment survey (ENEU), and in the Micro-Business Survey.

Early in 1970, the Colombian National Statistics Administrative Department (DANE) developed the National Household Survey program, conceived as a multi-purpose sample system studying households to obtain information and inter-census estimates capable of producing basic statistics related to the Colombian population's demographic, social, and economic situation.

The nature of such an investigation makes it possible to collect additional information, always related to the labor force, through special modules that can be later related to the remaining information provided by the survey. This is the case of the health, housing, transportation, and informality modules.

The "place of work" variable has only been investigated through the informality module, every two years since 1984. This work uses information collected by the National Households Survey and by the informality module, in June 1998. The information was broken down into two large groups: according to the DANE formality classification (number of workers), and by sex.

The term "informality"⁴ will be used throughout this paper. It is referred to persons working in small businesses that hire fewer than 10 workers. In Colombia, the place of work refers to the employed person; in Mexico, on the other hand, it refers to the company in which the person works.

In Mexico, the general purpose of ENEU is to establish an ongoing continuous statistical information system on the population's social-demographic and economic characteristics for the public, private, and social sectors, the household being the observation unit. It was created for the purpose of measuring employment and unemployment problems in the country's main metropolitan areas, and has included a question regarding the "place of work" since 1981.

A specific purpose of the survey relates to the labour market heterogeneity, establishing characteristics of entities (property sector, activity, availability of premises, etc.) hiring the workers.

On the other hand, the Micro-Business Survey in Mexico explicitly mentions the identification of the "place of work" in the survey's purpose. One of them reads: "identify the specifics of micro-businesses regarding their branch of activity, type of location, size, type of financing, and positions occupied by the owners and by the workers".

Analysis of the "place of work" variable is clearly important within the purpose of the Mexican surveys. There are many output charts containing this variable, and the site classification is broad. It is important to note that the place of work classification in the Micro-Business Survey is far more

⁴ A definition used by DANE since 1984. In the last few years, this term has been modified by small businesses as a result of the new meaning given to the term "informality".

complete than that contained in the ENEU, since the small entrepreneur uses a greater diversity of places of work than medium and large-sized companies. This paper also looks in detail into the Micro-Business Survey, this being the survey containing the greatest number of options regarding the place of work where productive activities are carried out.

The "place of work" variable is given a different meaning in Mexico. In Mexico, the place of work refers to the worker's company or business, while in Colombia it makes reference to the location where a person works. These are two different measurements, each one focused on different purposes.

The new concept of the informal sector presented by the ILO in 1993 establishes a relationship between the sector and the company or business, and not with the person. The Mexican approach may thus be useful in helping identify and characterize informality. Its purpose is to study the enterprise and not the person.

The Colombian approach may be useful in designing policies directly associated to the worker's physical working location, such as social security, risks associated with the place of work, etc. This does not mean that the Colombian approach cannot be used to identify population groups with similar characteristics; in fact, the work does just that. In some places of work, the workers are more homogeneous; in places of work with heterogeneous workers it is necessary to cross the "place of work" variable with other variables such as social security, income, or others, in order to particularize each group under study.

3.2. Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to examine the "place of work" variable in urban areas in two Latin American countries, through three surveys conducted regularly.

The National Household Survey, and especially the module carried out in June every two years in Colombia, covering the country's 13 most populated cities.

The Mexican Urban Employment Survey, covering close to 62% of the country's urban population, which is carried out in 44 cities, surveying 2,500 inhabitants or more and covering approximately 93% of all towns with more than 100,000 inhabitants.

Finally, the Micro-Business National Survey, carried out every two years, has a coverage that is representative of all urban areas with 100,000 inhabitants and more. To guarantee consistency among surveys, they were carried out in the 16 urban areas covered by the ENEU up to 1991, as well as in 25 cities corresponding to the urban supplement necessary to guarantee the survey's statistical validity.

Specific purposes are:

- Review national practices in Colombia and in Mexico, where the "place of work" variable is analyzed regularly. In the Colombian case, the Household National Survey (June 1998), and in the Mexican case the Urban Employment National Survey (April-June 1998) and the Micro-Business Survey (January-March 1996).
- Review the typology used and the structure of the "place of work" variable.
- Evaluate the variable's capacity to identify specific groups of workers as home-based workers, door-to-door salesmen, street workers, and household workers, and to characterize the informal sector and the female work associated to the place in which the labour force operates in Colombia and in Mexico.
- Prepare a report describing the evaluation, containing suggestions for future investigation.

3.3. Colombia

3.3.1. Review the form's questions and the typology used in the "place of work" variable.

The "place of work" variable is only studied in the informality module, every two years. This module is answered by persons in the household who are "employed" at the time of the survey. As much as possible, this supplementary module must be given directly to employed persons, looking to have them answer the questions.

In Colombia, this question is made as follows:

You carry out your work mainly in: (read the choices and mark just one. Domestic workers living in the place of work should select 1).

1. *In your household*
2. *Other households*
3. *Kiosk*
4. *Vehicle*
5. *Door-to-door*
6. *Uncovered street location*
7. *Fixed premises (office, plant, etc.)*

The question tries to determine the location where the person normally carries out the work. Only one selection is to be checked.

In your household: the person works in his/her household.

Other households: the persons works in another household. For example, domestic workers hired on a daily basis, private nurses, escort services, etc.

Kiosk: generally small structures, either open or closed, mounted in public locations for sale of newspapers, flowers, refreshments, candies, fast food, etc.

Vehicle: the person uses a vehicle for his/her work (car, motorcycle, bicycle, tricycle, etc.). Example: cab drivers, bus drivers, soft drink delivery truck drivers, laundry van drivers, and persons selling fast foods and clothing directly from their vehicles.

Door-to-door: the person works door-to-door. Example: drug sellers, postmen, appliance, soap, and book salesmen, surveyors, etc.

Uncovered street location: all door-to-door salesmen, shoe-shines, and other persons working in defined or undefined street locations who lack premises of their own fall into this category.

Fixed premises: the person works in a specific location. Example: in factories, in the company, at the office, hospital, workshop, etc., but not in his/her own household.

3.3.2. Evaluation of the "place of work" variable

This section of the work studies the possibility, on one side, of identifying, through this variable alone or through a combination of variables, specific groups of workers, including in them the informal sector, and on the other hand the possibility to discriminate the place of work by sex of the employed population, combining "place of work" and "sex" with other variables.

"Is the "place of work" a good variable to discriminate specific groups within the employed population?"

To answer this question, the "place of work" was related to the following variables investigated in the National Household Survey and the Informality Module:

- **Classification according to the formality concept:** by place of work of the employed population, size of the establishment, kinship, social security, status in employment, income, education, weekly hours worked, branch of activity.
- **Classification by sex:** by place of work, occupation, kinship, social security, income, weekly hours worked, education.

3.3.2.1. Classification according to the formality concept

Place of work of the employed population

Table 3.1 shows that in 1998 the majority of the Colombian employed population was working in fixed premises (59.7%), while 12.8% worked in their own household and 9.9% worked in other households.

Table 3.1. Total population employed by place of work (%)

PLACE OF WORK	Total employed
Household	12.8
Other household	9.9
Kiosk	0.8
Vehicle	6.8
Door to door	3.5
Street	6.5
Fixed premises	59.7
Total	100.0

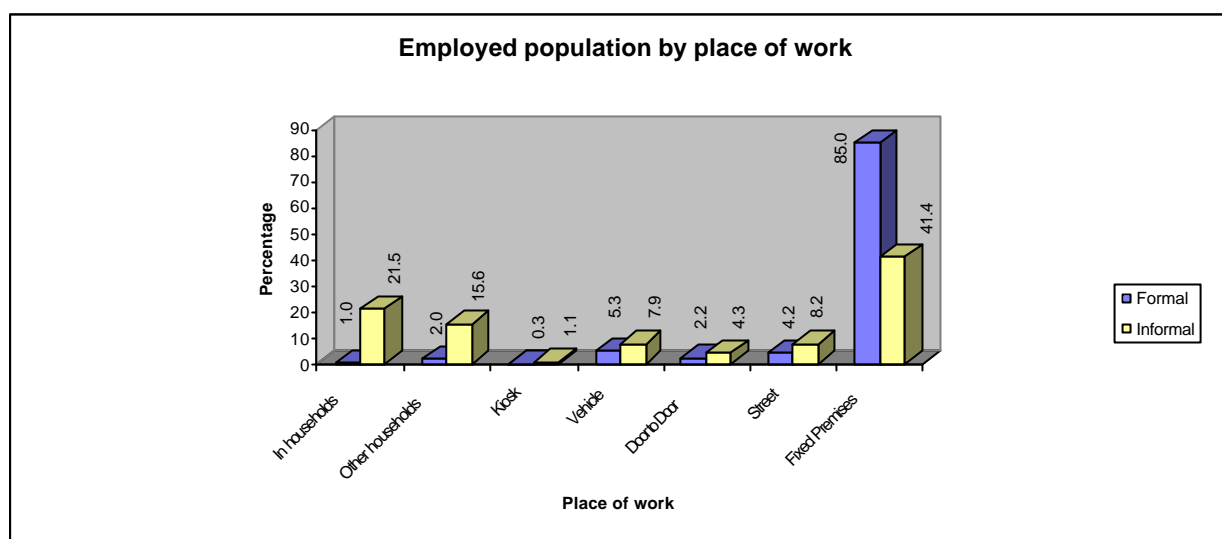
Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

If we break down the total employed population into formal and informal, based on the size of the company in which the person works (informal up to 10 workers and formal more than 10)⁵, we see that the place of work variable has a meaning other than that of total employed population.

Chart 3.1 shows that, even if the majority of formal and informal workers work in fixed premises, the number of formal workers (85%) is much greater than the number of informal workers (41.4%). On the other hand, the number of workers outside of fixed premises is substantially greater in the informal sector than in the formal sector. For instance, in the "household" workers sector, 21.5% of workers from the informal sector work in their own homes, while only 1% of workers in the formal sector work there.

CHART 3.1

⁵ Definition used by DANE from 1984.



In general, we may say that fixed premises are largely associated to the formal sector, in as much as the vast majority of this sector works in fixed premises (85%), while the informal sector's participation is of only 41.4%. The informal sector uses other locations, especially the worker's own household and other households.

Size of establishment

An exercise was carried out using the place of work variable associated to the size of establishment, using a breakdown different to that used by DANE to separate the formal sector from the informal sector, with the result shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Total population employed by size of establishment and place of work (%)

	House-holds	Other house-holds	Kiosk	Vehicle	Door-to-door	Street	Fixed premises
Own account	68.6	68.5	52.4	48.1	58.1	56.6	9.6
2 to 5 persons	27.5	20.4	29.3	15.9	10.9	13.0	21.4
6 to 10 persons	1.9	3.1	2.3	3.6	3.9	4.1	10.2
11 and more	2	7.9	16.0	32.4	27.1	26.3	58.8
Total	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

The majority of employed persons working in their households and in other households are "own account workers", some 68%. On the other hand, only 9.6% of employed persons working in fixed premises are "own account".

Most persons employed in fixed premises work in medium or large-size companies with more than 11 workers (58.8%). This group of employed persons very seldom works in their own households (2%).

Productive one-person units are clearly located outside fixed premises, mostly in their own households or in other households. Units with 2 and 5 workers use a variety of locations: in households, in kiosks, and even in fixed premises. Medium-sized units, with 6 to 10 workers, prefer fixed premises; large units with 11 and more workers are clearly oriented to fixed premises.

The distribution of employed persons using vehicles for their productive activities is more homogeneous. There is an important number of persons working in large companies (32.4%). This is the case of soda drink or beer truck drivers, or of drivers hauling goods for the medium and large-sized company. Nevertheless, own account workers (48.1%) have the highest participation.

It is interesting to note employed persons working in companies with more than 11 workers and those working in kiosks (16%), door-to-door (27.1%), and in the street (26.3%). There is a general tendency to think that these places of work are related to the informal sector; however, there is an important portion of formal workers who also work in these places. It should be noted that a worker with a candy stand working on his own in the street is different from another person also working in the street but belonging to the formal sector (for instance, policemen who basically work in the street, salesmen affiliated to large companies, surveyors, etc.).

Kinship

Table 3.3. Informal employed population by place of work and kinship (%)

	Total	Household	Other households	Kiosk	Vehicle	Door-to-door	Street	Fixed premises
Head of household	45.3	35.5	45.1	48.3	66	52.8	54.7	44.2
Spouse	17.6	27.9	19.1	20.1	4.6	15.6	8.9	17
Sons/daughters	24.8	12.8	22.8	19.4	21.0	19.0	23.7	27.1
Other relatives	8.6	5.2	10.8	10.5	7.7	11.2	10.9	10.2
Guest	1.1	0.6	0.9	1.2	0.6	1.2	1.6	1.1
Domestic service	2.4	17.9	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2
Domestic service children	0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Boarders*	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

*Note: Boarder: persons who pay for living accommodations and meals. Boarders are considered household members if less than or equal to 5.

The highest participation of household heads is when they are working in vehicles (66%); they participate frequently in productive activities working door-to-door and in the street. Sons/daughters mainly work in fixed premises (27.1%). (Table 3.3)

Social Security

Another commonly used concept in social and economic studies is that of affiliation to the social security system. This concept has also been suggested, and is used, in the definition of the informal sector⁶.

The service has two components: the health service and the pension service, which includes disability, old age, and death.

Table 3.4 shows results obtained from breaking down the formal and informal total employed population according to affiliation to the social security service.

In 1998, 51.5% of the Colombian employed population had access to health services, and 39.5% to pension services. Clearly, the formal sector affiliates the most to these services. 84% of the formal sector affiliates to health services and 71.2% to pension services. 28% of the informal sector affiliates to health services, and 16.7% to pension services.

⁶ XV Conference of Labor Statisticians. ILO, 1993

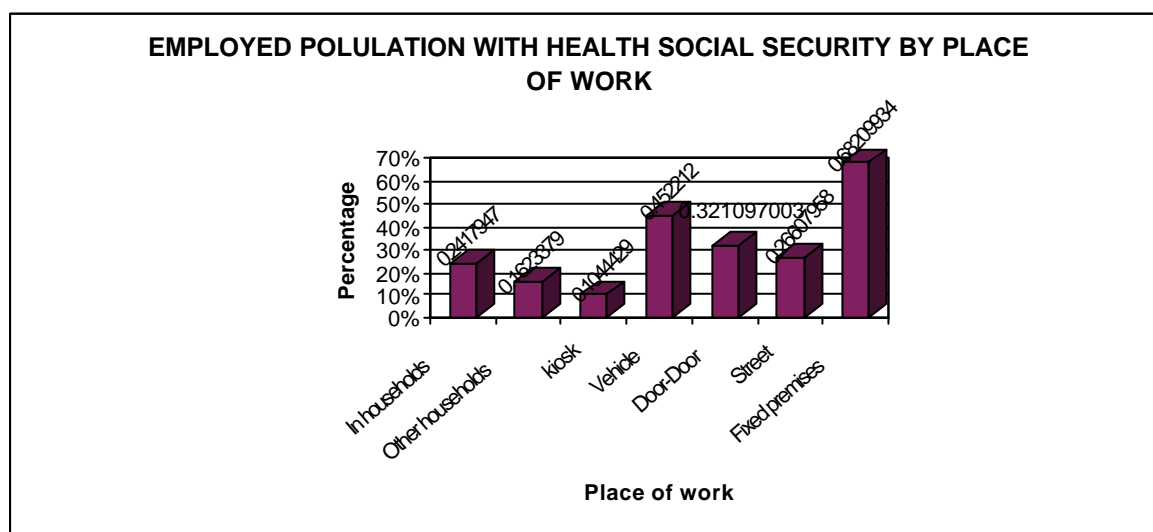
Table 3.4. Employed population by use of the social security services (%)

	Total	Informal	Formal
Does have health services	51.5	28.1	84
Does not have health services	48.2	71.5	15.7
Doesn't know, no answer	0.4	0.4	0.3
TOTAL	100	100	100
Does have pension services	39.5	16.7	71.2
Does not have pension services	59	82.2	26.9
Doesn't know, no answer	1.5	1.1	1.9
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

If we cross-reference the social security variable, and especially the health service, with the "place of work" variable, we obtain the participation shown in Chart 3.2. We can see that those working in fixed premises are the ones with highest affiliation levels (68.2%), while those working in vehicles only have a 45.2% participation and those working in kiosks and in other households 10.4% and 16.2%, respectively.

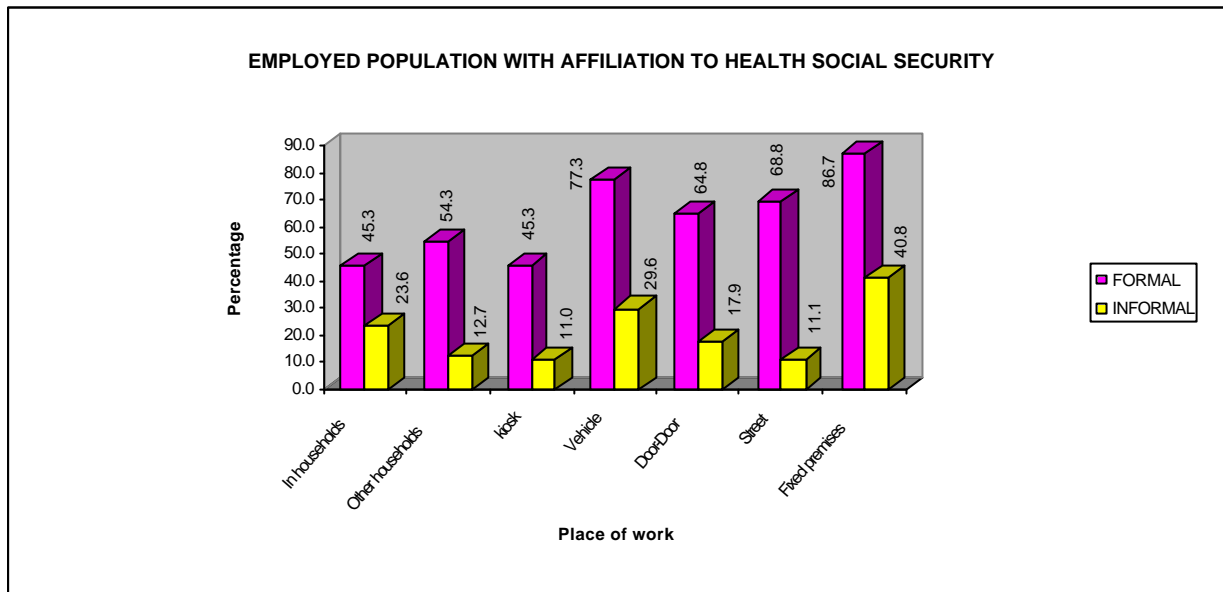
CHART 3.2



Persons working in their households or in other households show lower affiliation levels than those of street workers. The most vulnerable sector regarding social security is that of people working in kiosks.

Chart 3.3 again shows that the groups with the most affiliations, both formal and informal, are those of people working in fixed premises. Similarly, there is a great difference between affiliation levels in the formal and the informal sectors in all places of work, especially for persons working in the street, while the formal sector shows a 68.8% affiliation level and the informal sector 11.1%.

CHART 3.3

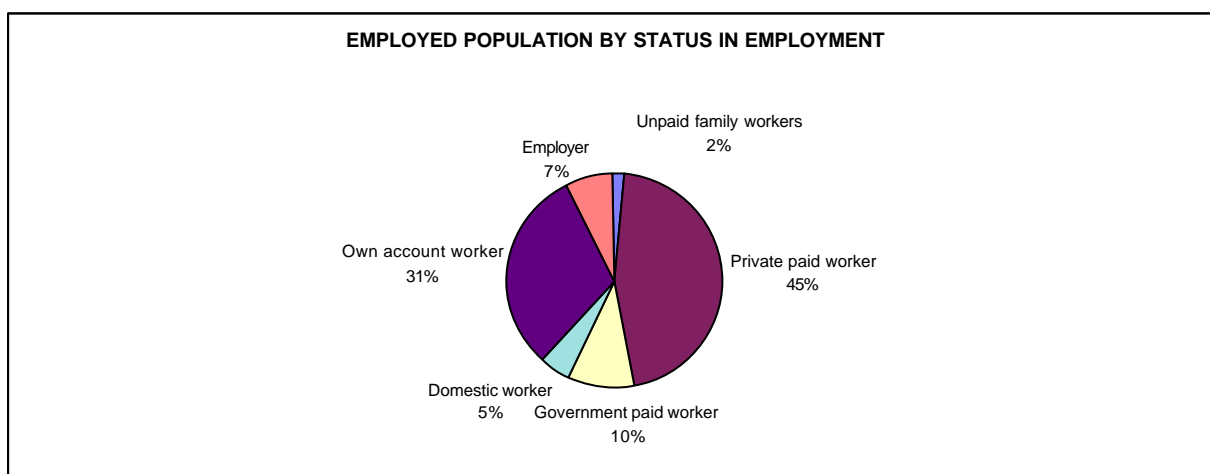


Persons working in vehicles show a relatively high affiliation rate⁷, 29.6% in the informal sector and 77.3% in the formal sector, basically due to the risk inherent to this activity.

Status in employment

In 1998, half of the employed population in Colombia were paid workers working in private sector companies (45%), followed by own account workers (31%) and by government officials (10%). (Chart 3.4).

⁷ Compared to affiliation rates in other locations.

CHART 3.4

The status in employment distribution is entirely different if we discriminate the formal sector from the informal sector (Table 3.5). Practically all of the entire formal sector is composed of private workers, also called private-sector's paid workers (75.2%), and by government paid officials (20.7%). On the other hand, almost half of all workers in the informal sector are "own account" workers, 47.4%. Paid workers from the private-sector in the informal sector only represent 33.1% of the informal employed population.

Table 3.5. Employed formal and informal population by status in employment (%)

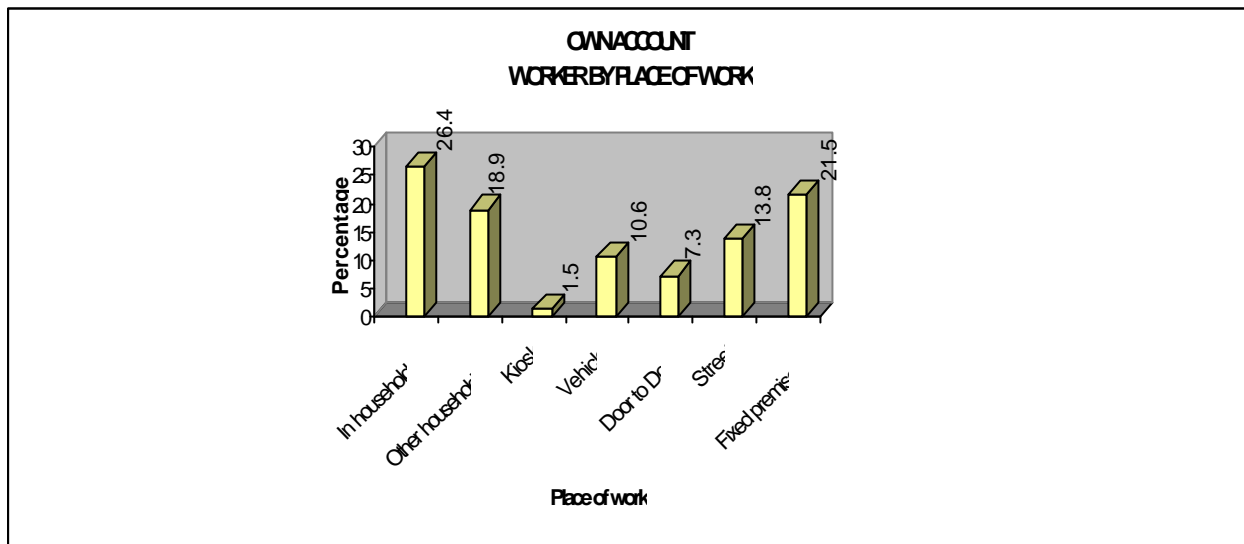
	Formal	Informal
Unpaid family worker	0.1	2.7
Private paid worker	75.2	33.1
Government paid worker	20.7	0.0
Domestic worker	0	7.5
Own account worker	1.5	47.4
Employer	2.5	9.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

The following three charts show the place of work preferably used by three status in employment categories: "own account workers", "private paid workers", and "employers", divided into formal sector and informal sector, in order to establish clear differences found upon crossing this variable.

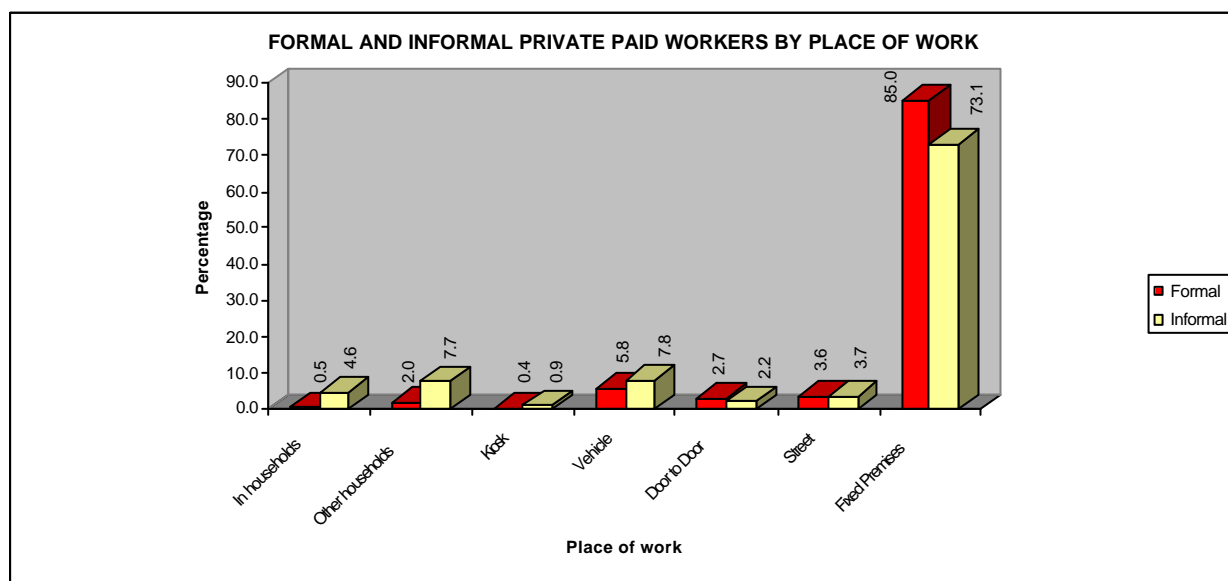
Own account workers, who by definition belong to the informal sector, clearly prefer working outside of fixed premises (78.5%) - in a great variety of places - mainly in their households (26.4%). Others work in their households, in the street, in kiosks, etc., as shown in Chart 3.5. Only a small number (21.5%) work in fixed premises.

CHART 3.5



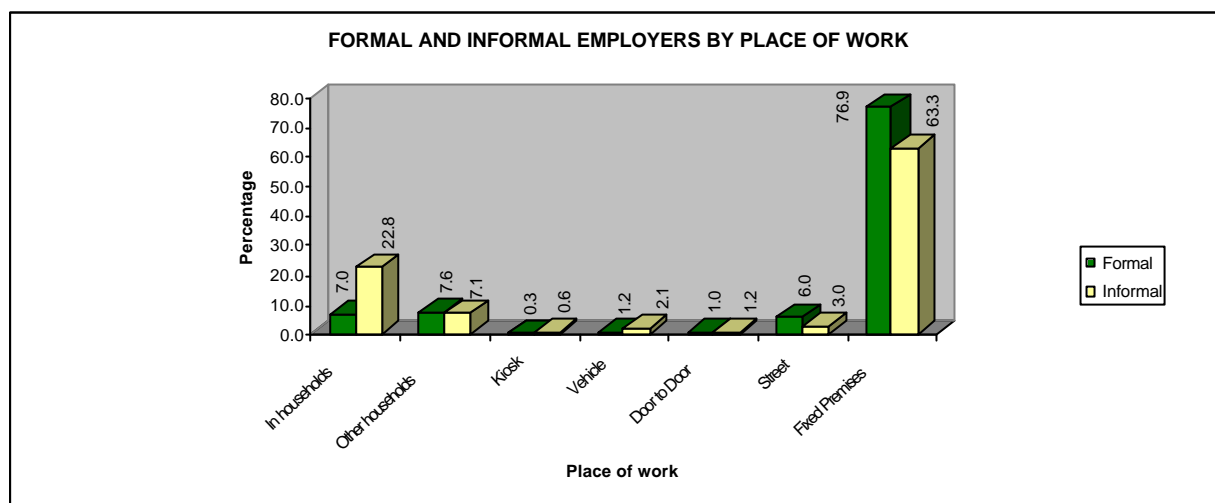
The private or paid worker, both formal and informal, has a marked tendency to work in fixed premises. Almost all workers related to private companies work in fixed premises. 85% of the formal sector, and 73% of the informal sector carries out activities in this location. (Chart 3.6)

CHART 3.6



Formal and informal employers, as well as private workers, mostly work in fixed premises, although the former have greater mobility with regard to places of work. For instance, in the informal sector, informal employers working in their households represent an important group (22.8%). (See Chart 3.7)

CHART 3.7



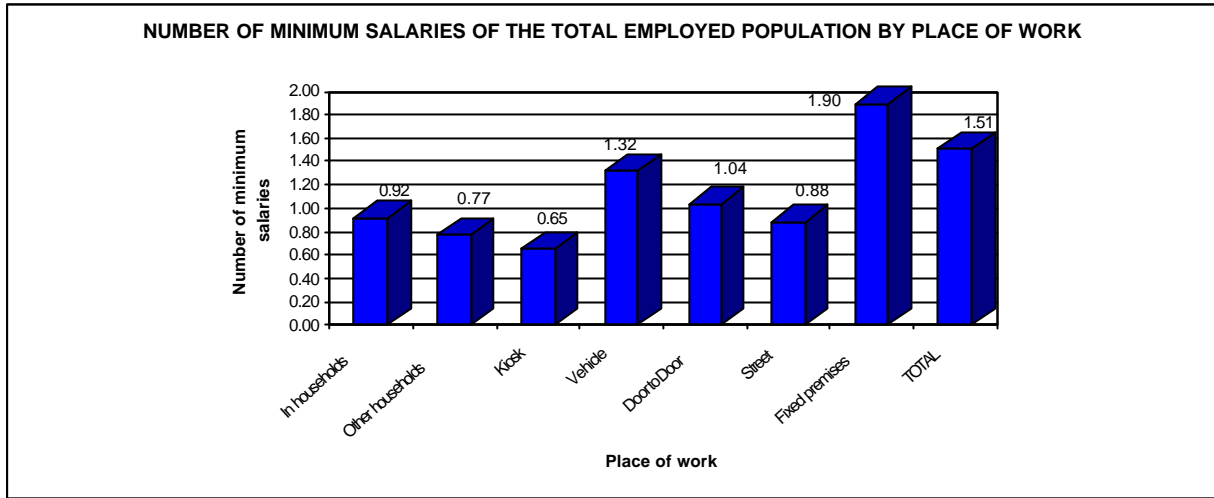
Income

The following exercise cross-references the "place of work" variable with "number of minimum salaries", where the number of minimum salaries = total income/minimum legal salary⁸.

Chart 3.8 shows that the average of the Colombian employed population received 1.51 minimum salaries. The only group having an income level in excess of the average is that of persons working in fixed premises. During 1998, these workers received 1.9 times the minimum salary established by the government, while those working in kiosks received 0.65 times the minimum salary.

⁸ The minimum salary includes an additional 50% corresponding to legal social benefits. In 1998, the minimum salary in Colombia was Col. \$203,825.

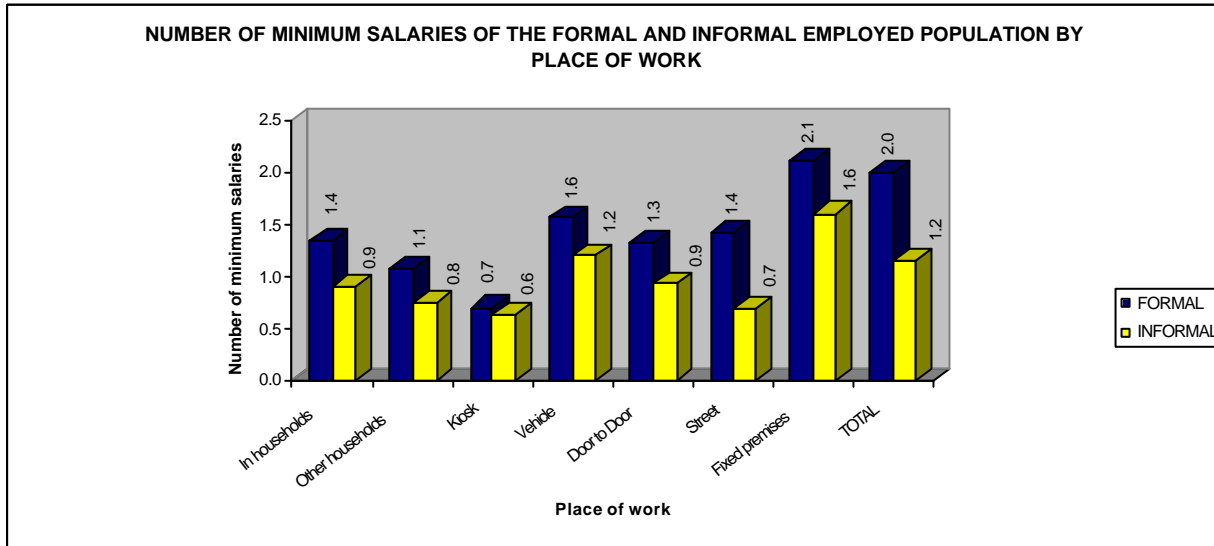
CHART 3.8



All other persons working in locations other than fixed premises show income levels below the average for the total employed population. Other persons, such as those working in vehicles and door-to-door, where the only ones slightly exceeding the minimum salary, 1.32 and 1.04, respectively.

If we discriminate income based on the formality concept, we see that the formal sector receives a greater income than the informal sector. The formal sector receives twice the minimum salary, while the informal sector only receives 1.2 times the minimum salary (see Chart 3.9).

CHART 3.9



If we discriminate the informal sector from the informal sector, we find that greater income levels are reported for fixed premises workers and persons working in vehicles, both from the informal

and from the formal sectors. Kiosk workers receive the lowest income, even those from the formal sector.

It is interesting to see the difference between incomes of street workers from the formal and the informal sectors. We should also remember the great difference found in affiliation rates of workers in these two sectors. It is clear that the meaning of "street work" is quite different in these two sectors.

Education

Another important variable used in this study is the educational all level. The following chart shows participation of workers with some degree of higher education (university), by place of work.

Workers with the highest levels of education are those working in fixed premises (35.4%). On the other hand, practically no one working in productive activities in kiosks has higher education; only 1.2% does (Chart 3.10).

CHART 3.10

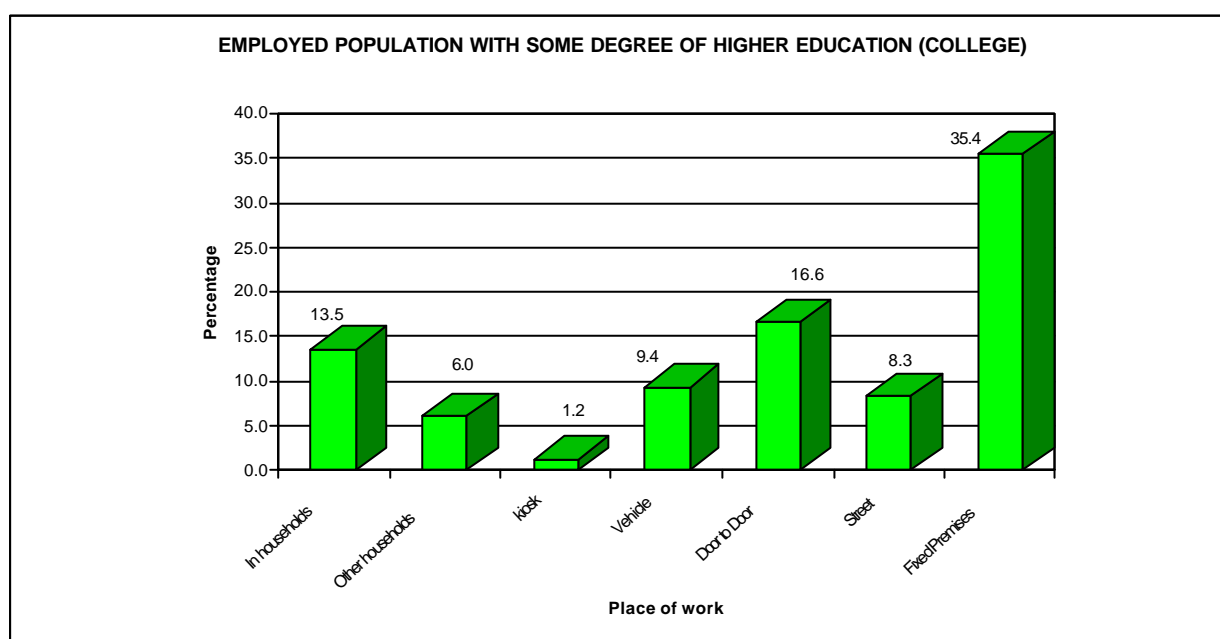


Table 3.6. Average number of school years in employed population, by place of work

PLACE OF WORK	Formal	Informal	Total
In household	9.4	7.7	7.8
In other households	8.1	6.2	6.3
Kiosk	6.6	6.5	6.5
Vehicle	8.4	7.9	8.1
Door-to-door	10.5	8.0	8.7
Street	8.9	5.7	6.5
Fixed premises	11.6	9.4	10.7

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

Table 3.6 shows that, in all places of work, formal workers are better educated than informal workers. On the other hand, persons working in fixed premises, both formal and informal, are better educated, with an average of 11.6 and 9.4 years, respectively.

In contrast, persons working in kiosks are the only formal workers who have hardly had basic six-year elementary education. The remaining formal workers have had some degree of secondary education. In the informal sector, street and kiosk workers, and those working in other households, have only had basic elementary education.

Weekly hours worked

Table 3.7. Weekly hours worked according to place of work

	Formal	Informal	Total
In household	42.9	46.6	46.5
In other households	50.4	41.2	42
Kiosk	40.1	51.4	49.5
Vehicle	57.7	54.9	55.8
Door-to-door	45.4	40.0	41.5
Street	50.1	45.9	47.0
Fixed premises	47.6	49.0	48.2
TOTAL	48.2	47.1	47.6

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

Table 3.7 shows that the number of weekly hours worked in the formal and the informal sectors is quite similar, 48.2 and 47.1, respectively, close to indications by the Colombian legislation establishing the 48-hour working week.

The workday does not seem to discriminate the two segments (formal and informal). However, if we study closely the workday by place of work, we find that there are important differences indeed.

The informal sector works a greater number of hours in other households, in vehicles, door-to-door, and in the street, while the informal sector works longer shifts while carrying out activities in other households, in kiosks or in fixed premises.

Branch of activity

The three main branches of economic activity with regard to worker employment are manufacturing, trading, and services. Following are the three branches, discriminated by place of work. (See Charts 3.11, 3.12, 3.13)

CHART 3.11

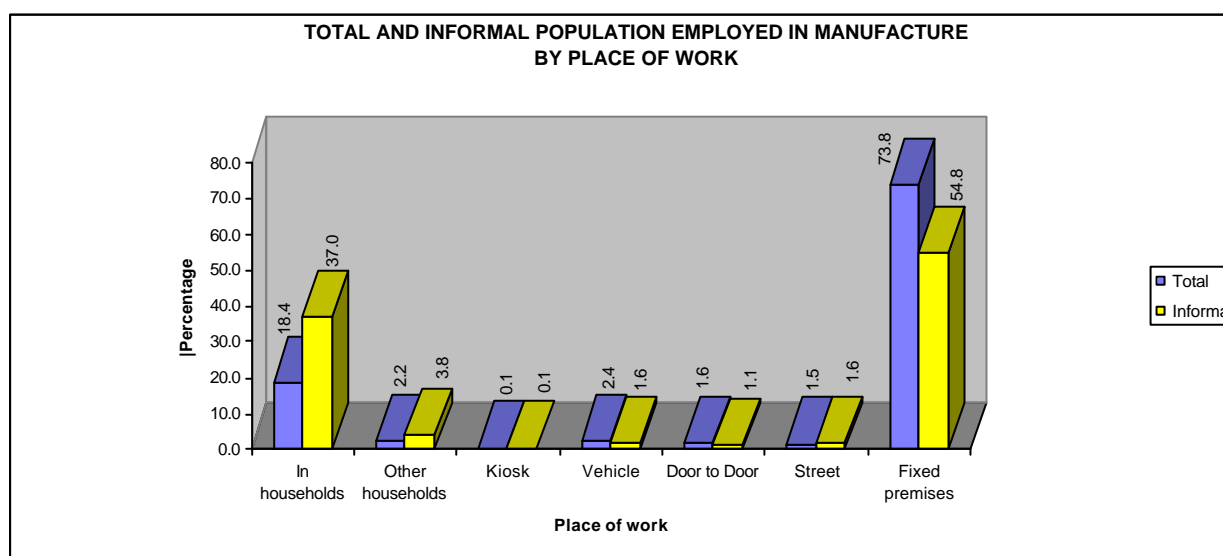
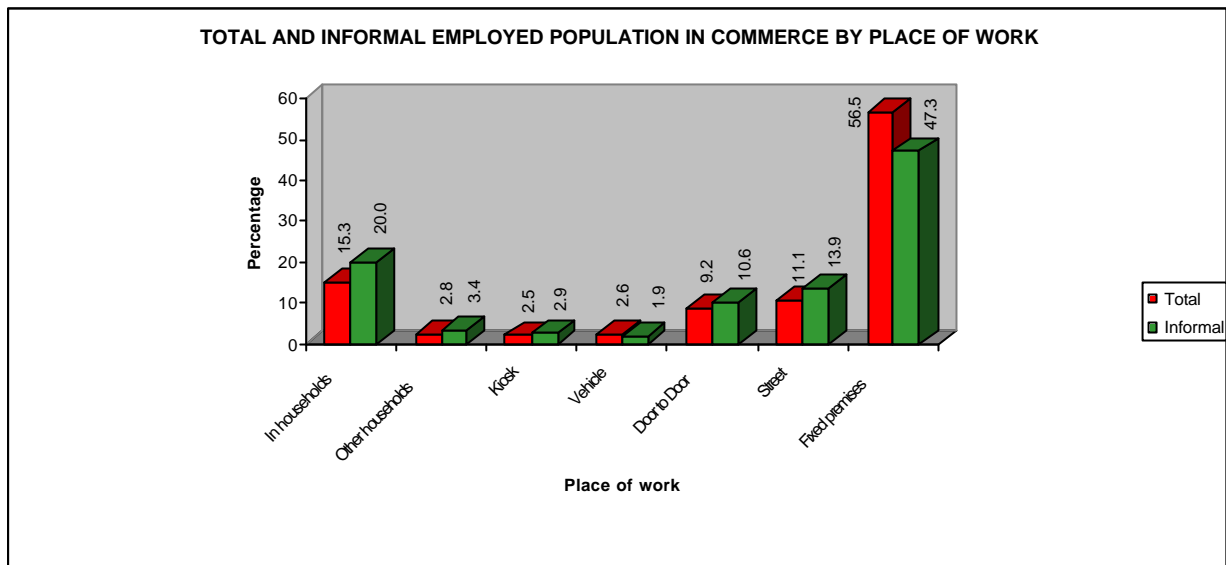
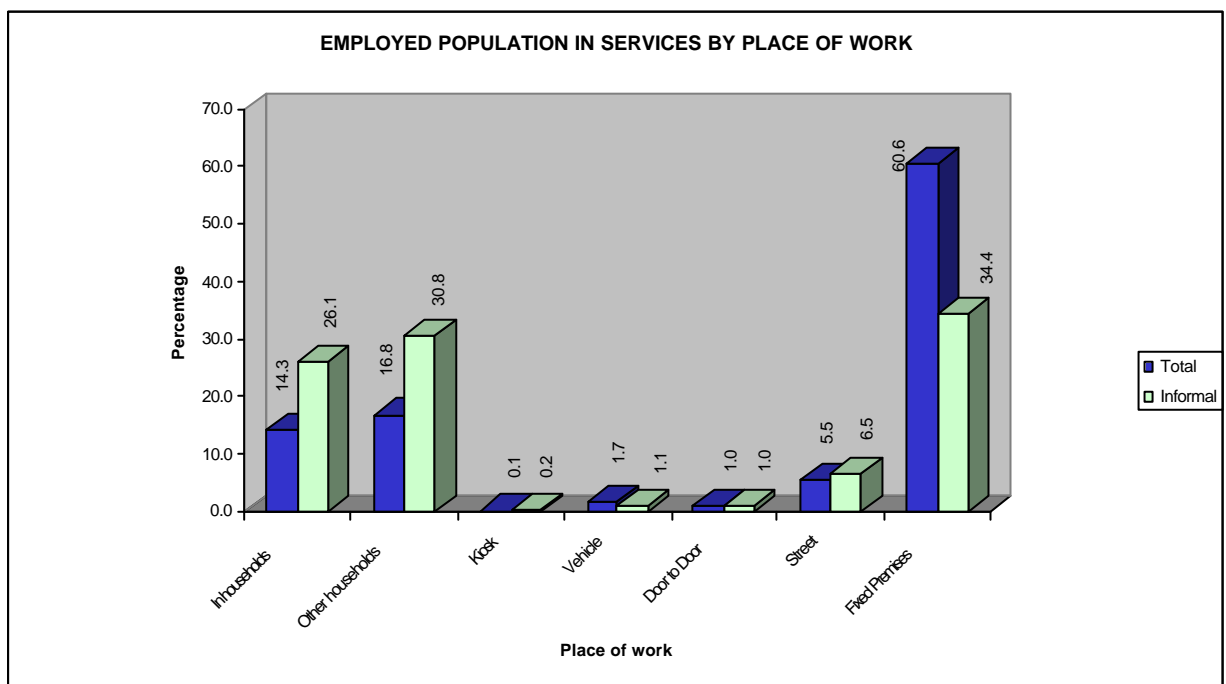


CHART 3.12**CHART 3.13**

In the formal sector, the fixed premises is the preferred option used in the three main branches of economic activity (manufacturing, commerce, and services). However, manufacturing uses fixed premises the most, 73.8%, against 56.5% by commerce and 60.6% by services.

On the other hand, in the informal sector utilization of fixed premises decreases substantially in the three branches of activity: 54.8% for manufacturing, 47.3% for commerce, and 34.4% for services. The informal services sector works mainly outside of fixed premises, in other households (21.6%), and in the worker's own household (30.8%).

Considering the nature of the commerce sector, this activity is carried out, in addition to fixed premises, in the street, door-to-door, in kiosks, and even in vehicles.

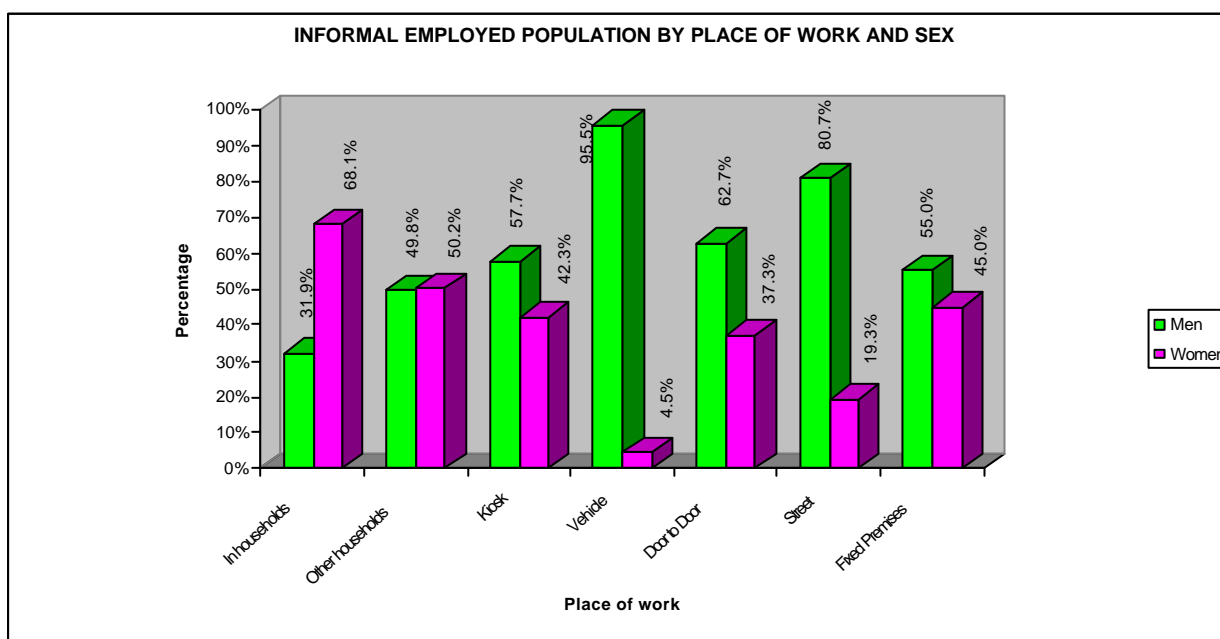
3.3.2.2. Classification by sex

During 1998, Colombia had a total employed population of 6,278,723 persons, 3,530,970 male and 2,747,753 female. Male participation is slightly higher than female, 56% and 44% respectively. However, the sex variable behaves quite differently when associated to other variables. In this section, we will study variables associated to sex, and particularly to women.

Place of work

Chart 3.14 shows that women clearly carry out their activities in households, mainly "their own households". In this place of work, the relationship is a lot higher than that of men. 68.1% of persons working in "their own households" are women, while only 31.9% are men. Women work the least in vehicles, 4.5%; this activity is carried out mostly by men.

CHART 3.14



The male population exceeds by far the female population in the following places of work. From every 10 persons working in vehicles, nine are male; six out of ten door-to-door workers are male, as well as 8 out of 10 street workers.

In kiosks, in fixed premises, and in other households, the proportion between male and female workers is quite similar.

Occupation

Table 3.8. Employed population by sex, by occupation (%)

	Not specified	Profess./technic.	Managers	Clerks	Sales workers	Service workers	Agricult.w orkers	Product. workers
Men	92	54	62	41	52	30	81	80
Women	8	46	38	59	48	70	19	20
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

Table 3.8 shows how women have a tendency to better report or specify their occupation than men, 8% and 92%, respectively. It is possible that the majority of female occupations are better determined by the occupation classification. We must remember that this group does not include the armed forces, mainly composed of men⁹, and that "does not specify" and "does not answer" has been added.

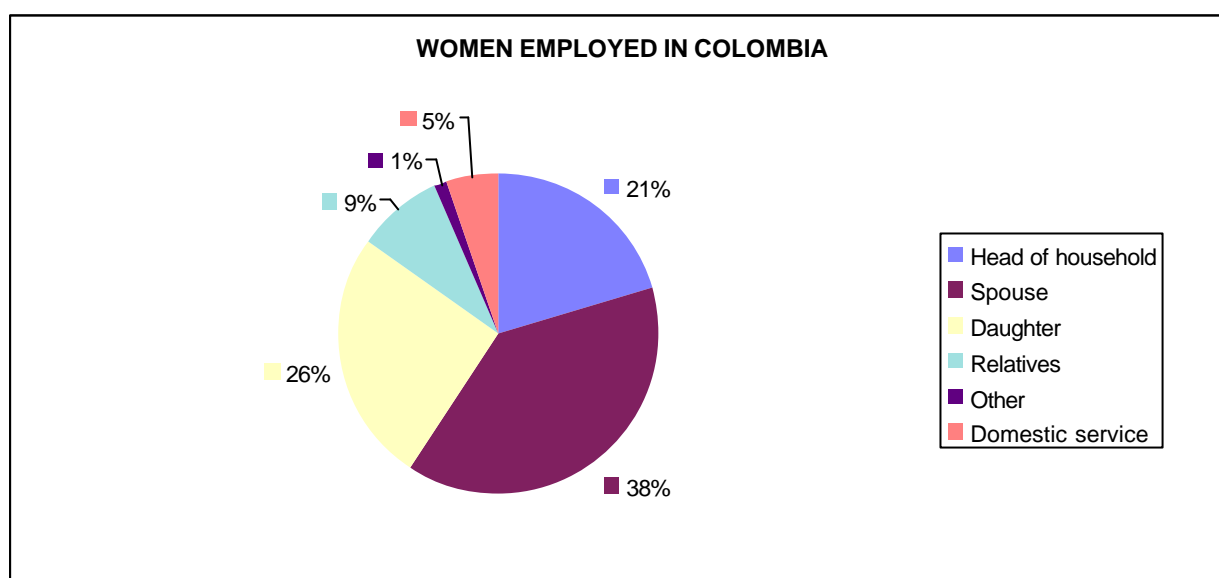
Greater female participation is found in some activities. 59% of administrative personnel, and 70% of service workers are female. Men dominate all occupations, especially agricultural and forest workers, and non-agricultural workers and operators.

Kinship

In Chart 3.15 we find that the majority of the female employed population consists in housewives (38%).

⁹ The armed forces check the "does not specify" choice.

CHART 3.15



Household female heads participate in 21% of the female labour force, a high percentage considering other activities culturally assigned to women in their homes.

A high percentage of daughters and relatives living in the household have economic responsibilities with the families accommodating them. Particularly, daughters contribute substantially in paying household expenses, and represent 26% of the employed female population.

Domestic workers have a 5% participation in the female labour force.

Social Security

Table 3.9. Total employed population with health social security services (%)

	Men	Women
In their household	21.8	25.3
Other households	17.9	14.6
Kiosk	18.8	13.8
Vehicle	45	49.6
Door-to-door	37.5	23.1
Street	28.5	18.5
Fixed premises	64.7	72.5
Total affiliation to health services	50.4	52.8

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

Rates of total employed population affiliated to the male and female social security services are quite similar, 52.8% and 50.4%, respectively. However, there are a few female groups with very low affiliation rates, namely those working in kiosks, 13.8%, and in other households, 14.6%. It is interesting to see, nevertheless, that women working in fixed premises and in vehicles have higher affiliation rates, 72.5% and 49.6%, respectively, even higher than the corresponding male affiliation rates. (Table 3.9)

Income

Total male income exceeds 1.75 times the legal minimum salary, while female income only exceed the minimum salary by 1.21. This same tendency also applies to the formal and to the informal sectors.

However, women in the informal sector receive the lowest income, 0.86 minimum legal salaries (see Chart 3.16).

CHART 3.16

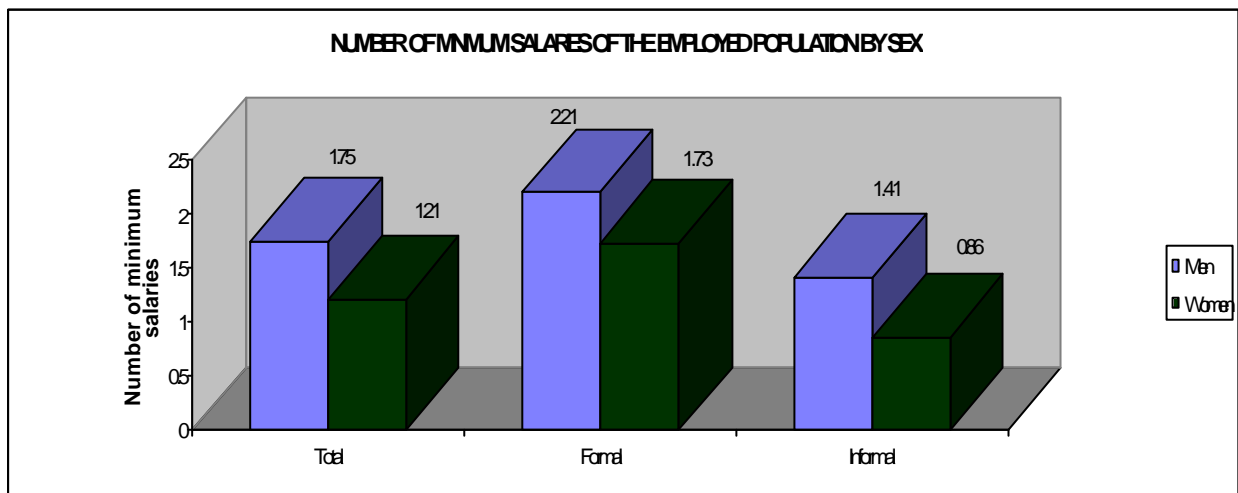


Table 3.10 shows the behavior of three variables associated to the place of work, the number of minimum salaries, the number of weekly hours worked, and the education, according to sex of the employed population.

Table 3.10. Other variables related to the place of work according to sex

Variables	Household	Other households	Kiosk	Vehicle	Door-to-door	Street	Fixed premises
No. of minimum salaries							
<i>Men</i>	1.33	0.96	0.72	1.32	1.13	0.94	2.21
<i>Women</i>	0.73	0.61	0.56	1.42	0.88	0.66	1.55
Hours worked							
<i>Men</i>	49.3	46.7	53.2	56.5	46.4	48.3	50
<i>Women</i>	45.2	37.30	44.60	41.60	33.20	40.90	45.9
Years in school							
<i>Men</i>	8.5	6.8	6.6	8	8.4	6.6	10.4
<i>Women</i>	7.4	5.90	6.30	10.00	9.30	6.4	11.1

Source: author calculations, based on the national households survey of June 1998, DANE

Men have higher incomes than women in all places of work (except for vehicles). Women working in vehicles receive 1.42 minimum monthly salaries, while men receive 1.32 minimum salaries.

Almost all women receive incomes below the minimum salary, with the exception of those working in vehicles (1.42) and in fixed premises (1.55). Those working in kiosks earn the lowest incomes, almost half of the minimum salary (0.56).

Weekly hours worked

It should be noted that no women's group meets the legal minimum of 48 hours/week, while almost all men work in excess of the legal minimum (with the exception of door-to-door and other households). Men working the longest weeks are those working in vehicles (56.6 hours), in kiosks (53.2 hours), and in fixed premises (50 hours).

Women working in fixed premises are relatively better off than the others regarding income¹⁰, but also work the longest weeks, 45.9 hours. Door-to-door women workers and those working in other households work the least (33.2 hours and 37.3 hours, respectively) (see Table 3.10).

Education

With regard to educational level, we see that the most educated group is the fixed premises group, both for men and for women, with women having the most number of school years, 11.1 vs. 10.4.

Women working in other households, in kiosks, and in the street have lower education levels, only six years of elementary school.

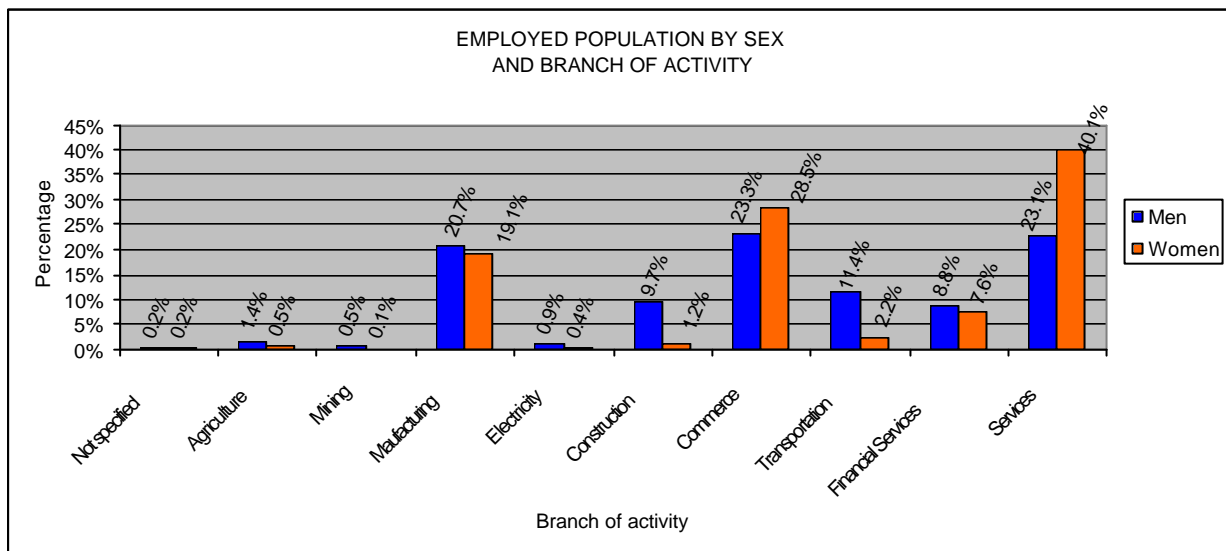
¹⁰ Women working in fixed premises receive 1.55 minimum monthly salaries

Women working in vehicles earn relatively high incomes and have a better educational level, 10 years, when compared to the rest of the female group (see Table 3.10).

Branch of activity

Chart 3.17 shows the employed population according to sex and to branch of economic activity. The majority of employed persons work in manufacturing, commerce, and services. The number of male workers exceeds that of female workers in agriculture, mining, manufacturing, electricity, gas and water, construction, transportation, and financial services. There are more women working in commerce and in services than men.

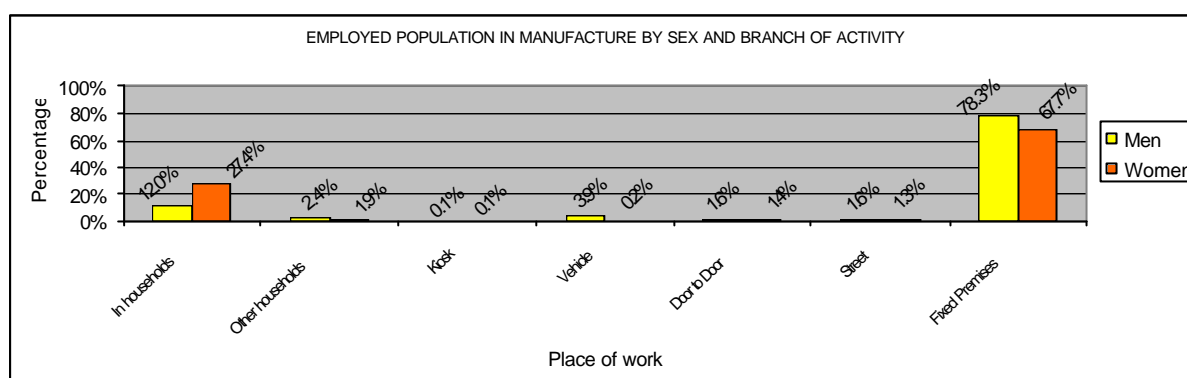
CHART 3.17



The number of women exceeds by far the number of men in the services sector. While only 23.1% of men work in the services sector, almost half of all women, 40.1% work there.

Chart 3.18 shows that the majority of the population employed in manufacturing work in fixed premises; however, the number of men working in this location exceeds that of women: 78.3% and 67.7%, respectively.

CHART 3.18

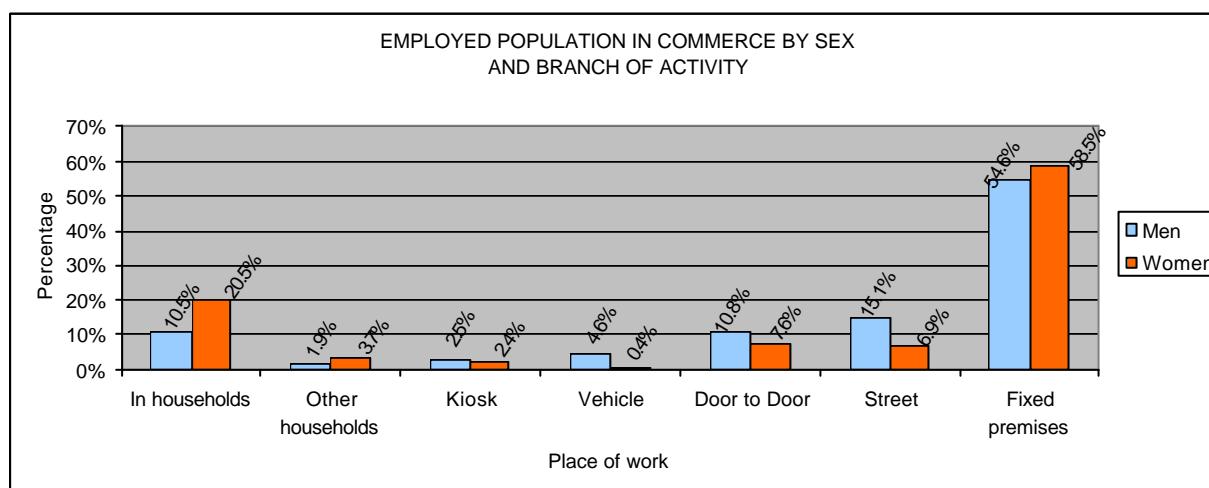


On the other hand, when the manufacturing activity is carried out in the workers' household, the number of female workers exceed that of male workers: 27.4% and 12%, respectively. The largest number of women working in their own households is found in manufacturing, 27.4% against 20.5% in commerce and 20.5% in services.

Manufacturing is the branch of economic activity in which the fixed premises is used the most, both for men and women.

Considering the inherent characteristics of the Commerce sector, it is this sector that uses the greatest variety of places of work. Fixed premises are the fewest compared to the other two sectors, while other locations such as door-to-door, street, kiosks, other households and vehicles become important elements in this analysis. (Chart 3.19)

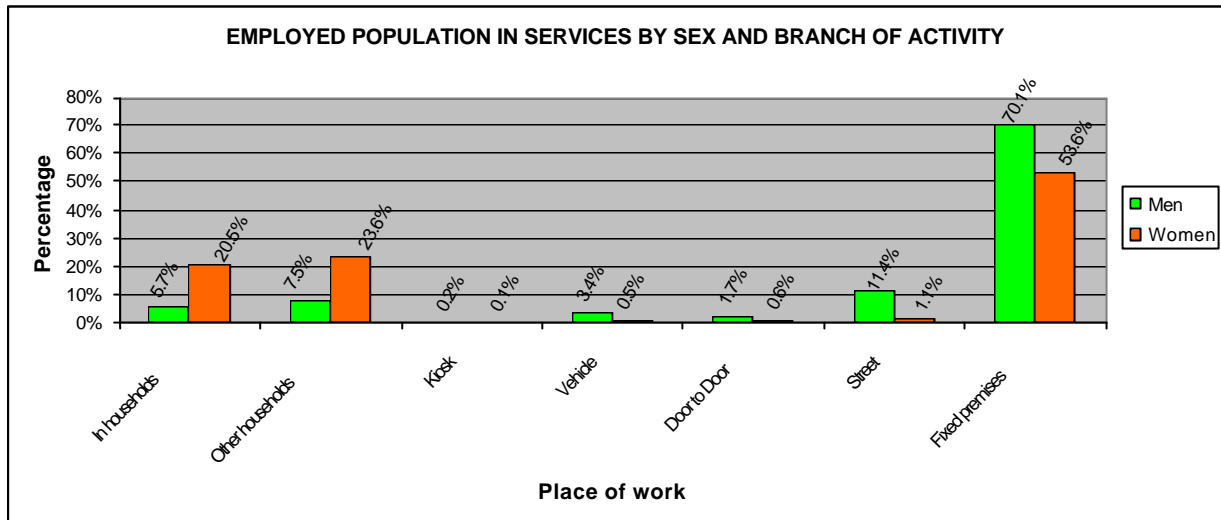
CHART 3.19



Female work in their own household is quite important: 20.5% of women working in commerce do it in their homes, while 7.6% are door-to-door workers and 6.9% work in the street. There is a slight preference by women to work in fixed premises compared to male preferences: 58.5% and 54.6%, respectively.

Chart 3.20 shows that the services sector is basically characterized by female work, located both in fixed premises (53.6%) and in households (44.1%); the remaining 2.3% is located in other locations. Female work in the services sector is quite important: 44.1%, 20.5% is work done in their own households and 23.6% in other households, such as customers' households, employers' households, etc.

CHART 3.20



3.4. Mexico

3.4.1. Review of the form's questions and of the typology used in the "place of work" variable

The question on place of work is the same for the urban employment survey and for the micro-business survey, and is divided into two:

Does the company or business for which you work have its own place of work?

(In the case of self-employed workers or domestic workers, ask for the location or place of work or where the services are provided)

- 9 Yes. How you call this type of location? Specify
- 9 No. Where do you carry out your activities? Specify
- 9 Does not know

Classify the above question in the following list.

Without premises.

- *In cultivated land, launch, wells, etc.*
- *Door-to-door or street*
- *In a vehicle, bicycle, car, etc. (except for transportation services)*
- *Improvised stand in public streets*
- *In his/her own household*
- *In his/her employer or customer's household*
- *In a vehicle used for transportation of personnel, goods, in a taxi, truck, etc.*
- *Semi-fixed stand in the street*
- *Other. Specify*

With premises

- *Fixed premises in a public street*
- *Commercial premises, store, hardware store, shoe store, bakery, etc.*
- *Production workshop, pastry shop, bakery, press, carpentry, etc.*
- *Repair services, mechanical shop, electrical shop, electronic shop, etc.*
- *Services: restaurant, bar, boarding house, etc., not part of a chain*
- *Services: professional, specialized technical, personal, educational, assistance, etc.*
- *Medium and large-sized production enterprises, construction and extraction: plants, mines, oil wells, etc.*
- *Medium and large-sized production enterprises: commercial, financial, transportation, health, education and other services; grocery stores, banks, bus lines, clinics, schools, hotels, etc.*
- *Medium and large-sized production enterprises: agricultural, fishing*
- *Administrative offices from the federal, state, or municipal government*
- *Works in the United States*
- *Other. Specify*

“Premises” means the physical space limited by buildings and fixed premises, where the company or business operates with the specific purpose of developing an economic activity.

The "with premises" and "without premises" classification is done by the person being surveyed upon selecting one of the questionnaire's options. These options are mutually exclusive and clearly provide 16 alternatives of place of works at an urban level (there are some non-urban locations, although used by city dwellers).

Place of work in the ENEU includes the following classification: "without premises", divided into door-to-door, in a vehicle, in the household, in a fixed premises, and others (without premises). The "with premises" is divided into small, medium, and large locations, and other (with premises).

Without premises

- *In cultivated land, launch, wells, etc.:* refers to persons working in agricultural, fishing, forest and collection activities without fixed premises or equipment for automated operation.
- *Door-to-door or street:* refers to persons whose enterprises lack a physical location and who develop their activities walking the streets or visiting their customers door-to-door.
- *In a vehicle, bicycle, car, etc.:* includes persons carrying out their activities in some type of vehicle such as a motorcycle, bicycle, car, etc., except for cargo or passenger transportation services.
- *Improvised stand in public streets:* includes economic entities or persons who use improvised stands in public places. Some of these stands include produce stands set weekly on a specific location.
- *In his/her own household:* includes persons working in their own households, using their own homes as the place of work.
- *In his/her employer or customer's household:* the activities are carried out in the employer or customer's household, whenever the business lacks a physical location.
- *In vehicles for transportation of persons or goods (taxi, truck, etc.):* includes businesses providing transportation services, both for persons and for goods, provided the company, the employer, or the self-employed worker has only one unit with which to work.
- *Semi fixed stand in a public street:* includes businesses that use a semi-fixed stand in a public street, regardless of the economic activity. These stands are generally of a tubular nature, are set daily and sometimes have a license or an operational permit.

With premises

The classification provided by the ENEU in the "with premises" boxes is the following:

- *Small.* Refers to workshops and locations not belonging to a chain.
 - *Fixed premises in a public street.* Includes economic entities that have a fixed premises in the street for carrying out their activities, regardless of type of activity. A fixed premises means a permanent structure with an assigned location, generally having a license or an operational permit.
 - *Commercial location, grocery store, hardware store, shoe shop, bakery, etc.* Includes small enterprises not part of a chain, whose purpose is the trading of goods.
 - *Production workshop, pastry, bakery, press, carpentry, etc.* Means small enterprises not part of a chain, carrying out production activities.
 - *Repair, mechanical, electrical, electronic, etc. shop.* Includes small enterprises not part of a chain where various types of repair services are provided.

- *Services: restaurant, bar, boarding house, etc.* Includes businesses with small premises, not part of a chain and only recognized in the location where the food or boarding services are provided.
- *Services: professional, specialized technical, personal, educational, assistance, etc.* Includes businesses with limited premises, not part of a chain and providing professional, technical, etc. services.
- *Medium and large-sized.* Medium and large-sized enterprises, including the government's offices.
 - *Enterprises of a medium to large-sized size involved in production, construction and extraction, plants, mines, oil wells, etc.* Includes businesses from the transformation, construction, and mining industries, all medium to large size.
 - *Enterprises of medium and large size, involved in commercial, financial, transportation, health, and educational activities and in other services, grocery stores, banks, bus lines, clinics, schools, hotels, etc.* Includes paraestatal and decentralized enterprises, as well as some offices from the Secretary of State performing specific activities or services other than public administration, such as public schools, PEMEX, hospitals from the Social Security Service, etc. Includes owners of two or more transportation units, urban or foreign buses, taxis, regardless of whether they own premises or not.
 - *Administrative offices from the federal, state, or municipal government.* Includes government offices with administrative functions. Government entities involved in other activities are classified according to the economic activity performed.
- *Other.* Those that cannot be included in the above categories.

The "place of work" variable has several purposes: on one side, to identify whether the employed person works for a company with a premises, and the type of premises; also, the various answer options help supplement the information in order to classify the economic activity branch and the size of the business in which the employed person is working (premises and small workshops that belong to a chain, medium and large enterprises belonging to a chain), and administrative government enterprises.

In Mexico, "place of work" has a different meaning than in Colombia. In Mexico, this variable refers to the Company, while in Colombia it refers to the employed person. An example may help illustrate this point: in Mexico, a policeman working in the street answers that the company that hired him has a fixed premises, specifically administrative offices from the federal, state, or municipal government". In Colombia, this same policeman will answer that he works "in the street".

It is interesting to note that, even if the Mexican survey has an urban coverage, there are different options for agricultural and mining activities performed by persons living in the cities. It refers to work in cultivated land, launch, wells, etc., and belongs to the "without premises" classification.

3.4.2. Evaluation of the "place of work" variable in Mexico

3.4.2.1. Urban employment national survey (April-June 1998)

More than half of the Mexican labour force (57.5%)¹¹ works in specific locations designed as the physical space limited by permanent constructions; the remaining 42.5% works without a specific location or fixed premises for this purpose (a stand in the public street, a produce stand¹², door-to-door or street salesmen, providing goods and services in vehicles, etc.). (See Chart 3.21)

CHART 3.21



¹¹ This ratio is quite similar to that obtained in Colombia, 59.7%

¹² A produce stand is an improvised grocery store normally set once a week in public streets, similar to a mobile market.

This chart shows that women have a greater tendency to work in fixed premises than men, 62.2% and 55.1%, respectively.

Branch of economic activity

Mexico's total employed population during 1998 was 36,617,511. From this number, 20.2% reported belonging to the agricultural sector. Table 3.11 shows that the agricultural sector is an activity occupying the greatest portion of labour, 20.2%, even above manufacturing (17.9%) and commerce (17.6%).

Table 3.11. Total population employed by branch of economic activity (%)

Branch	Participation
Agricultural activities	20.2
Operation of mines and quarries	0.3
Oil extraction and refining	0.3
Manufacturing	17.9
Electricity	0.5
Construction	5.5
Commerce	17.6
Hotels, restaurants, and other	4.7
Transportation and related services	3.9
Communications	0.5
Real estate leases and financial and professional services	3.8
Other services	20.2
Public administration	4.2
Not specified	0.4
TOTAL	100

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

Table 3.12 shows that the agricultural activity is carried out basically by men, 85.5% compared to only 14.5% women working in this activity. We also see that both men and women work without a specific location, which is to be expected. The Mexican questionnaire includes a "place of work" option: "in cultivated land, launch, well, etc.", representing persons who, even if living in the city or in small towns, work in the fields.

Table 3.12. Population employed, by sex and place of work, according to branch of activity (Mexico, April-June 1998) (%)

	Agr	Min	Oil	Man.	Elect	Const	Comm	Hotel	Trans	Comu	Finan	O.serv	PAdm
Men	85.5	97.9	83.9	63.8	84.9	96.9	53.5	44.7	94	64.6	64	50.6	70.6
Women	14.5	2.1	16.1	36.2	15.1	3.1	46.5	55.3	6.0	35.4	36.0	49.4	29.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Men													
W/O premises	86.2	15.6	0	11.9	0	74.8	27.2	25.4	57.3	1.6	14.7	38.4	0
W premises	13.8	84.4	100.0	88.1	100.0	25.2	72.8	74.6	42.7	98.4	85.3	61.6	100.0
Women													
W/O	86.6	17.2	0	30.1	0	15.6	30.4	35.4	5.3	5.7	6.6	46.3	0

premises													
W premises	13.4	82.8	100	69.9	100.0	84.4	69.6	64.6	94.7	94.3	93.4	53.7	100

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

Another important sector with regard to employment is manufacturing, representing 17.9% of the labour force, of which 63.8% are men working in fixed premises.

The construction and transportation sector draws attention since almost all activity is carried out by men located in places without premises, which is not surprising. However, women, representing 3.1% in construction and 6% in transportation, work mainly in fixed premises, perhaps in administrative work.

Distribution by sex in the commerce sector is even between men and women, and in both cases the majority works in fixed premises. Female work is more predominant in the hotel sector and in related activities. This is only branch of activity where women exceed men, 55.3% and 44.7%, respectively, most of them working in fixed premises.

Sex

The ENEU questionnaire provides a great variety of reply options to the question regarding the place of work; however, output charts are aggregated and basically involve two large groups: "with premises" and "without premises".

Table 3.13 shows that the number of women working in their households and in small premises exceed by far the number of men working in these same locations. Men work more in vehicles and in other places (without premises) than women.

The "other (without premises)" category, which includes an important male segment (22.7%), is an heterogeneous category which includes some options that should be separated; for instance, men working in the fields with an option to specifically answer "premises"¹³ are grouped in the output charts in (others), without premises. Note that the agricultural sector absorbs 20.2% of the urban Mexican labour force, suggesting that the group could be further disaggregated in order to at least identify agricultural workers.

Table 3.13. Population employed, by sex and by place of work (Mexico, April-June 1998) (%)

Location	Men	Women
Door-to-door	2	3
Vehicle	3.7	0.3
In their household	15.2	25.2
Fixed premises	1.2	1.6
Other (w/o fixed premises)	22.7	7.7

¹³ Cultivated land, launch, wells, etc.

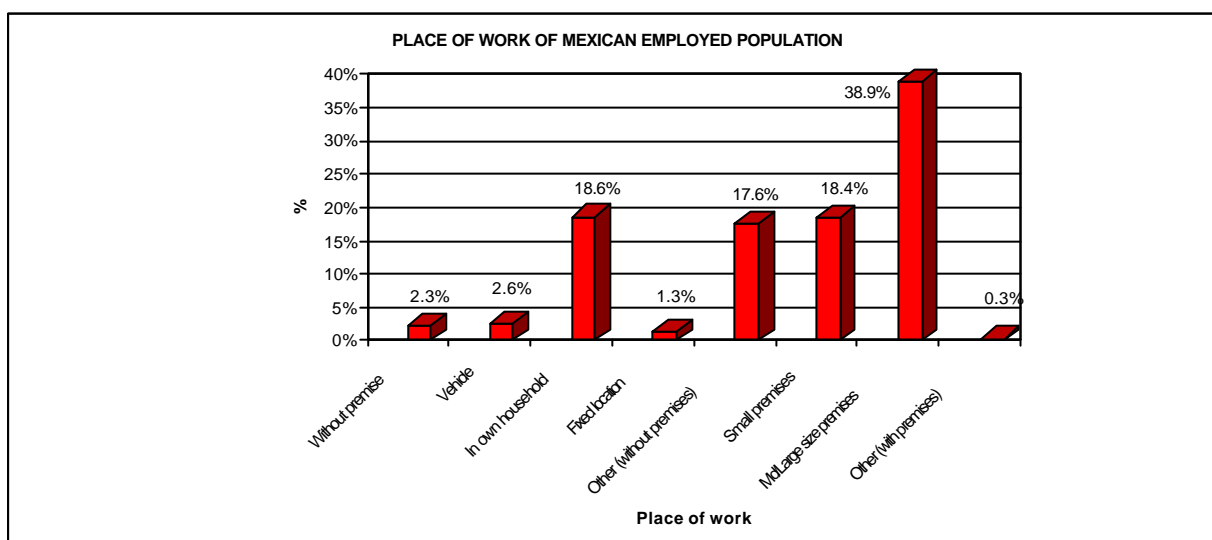
Small premises	16.1	22.5
Medium and large premises	38.6	39.6
Other (with premises)	0.5	0.1
Total	100	100

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

Place of work

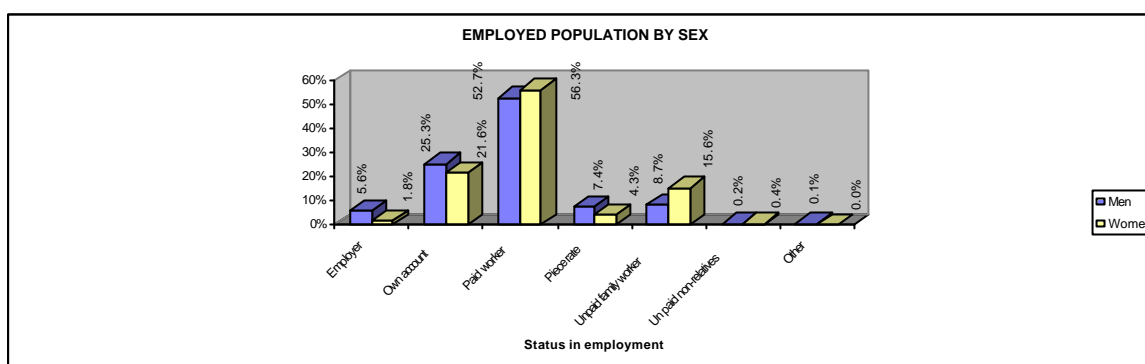
Chart 3.22 shows that the locations most commonly used by the Mexican labour force are medium and large-sized premises (38.9%); however, the other premises, such as small work sites, persons working in their households (18.6%), and other places without premises (17.6%), are also important.

CHART 3.22



Status in employment

Chart 3.23 shows that paid workers, both male and female, show the greatest participation in the Mexican labour force, representing close to half of the entire employed population. Male participation exceeds female participation, whenever the person works as an employer, on his/her own, and piece rate. The number of women exceeds that of men when working as paid workers, unpaid relatives, and unpaid non-relatives.

CHART 3.23

It would appear that men are more willing to take economic risks and work more independently, such as self-employed, employers, or piece rate, while women exceed men when working without pay.

Table 3.14 shows that the majority of female employers work in small premises. Own account women work in their households, while paid and piece rate female workers work in medium and large premises. If we could relate the degree of formality to the place of work, we could say that the most formal female workers are paid workers and piece rate, who work mainly in medium and large-sized premises.

Participation of unpaid family female workers should be highlighted: they represent 15.6% of the female labour force (see chart 3.23). Most of them work in unidentified places of work (52.9%), classified as "others (without premises)", followed by "in small premises" (56.1%) and "in their households" (10.9%) (see Table 3.14).

Table 3.14. Employed women by place of work by status in employment (Mexico, April-June 1998) (%)

	Employers	Own account workers	Paid workers	Piece rate	Unpaid family workers	Unpaid non-relatives
Without premises						
Door-to-door	1.3	6.9	0.3	1.0	3.3	1.3
Vehicle	4.8	4.2	0.5	16.1	0.8	0.7
In their household	23.5	35.0	13.1	13.5	10.9	10.6
Fixed location	1.9	2.6	0.5	0.4	2.9	2
Other	6.4	32.2	6.0	7.3	52.9	20.2
With premises						
Small	45.4	18.0	14.7	16.2	26.1	26.5
Medium to large-	16.6	1.1	64.2	45.0	3.2	38.6
Other	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.4	0	0.1
Total	100	100	100.0	100	100.0	100

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

The number of women exceeds that of men when working in fixed premises. This is valid for all status in employment categories, with the exception of "others". (See Table 3.15)

Employers, paid workers, piece rate workers, and unpaid non-relatives have a greater tendency to work in fixed premises than other locations. This applies to both men and women. On the other hand, own account workers and unpaid relatives work mostly in locations without premises.

Table 3.15. Employed population by sex and place of work (Mexico, april-june 1998) (%)

	MEN			WOMEN		
	without premises	with premises	Total	without premises	with premises	Total
Employers	41.6	58.4	100	15.2	84.8	100
Own account	83.4	16.6	100.0	75.0	25.0	100.0
Paid workers	21	79.0	100.0	19.3	80.7	100.0
Piece rate	43.7	56.3	100.0	20.2	79.8	100.0
Unpaid relatives	79.9	20.1	100.0	60.6	39.4	100.0
Unpaid non-relatives	37.3	62.7	100.0	32.4	67.6	100.0
Other	0	100.0	100.0	13.7	86.3	100.0

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

Size of establishment

Table 3.16 shows an inverse relationship between size of establishment and number of persons working without specific premises. It also shows a direct relationship between company size and the number of persons using premises to work.

From the above, it can be concluded that with persons working in larger enterprises, companies show a preference to locate themselves in fixed premises, and less in other places without premises. For instance, only 13.1% of single-person companies operate in fixed premises, while 99.8% of establishments with more than 50 workers operate in premises.

Table 3.16. Employed population by size of establishment and place of work (Mexico, April-June 1998) (%)

Size	without premises	with premises	Total
1 person	86.9	13.1	100
2-5 persons	63.2	36.8	100.0
6-10 persons	29.4	70.6	100.0
11-15 persons	14.1	85.9	100.0
16-50 persons	3.6	96.4	100.0
51 and more persons	0.2	99.8	100
TOTAL	42.5	57.5	100

Source: author calculations, based on the ENEU, 1998, INEGI

3.4.2.2. Mexican Micro-Business Annual Survey

This part of the work includes two tables with information obtained from the Mexican 1996 Micro-Business Survey. This survey contains complete tables with information on the "place of work" variable. These tables are included here since they contain information not previously considered in the Colombian or Mexican analysis.

Mexican micro-businesses are defined as economic units of up to six persons, including the owner and the workers, paid or not, working in the following activities: the extraction and construction industry, commerce, services and transportation. In the manufacturing sector, units of up to 16 workers are considered.

Time in operation

The "time in operation" variable has been used to measure the business permanence or stability. Table 3.17 shows that the majority of businesses have been in operation for less than five years; 13.4% less than a year, and 42.7% between 1 and 5 years.

The most recent businesses, with less than 10 years, have a tendency to locate themselves in places without premises. On the other hand, older businesses prefer to work in fixed premises. Businesses without premises having operated for less than a year represent 14.9%, while those having worked for the same time but having premises represent 9.5%. Businesses without premises and older than fifteen years represent 13.1%, while those with premises and the same time of operation represent 17%.

Table 3.17. Businesses by time of operation and place of work

Time of operation	without premises	%	with premises	%	TOTAL	%
Less than 1 year	378,789	14.9	98,714	9.5	477,503	13.4
1-5 years	1,107,913	43.7	419,773	40.5	1,527,686	42.7
6-10 years	497,263	19.6	238,349	23.0	735,612	20.6
11-15 years	222,072	8.8	104,301	10.1	326,373	9.1
More than 15 years	331,714	13.1	175,811	17.0	507,525	14.2
TOTAL	2,537,751	100.0	1,036,948	100.0	3,574,699	100

Source: author calculation based on the 1996 Micro-Business National Survey, National Statistics, Geography and Computer Sciences Institute, INEGI

Registration

The ILO has provided some guidelines to define the informal sector, one of them being the use of registries issued by institutional entities. The Mexican Micro-Business Survey includes several output charts showing in detail the various options that small businesses have to locate their productive activities.

The variable in Table 3.18 shows the manner in which to obtain the registry with the Secretary of Finance and Public Credit, a requirement for Mexican businesses. Only 37% of micro-businesses have complied with this requirement.

Table 3.18. *Businesses by the owner's work position and type of premises, by registry status with the secretary of finance and public credit*

Location	Total	%	Registered	%	Not registered	%	Does not know	%
TOTAL	3,575,587	100	1,317,435	37	2,249,286	63	8,866	0
with premises	1,037,836	100	877,009	85	159,536	15	1,291	0
without premises	2,537,751	100	440,426	17	2,089,750	83	7,575	0
1	143,800	100	5,811	4	137,989	96	-	0
2	96,911	100	21,694	23	73,500	77	1,717	2
3	99,942	100	7,489	7	92,453	93	-	0
4	139,967	100	22,950	16	116,639	84	378	0
5	185,221	100	6,975	5	176,459	95	1,787	1
6	85,184	100	10,349	12	74,835	88	-	0
7	177,881	100	108,832	61	69,049	39	-	0
8	915,851	100	111,507	12	802,178	88	2,166	0
9	478,525	100	79,600	17	398,116	83	809	0
10	184,709	100	61,922	34	122,069	66	718	0
11	29,760	100	3,297	11	26,463	89	-	0
<i>1 Improvised stand in public streets</i> <i>2 Fixed or semi-fixed stand in public streets</i> <i>3 Improvised or mobile produce</i> <i>4 A stand part of a produce stand (fixed or portable)</i> <i>5 Door-to-door or street</i> <i>6 Goods, prepared foods, or services provided in motorcycle, bicycle, etc.</i> <i>7 In transportation of people or goods, without premises, taxis, trucks, etc.</i> <i>8 In the customers' households</i> <i>9 In their household, without special premises</i> <i>10 In their household, with improvised premises</i> <i>11 Other locations</i>								

Source: author calculation based on the 1996 Micro-Business National Survey, National Statistics, Geography and Computer Sciences Institute, INEGI

Most businesses lacking registration work without premises (83%), while the majority of businesses having this registry work in fixed premises (85%). If we were to define formality on the basis of registration, we could say that businesses working in fixed premises are more formal than those working in other locations.

Where do businesses without premises locate themselves? Which of these are more informal?

Only 17% of businesses without premises are registered. Were we to measure the degree of formality based on the number of businesses registered, we would find that the most formal ones are those working in transportation of persons or goods without fixed premises (in taxis, station wagons, etc.), (61%). In second-place are those working in their households with improvised premises (34%), and those working in fixed or semi-fixed premises or in the street (23%). On the other hand, the most informal businesses are those operating in improvised or fixed stands on the streets, door-to-door businesses, and those operating in improvised or mobile produce stands. Registration levels for these businesses is under 10%.

3.5. Conclusions

The place of work, both of persons and of businesses, adapts to the continuing changes of production techniques, the introduction of new technologies, urban processes, etc. within the labour market. Therefore, it becomes necessary to periodically review the application of this variable in surveys.

The "place of work" variable has been used in Latin American countries for many years now. However, traditional analysis has failed to associate the place of work to other labour force variables, and consequently has not received due consideration in characterizing specific population groups.

Close to half of the Colombian and Mexican employed population work in fixed premises. The other half works in various locations, some of them not properly identified in traditional surveys. This warrants a detailed study of the "place of work" variable.

This paper explores the "place of work" variable in two Latin American countries, Colombia and Mexico. The greatest difference in the approach of these two countries is that, in Mexico, the place of work refers to the company or the business of the employed person, while in Colombia the variable refers to the location where the person works.

The Mexican approach is useful in identifying particular population groups associated to variables other than physical premises, such as informality, whose conceptual basis lies with the company and not with the person. The Colombian approach can also be useful in identifying population groups with similar characteristics, especially in places where the groups studied are homogeneous. Other places of work in the Colombian survey include heterogeneous groups, making it necessary to relate the different variables in order to isolate them according to their individual characteristics.

Colombia

I will now provide an example to illustrate the possibility of characterizing individual groups of the employed population, using the "place of work" variable of the Colombian Household Survey.

Fixed premises

- A place associated to the formal sector. 85% of the formal sector is located in fixed premises.
- Manufacturing, both formal and informal, is located mostly in fixed premises, more so than
- Location used mainly by commerce and services.
- This is the location reporting the greatest income levels, for both men and women.
- Includes the greatest degree of affiliation to social security services.

- Women show greater levels of affiliation to social security services than men
- Has greater educational levels for both men and women
- Women report the highest educational level of all other places, more so than men
- The majority are private workers
- Women work longer hours than in other places

In their households

- Basically, only the informal sector works. Only 2% of persons working in their household are formal. The remaining 98% are informal.
- Most worker are "own account", 68.6%.
- There is an important number of employers working.
- Most are women
- Generally housewives
- The informal services sector uses this location more than manufacturing and commerce.
- Women work longer hours than in other places

Other households

- Basically, only the informal sector works, 92.1%. Only 7.9% of all persons working in other households are formal.
- Low educational level, especially for women
- Both the formal and the informal services sector use this location more than manufacturing and commerce.
- Low affiliation rates to social security services by men and women.
- Low income levels for both men and women
- Women work few hours each week

Vehicles

- The majority are men
- Location used mainly by household heads
- The location in which men work the greater number of hours each week
- The few women working have high income levels
- Women have high education levels
- High rates of affiliation to social security services
- Most workers are informal, 67.6%; however, there is an important group of formal workers, 32.4%.

In the street

- The majority are men
- There is a large difference in income levels between the formal and the informal sectors
- The informal sector has the lowest educational level

- It is an heterogeneous category with formal and informal workers
- Men have greater affiliation levels to the social security system than women
- Most workers are informal, 73.7%, although there is an important group of formal workers, 26.3%.

Door-to-door

- Mostly men
- Men have greater levels of affiliation than women
- Women work few hours each week
- Most workers are informal, 72.9
- However, 27.1 of door-to-door workers are formal.

Kiosks

- Lower educational levels
- Lower affiliation rates to the social security service for women
- Lower income levels for both men and women, especially for women
- Most workers are informal, 84%; only 16% of all workers in kiosks are formal.

Some answer categories regarding place of work in the Colombian Household Survey group homogeneous population groups, such as persons carrying out their economic activities in fixed premises, in their households, in other households and in kiosks, in which population groups are clearly identifiable with similar characteristics.

Groups with a more heterogeneous component work in other locations, such as industry, door-to-door, and in vehicles. These should be examined with greater detail, considering other variables helping characterize each group, such as income, social security, educational level, etc.

Heterogeneous groups of employed persons are included in the "in the street" option, which includes both the formal and the informal sectors. This is the case of a police officer working in an Immediate Attention Center¹⁴, who might answer that he works in a kiosk or in the street, although he belongs to the formal sector and is located in the same group as candy, newspaper, and book sellers.

In the Mexican ENEU questionnaire, this same police officer would be included in the "with premises" option, sub-classified in "administrative offices from the federal, state, or municipal government". In the output charts, the police officer would be included in the "in medium and large-sized premises" group.

¹⁴ These are small wooden premises installed by metropolitan police in Colombian cities, with two or three policemen.

Mexico

Following is an exercise that illustrates a manner in which to discriminate employed population by sex, with regard to place of work. The Mexican surveys were used. Note that some conclusions apply to both Colombia and Mexico.

Women

- Have a greater tendency to work in fixed premises than men
- The few women working in construction and transportation do it in fixed premises, probably in administrative areas.
- More women than men work in the hotel and related services sector, most in fixed premises.
- Women work more in their households and in small premises than men
- Female participation is greater than male participation in the case of paid workers, unpaid relatives, and unpaid non-relatives.
- Most unpaid family women work in unidentified locations, "others (without premises)", followed by "in small premises" and "in their household".

Men

- Agricultural activities are basically handled by men
- Most of the manufacturing activity is handled by men, in fixed premises
- Most of the construction and transportation activity is carried out by men, in various places of work.
- Men work more in vehicles and in "others (without premises)" than women
- Male participation exceeds female participation in the case of employers, self-employed workers, and piece rate.

With persons working in larger-sized businesses (in terms of number of workers), enterprises prefer to establish themselves in fixed premises and less in other locations without premises.

Businesses that have been in operation for shorter times, less than 10 years, have a tendency to operate in locations without premises. Older businesses prefer fixed premises.

Were we to define business formality according to the Registry from the Secretary of Finance, we would conclude that businesses carrying out their activities in fixed premises are more formal than those located in other places.

The Mexican classification in the ENEU Employment Survey is interesting, for it includes a "with premises" and "without premises" classification. This option includes heterogeneous groups that could be broken down to a certain level, since the information is already captured in questionnaires.

The ENEU also has "with small premises" and "with medium/large premises" options. This is an interesting concept since it adds a new element to the concept of company size, based on the business belonging to a commercial chain.

The Mexican Micro-Business Survey allows for a wide and varied range of replies to the "place of work" question. This is possible thanks to the high correlation existing between company size and place of work: the greater the size, the greater the diversification in the use of locations. Small businesses are basically those using spaces other than fixed premises, so that each of them has a sample size sufficiently large to be investigated and individually presented.

The Mexican Micro-Business classification is clear enough, and includes a large variety of places of work for the small enterprises, that may be used in questionnaires from other countries, with necessary adjustments.

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The measurement of Place of Work in Jordan

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4.1. Introduction

In the absence of periodic censuses, sample surveys become one of the most important methods used to provide detailed data related to the demographic, social and economic conditions in the society as well as to update such data in the intercensal period. This is in addition to the relative low cost of conducting such surveys in terms of money, effort and time in comparison with the census. Also, sample surveys allow focusing on collecting detailed data regarding certain variables or issues.

One of the most important issues surveyed was the question on place of work. Data regarding this issue were collected through the third round of the 1999 Employment and Unemployment Survey (EUS), conducted by the Department of Statistics, where various characteristics of this issue and its interlinkages with the demographic and socio-economic variables were identified.

4.2. Objectives

The general objectives of the EUS were to update data related to the characteristics of the population, manpower, and the economically active, including the provision of detailed data on the place of work. This is in addition to extracting various population-related indicators, such as: economic activity participation rates; unemployment rates, levels, trends and causes; as well as the characteristics of the employed and unemployed persons.

With regard to the place of work, data were collected in the aim of identifying the following:

- The flow and mobility of workers,
- No. of male and female workers and their location,
- No. of those working at their residence (home),
- No. of workers in places assigned for both work and residence,
- No. of workers in open places and those in permanent buildings, and
- No. of workers in the unorganised sector.

The 1999 EUS findings revealed few cases of those working at their residence as well as in closed and open places out of total workers. Thus, following a discussion with the ILO expert, Dr. Farhad Mehran, he suggested to conduct an analytical study of the data pertaining to the place of work to identify the reasons behind this low number of such workers, as follows:

- a. Was the question phrased in the wrong way? or
- b. Was the proportion of such workers actually small in the community? or
- c. Was the sample size small?

4.3. Survey Methodology

As regards the question on place of work, Dr. Mehran assisted in providing relevant documents issued by ILO, and in reviewing experiences of several countries. After detailed discussion, the relevant classifications of this question were re-established to suit the local conditions in Jordan. The question was incorporated in the economic data section on the EUS questionnaire where data on the employed person's place of work can be obtained.

The interviewers were trained on how to complete data on this question, concurrently with the training program offered for the EUS interviewers. The sample size was 2000 households. The question was asked only to employed persons 15+ years of age.

The EUS was fielded during December 1999, as well as office editing of data. Certain field, office, and electronic rules were added to edit the inputs of the said question and its relation with other questions. The coding and data entry processes for this question were conducted simultaneously with those of the EUS data.

4.4. Sample Design

The EUS sample is based on the master sample designed in 1997 for the Jordan Household Survey Program, which the Department of Statistics developed from the data obtained in the 1994 Housing and Population Census.

For the purposes of the EUS, 2000 households were covered. A three- stage sample design was used. In the first stage, 200 primary sampling units (group of blocks) were randomly selected with probability proportionate to size (PPS). In the second stage, one block out of each PSU was selected with PPS. In each sample block, the list of households was updated.

In the third stage, 10 households were selected as ultimate sampling units (USUs) using systematic random method. The EUS was designed to be representative at the national level, the regions, and the urban and rural areas.

4.5. Definition and Classifications of Place of Work

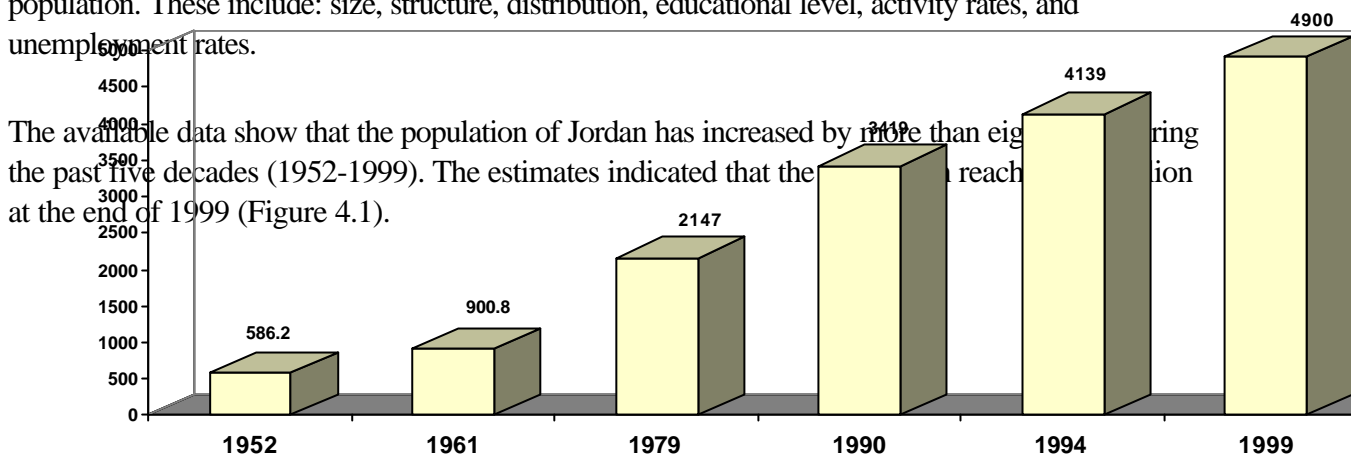
The place of work is the place where the employed person performs the required work to provide a service or to produce goods. It might be one of the following cases:

- S An exclusive work place such as: ministry, department, commercial store, office, factory, school, hospital, hotel, restaurant...etc.
- S An exclusive residence, such as: households that produce or process certain items (dairy products, oil, olives, jam, ...etc).
- S A bipurpose place (for both work and residence) such as: doctor's clinic, lawyer's office, cloth sewer, ... etc.
- S Open or semi-open place assigned for work, such as: construction worker, pipe-fitter, painter, stands, vegetable markets, occasional markets, gas station, quarrying, and open farm workers.
- S Public open place, such as: taxi driver, garbage collector, traffic police, pilot, street extensions worker, hunter, interviewer, sales representative...etc.
- S Open place not assigned for work, such as: car cleaner, cigarette salesman, vendor, shoe polisher, knock-door salesman...etc.
- S Other: not elsewhere classified.

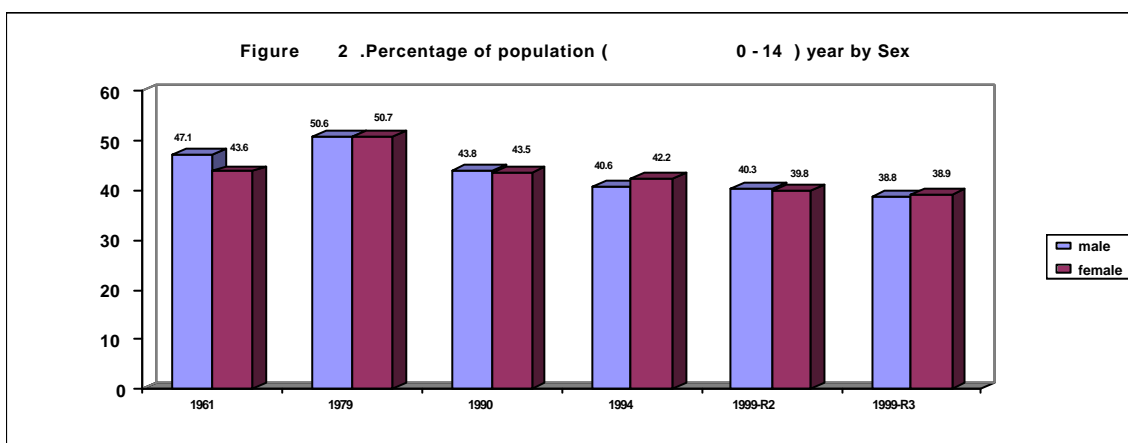
4.6. Population Characteristics

This section highlights the basic demographic, social, and economic characteristics of the population. These include: size, structure, distribution, educational level, activity rates, and unemployment rates.

Figure 4.1 . Population of Jordan for selected years (In 000)



The available data show that the population of Jordan has increased by more than eight times during the past five decades (1952-1999). The estimates indicated that the population is projected to reach 6 million at the end of 1999 (Figure 4.1).



This rapid growth was mainly attributed to the high rates of natural increase; the forced migration flows from Palestine, the West Bank and Gaza Strip following the Arab-Israeli wars; Jordanian returnees as a result of the 1990 Gulf war; and the continuing inflows of guest workers to the country.

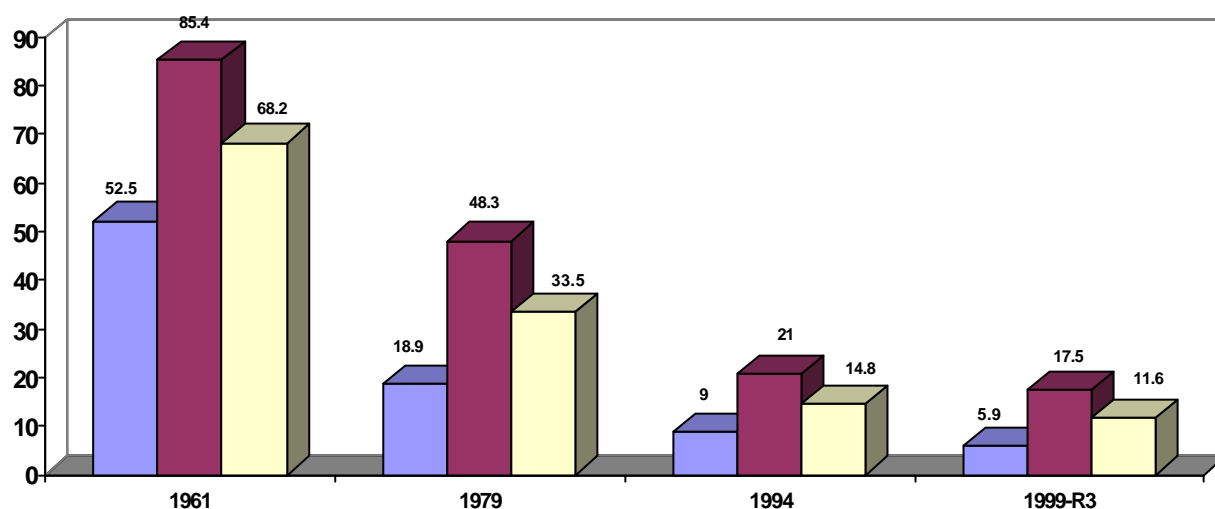
The population of Jordan is unevenly distributed among governorates and regions. The 1994 population census figures showed that Amman governorate ranked first, in terms of population (38 percent of total population). Nearly three in five persons live in the three major governorates (Amman, Irbid and Zarqa), whereas, 9.4 percent of total population live in the south region (Karak, Tafila, Ma'an and Aqaba governorates).

Despite the marked decline in the proportion of population less than 15 years of age, the population of Jordan is still young. The proportion of this age category has dropped from 51 percent in 1979 to

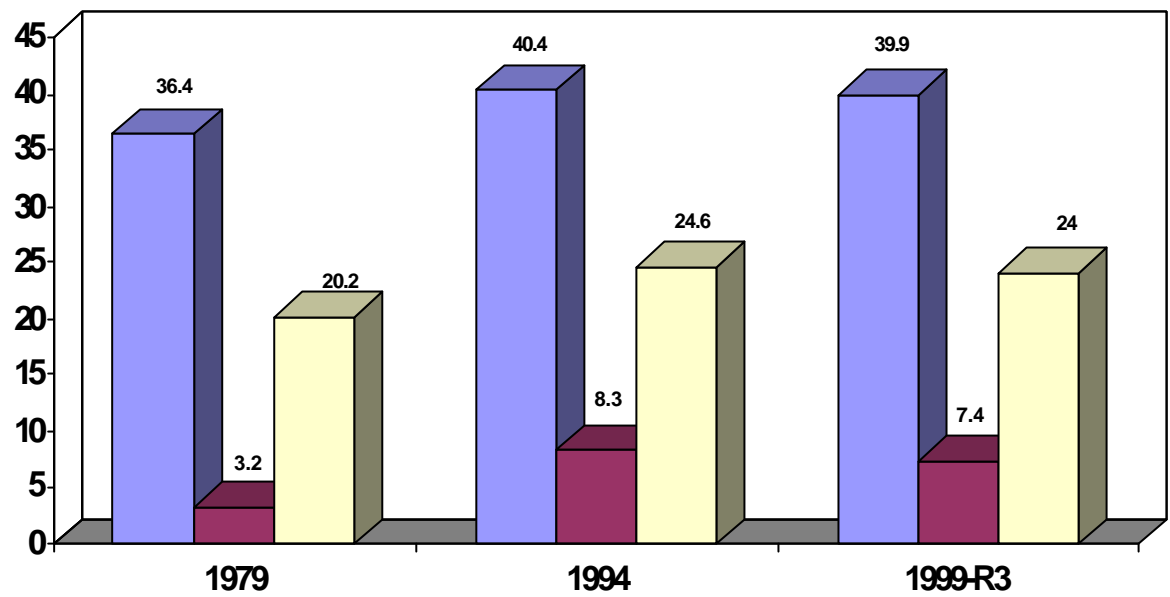
around 39 percent in 1999 (Figure 4.2). This decline was primarily due to a considerable drop in fertility level during the past three decades. quantity and quality.

The illiteracy rate among the population 15 years old and over has dropped sharply from 68 percent in 1961 to 11.6 percent in 1999 (Figure 4.3). Further, almost one third of the population are currently enrolled at various educational stages.

Figure 4.3 .Percentage of Illiteracy (15+) year by Sex

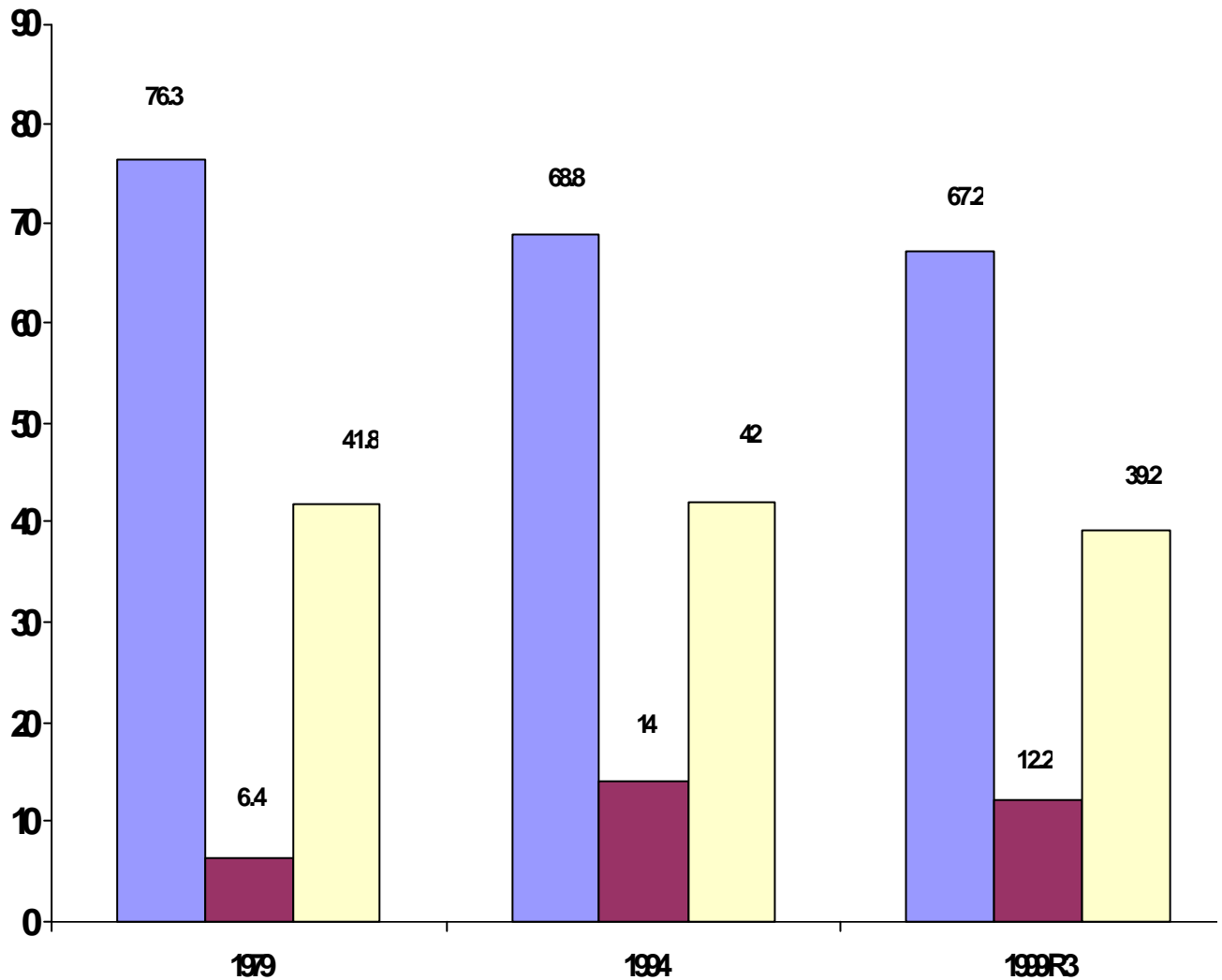


The EUS results indicate that the crude activity rate is low in Jordan. In 1999, the proportion of economically active population was 24 percent of total population. In other words, each economically active person should support four persons including himself (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 .Crude Economic Activity Rates For Selected year by Sex

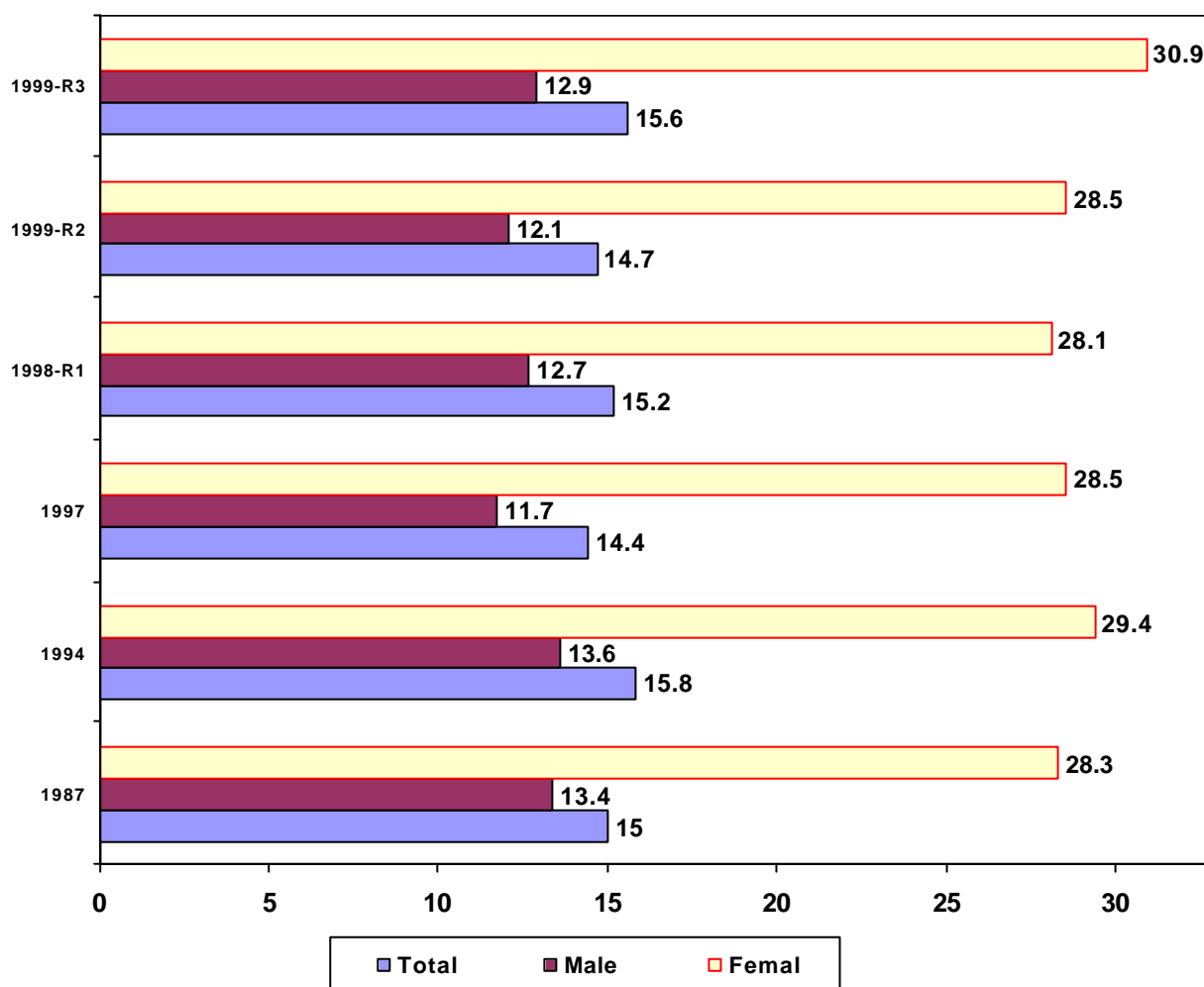
The refined activity rate showed a slight decline for both sexes, from 42 percent in 1979 to 39 percent in 1999. While this rate dropped among males, it almost doubled among females (from 6.4 percent to 12.2 percent) during the said period (Figure 4.5).

Figure 45. Refined Economic Activity Rates (15+) Years for selected years by Sex



The overall unemployment rate has increased remarkably, from 9 percent in 1979 to 15.6 percent in 1999 (Figure 4.6). Gender differentials do exist in this regard. The Unemployment rate among females was more than twice that of males (31 percent and 12.9 percent respectively).

Figure 4.6 . Unemployment Rates (15+) Years for selected years by Sex

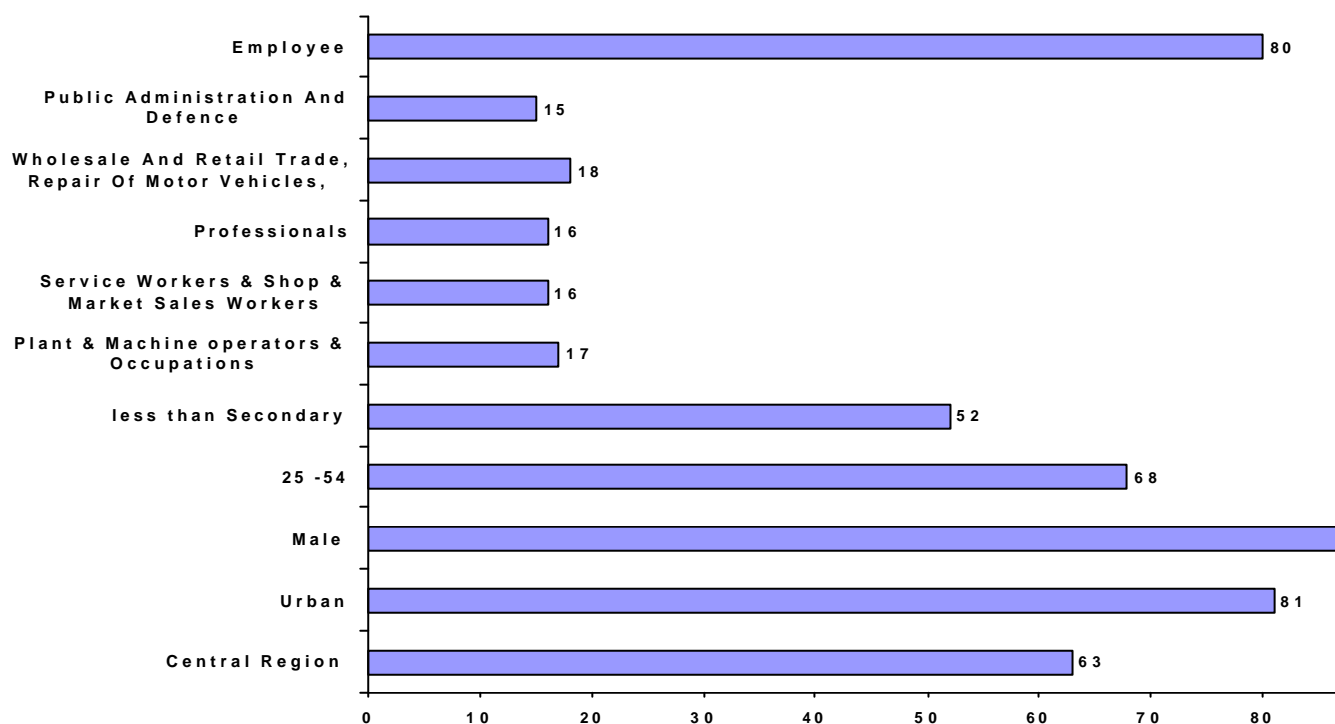


4.7. Employment Characteristics

This section highlights the basic characteristics of the employed persons as revealed by the 1999 EUS. The findings demonstrated that 63 percent of total employed persons were in the central region; 81 percent lived in urban areas; two thirds were in the age range 25-54; and one in four in the age group 15-24. It was also noticed that more than half (52 percent) of the total employed had less than secondary education; 29 percent with higher than secondary; while the illiteracy rate among them was as low as 4 percent only.

The findings also showed that 17 percent of total employed work in craft and related trades; 16 percent are service and shop sales workers; and 16 percent are professionals. As regards industry, 17.5 percent work in trade, repair of vehicles, and household goods; followed by 15.3 percent in public administration, defence and social security sector. The results also indicated that eight in ten were employees; one in ten were own account workers; and 7.3 percent were employers (Tables 4.1-4.6, and Figure 4.7).

Figure 4.7 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+)Years by Selected Characteristics 1999



4.8. Place of work

This section presents the distribution of the employed persons in their work places by various variables. These include: The type of work place; urban-rural residence; region; age structure; educational level; occupation; industry; and employment status.

4.8.1 Type of Work Place

The 1999 EUS results demonstrated that almost seven in ten (69 percent) employed persons work in closed places. The proportion was much higher among females than males (97.8 percent and 64.6 percent respectively), most of them work in places exclusively assigned for work (Table 4.1, and Figures 4.8 and 4.9). The proportion of those working in open places was 31 percent. Contrary to those working in closed places, males were more likely to work in open places (35.4 percent) than females (2.2 percent).

The proportion of those working in places whether exclusively assigned for residence or for bipurpose (residence and work) did not exceed 1 percent, with higher proportion among females than among males (5.6 percent and 0.6 percent successively).

Figure 4.8 . Joranian Employed Persons Age (15+) by Type of work Place and Sex 1999

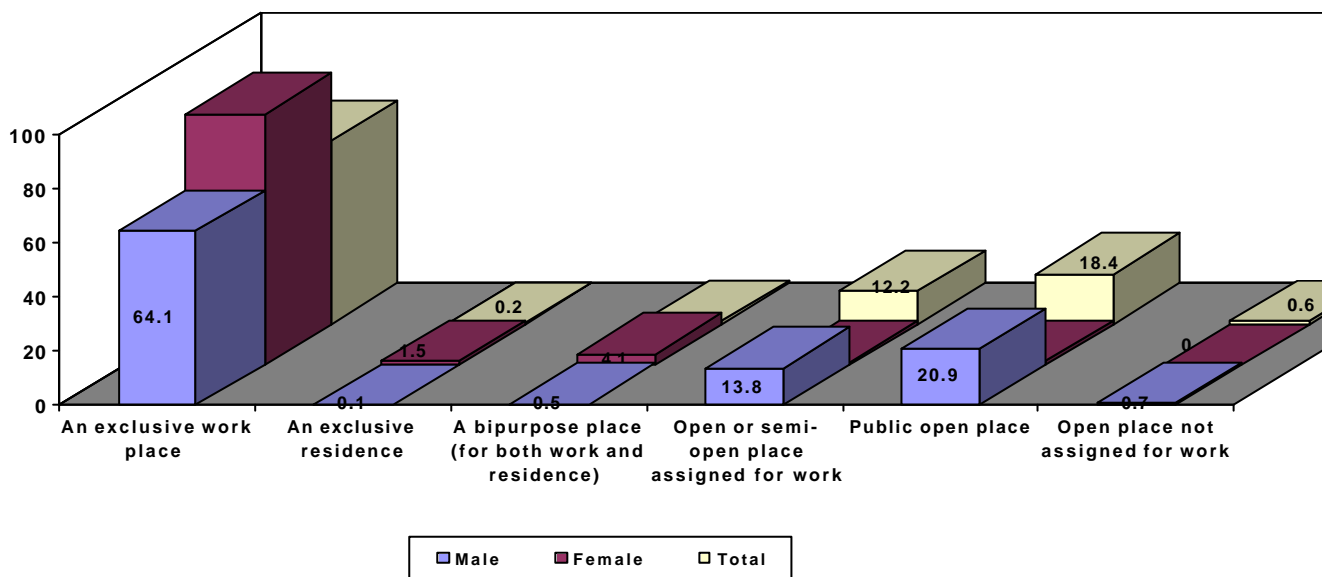
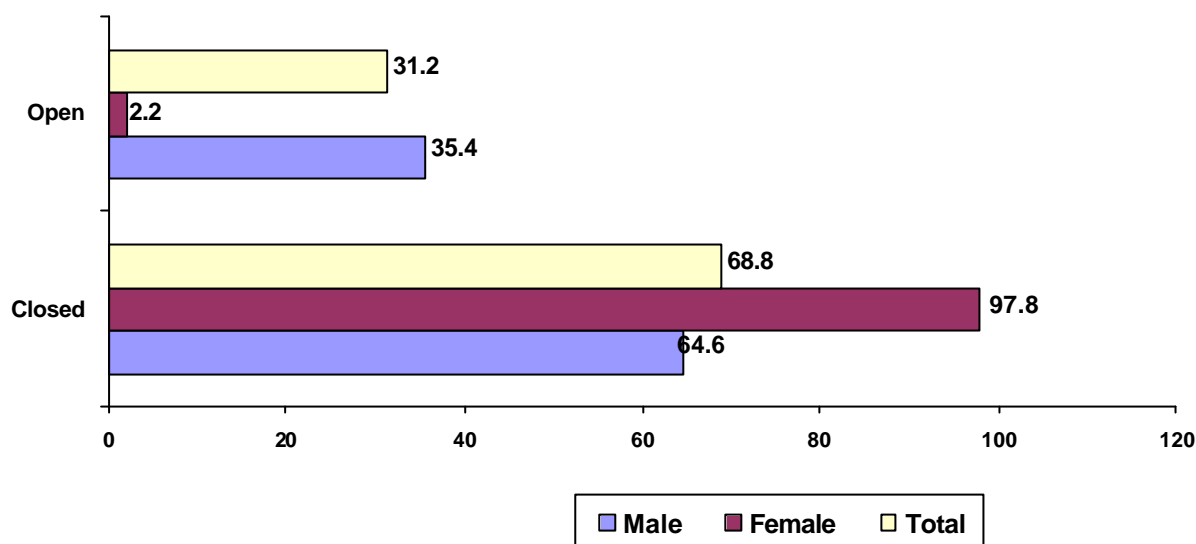


Figure 4.9 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years in Open and Close place of Work by Sex 1999



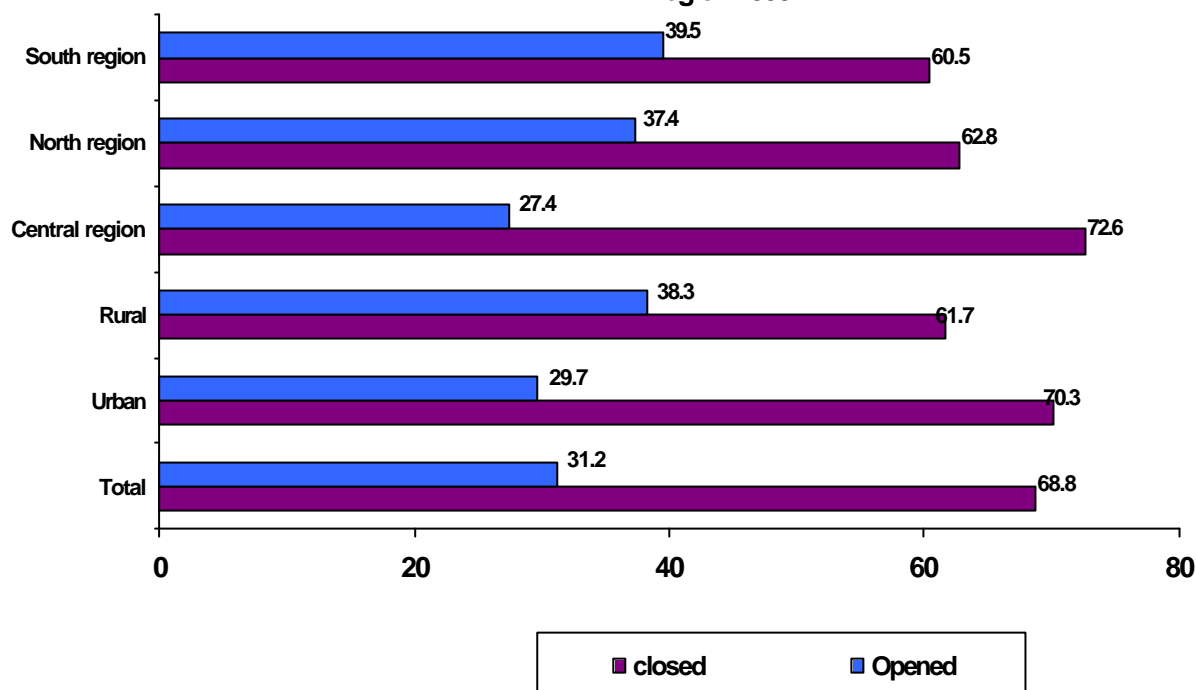
Almost one in five (18.4 percent) work in public open places, such as: taxi driver, garbage collector, traffic police, pilot, hunter, sales representative...etc. The proportion was as low as 1.5 percent among females, opposite to 21 percent among males. As regards those working in open and semi-open places (construction, pipe fitting, stands, vegetable markets, gas stations...etc.) the proportion reached 12.2 percent, opposite to only 0.6 percent for those working in open places not assigned for work (car cleaners, cigarette salesmen, vendors, shoe polishers...etc.). However, no female cases were reported in this category.

Drastic gender differentials do exist by place of work. Due to the fact that the proportion of females constitutes only 12.5 percent of total employed, most of whom work in closed places (97.8 percent), and in places exclusively assigned for work (92.2 percent), the emphasis in the following sections will be placed on the total employed regardless of sex. Furthermore, since the majority of the employed (67.6 percent) work in places exclusively assigned for work, and due to the low proportion (1.1 percent) of those working in other closed places, the focus in the subsequent analysis will be placed on persons working in opened places, unless otherwise stated.

4.8.2 Urban - Rural and Regions

Substantial differences were noticed when classifying the employed persons by work place according to urban – rural residence. The proportion of those working in closed places was higher in urban than in rural areas (70 percent and 62 percent respectively). The opposite holds regarding those working in open places, where the proportion was higher in rural areas.

Figure 4.10 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by Place of Work, Urban-Rural and Region 1999



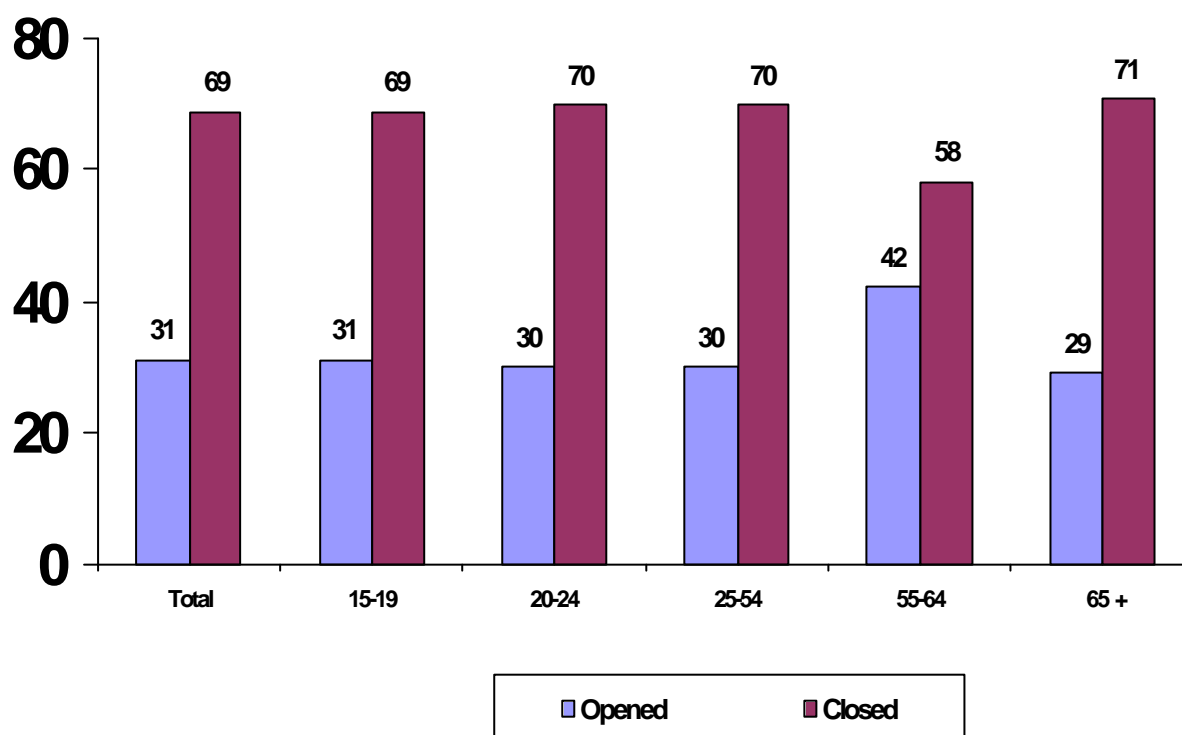
This is an expected result, because most of, if not all, government and private large establishments are located in urban areas, in which the majority of workers work in offices.

The findings demonstrated great similarities in the distribution of the employed by work place in urban areas and in the central region, in which the proportion of urban is high. Similarities also exist in rural areas and in the north and south regions, where the proportion of rural is high. It was noticed that the proportion of those working in open places in both the rural areas and north and south regions were higher than those in urban areas and central region (Table 4.1 and Figure 4.10).

4.8.3 Age Structure

The cross tabulation of employed persons by work place and age showed slight differences from that of the total, except for those in the 55-64 age group, where the proportion of those working in closed places dropped to 58 percent. This means that the proportion of workers in this age group is high (42 percent) (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.11). This might be attributed to the fact that the majority of workers in this age group are private sector workers or run their own business.

Figure 4.11 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by place of Work and Age 1999



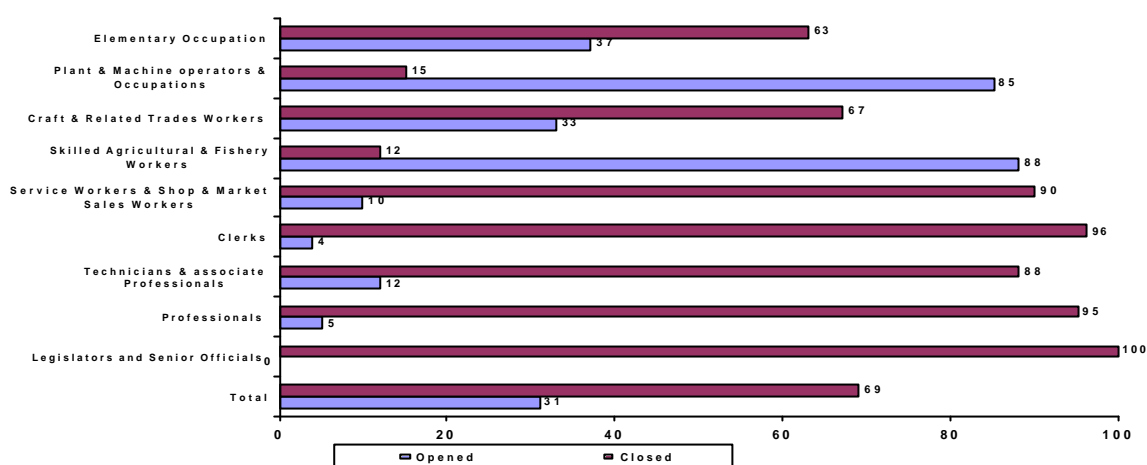
The results also indicated that the proportion of those working in public open places ranged between 6 percent among those of 65+ age group and 19 percent for those in the 20-64 age range. The proportion of those working in open or semi-open places exclusively assigned for work was low (11 percent) among those of 20-54 age range and was high (20 percent) among the 55+age group.

4.8.4 Educational Level

The results revealed substantial variations when classifying the workers in closed and open places according to the educational level. Nearly half of the illiterate workers work in closed places opposite to 90 percent of those with intermediate diploma or higher.

As regards those working in open places, the data showed a low proportion (5.5 percent) among those with B.Sc. degree or higher, where more than half of them work in public open places (Table 4.3 and Figure 4.12). This might be partly due to the fact that many of the illiterate workers work in

Figure 4.13 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by place of Work and Occupation

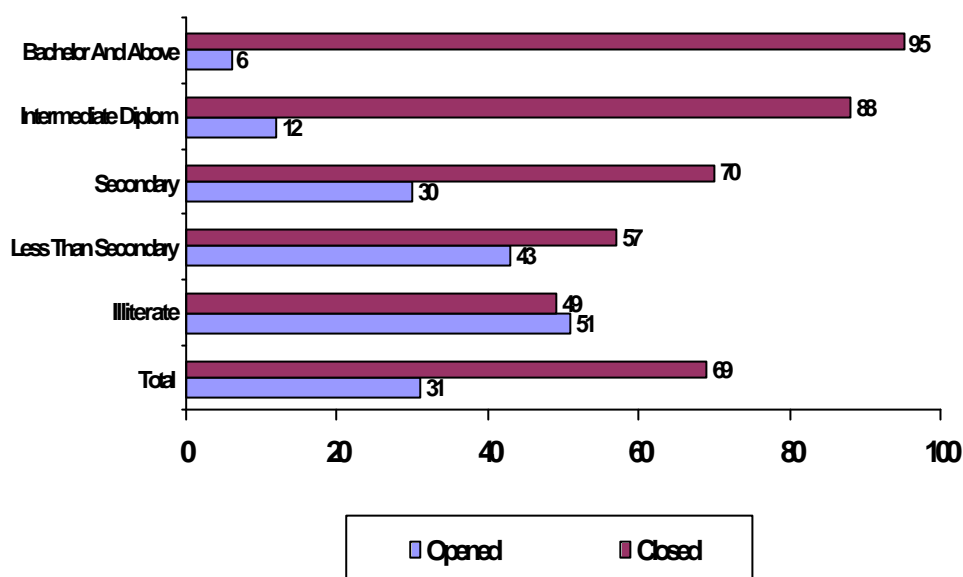


unskilled and non- technical professions in productive sectors, such as: construction; mining and quarrying; trade; and agriculture. Such professions are mostly practised in open places, whereas, a large number of workers with intermediate diploma or higher work in managerial, educational, health, and financial intermediation sectors, where most workers work in closed places.

4.8.5 Occupation

Overall, more than 90 percent of total legislators, senior officials, professionals, clerks, and service and sales persons work in closed places exclusively assigned for work. This holds for either sex. However, more than 90 percent of females work in closed places in all professions, expect for those working in agriculture and handcrafts (Table 4.4 and Figure 4.13). The proportion of those working in open places in agriculture is high (88 percent) and most of them work in open or semi-open places exclusively assigned for work. Those working in operation of equipment and assemblers ranked second (85 percent) and most of them work in public open places.

Figure 4.12. Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by place of Work and Educational Level 1999

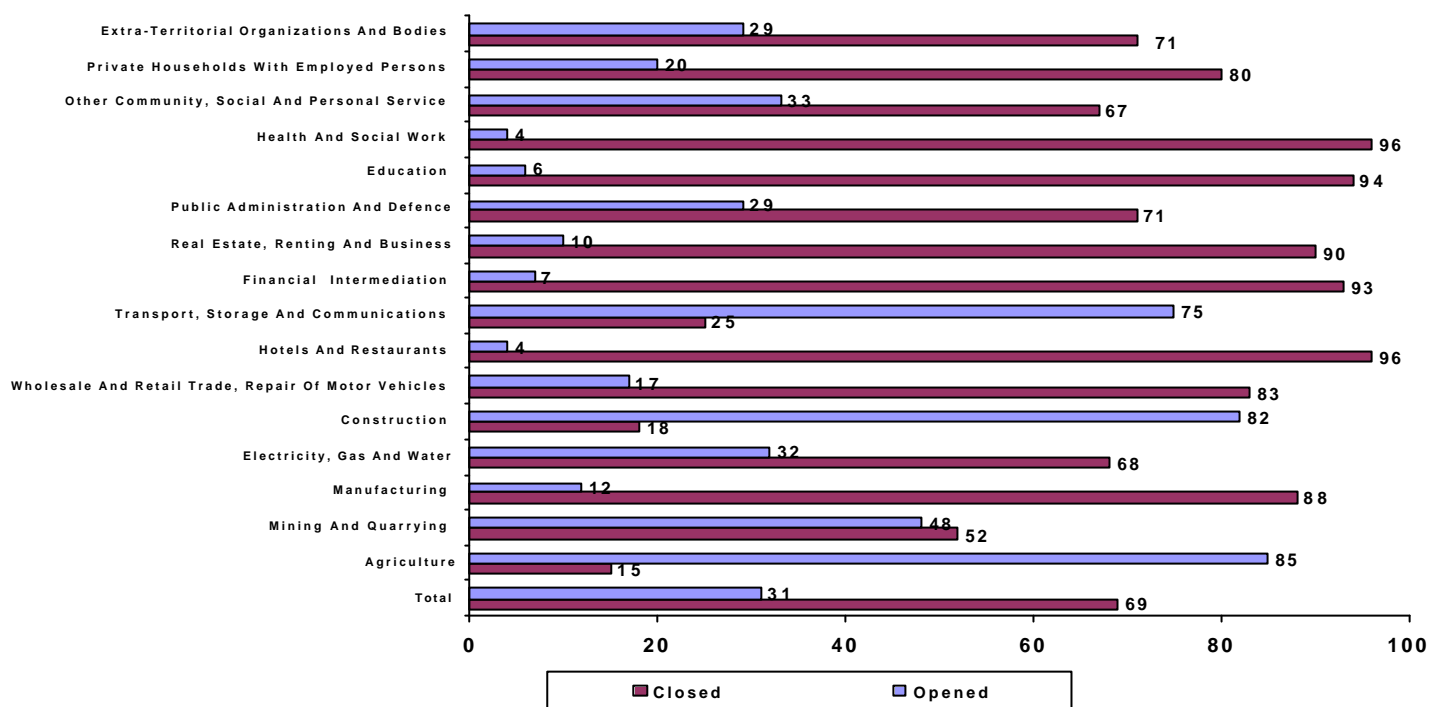


4.8.6 Industry

As expected, the results indicated that the proportion is high among those working in open places in agriculture (85 percent); construction (31 percent); transportation, storage and communication (75 percent). On the opposite, these percentages were low among those working in hotels and restaurants (3.6 percent); financial intermediation (6.5 percent); education (6.3 percent); and health and social security sector (3.7 percent) (Table 4.5 and Figure 4.14).

Remarkable gender differences were noticed by place of work and industry. Females working in open places were more likely to concentrate in four industries, namely: agriculture (33 percent); real estate (17 percent); public administration (7.7 percent); and trade and related works (5.3 percent), whereas, all female workers in other industries work in closed places.

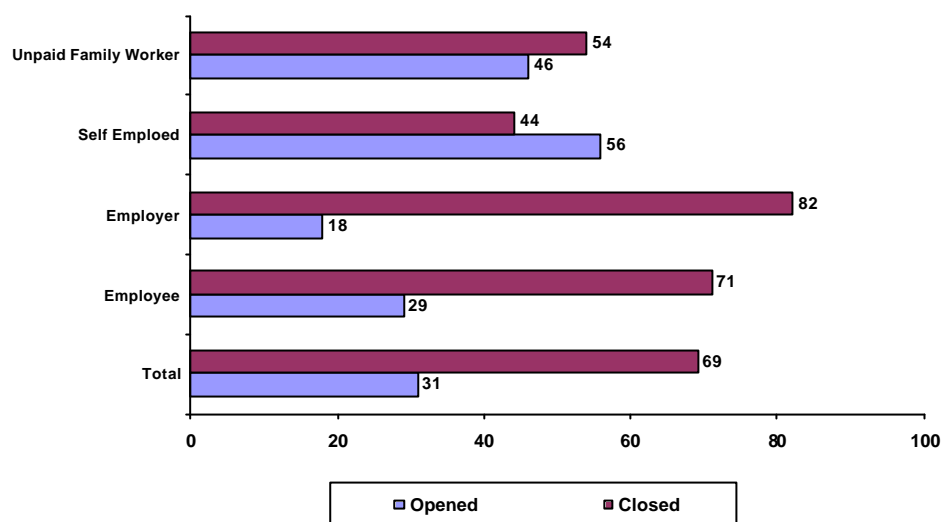
Figure 4.14 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by place of Work and Current Industry 1999



4.8.7 Employment Status

More than half (56 percent) of own account workers and 47 percent of unpaid family workers work in open places and most of them work in public open places. Nearly 29 percent of employees, who form the majority of workers, work in open places, 33 percent for males and only 2 percent for females (Table 4.6 and Figure 4.15). This result is expected, because most employees as well as employers work in permanent establishments, such as: ministries, departments, factories, hospitals, and the like. The opposite holds regarding own account workers or unpaid family workers as they run their own business, such as: agricultural workers, taxi drivers, construction workers, stands, vegetable markets, hunters, car cleaners, shoe polishers, vendors, and the like.

Figure 4.15 . Jordanian Employed Persons Age (15+) Years by place of Work and Employment status 1999



4.9. Summary, Assessment and Recommendations

The present study highlighted the basic characteristics of the population in Jordan, with particular emphasis on the employed persons and on the question of place of work. This question was investigated for the first time in Jordan. Data on this question were collected through the third round of the 1999 Employment and Unemployment Survey (EUS). Following are a summary of the main findings, and an evaluation of data pertaining to that question, followed by some possible recommendations.

4.9.1 Summary

1. The findings of the survey indicated that more than two thirds of employed persons (69 percent) worked in closed places, while the remaining 31 percent worked in open places. Almost all of those working in closed places worked in places exclusively assigned for work. Marked differentials do exist between males and females in this regard (65 percent and 98 percent respectively).
2. The results showed that females were less likely than males to work in open places (2 percent opposite to 35 percent). More than half of males working in open places worked in public open places (21 percent of total employed), whereas, 14 percent worked in open or semi-open places assigned for work, and low proportion (less than 1 percent) worked in open places not assigned for work.

3. The proportion of those working in open places was highest in rural areas; north and south regions; among the 55-64 age group; illiterates and those with less than secondary education. Also, this holds among those working in agriculture; equipment operators and assemblers; as well as among those working in agricultural; mining and quarrying; construction; and transportation sectors; and also among own account workers.
4. The results demonstrated a low proportion of those working in their residences. The proportion was very low (0.2 percent) for those working in places exclusively assigned for residence, and 0.9 percent in places assigned for both residence and work. Similarly, a very low proportion (0.6 percent) was noticed among those working in open places not assigned for work, with no reported female cases working in such places.

4.9.2 Assessment of Work Place Data

The last two said proportions are surprisingly low; therefore, they need to be checked for validation. For it is expected, in a country like Jordan, that the proportion of those working in their residences be larger, as well as of those working in open places not assigned for work. Since most of the employees in Jordan work in the governmental as well as in the private organised sector, it is expected that this situation will lower this proportion. However, this low proportion might be ascribed to one or more of the following reasons:

- a. Misphrasing of the question on the place of work, or the interviewers did not ask the question properly, which eventually affected the results.
- b. The interviewers might have misplaced the answers to this question under another category as a result of ambiguity in the entries of this question. For example, a person working in a stand was more likely to be recorded in a category belongs to a place exclusively assigned for work. Similarly, a traffic police might have been recorded in this category, where both cases should be entered under another category.
- c. In many instances, the data were not reported by the respective respondent himself, but by another household member, who might not easily define the case.
- d. It might be possible that this proportion is really low in the society, especially when the employed person had more than one job, one in place exclusively assigned for work and the other for residence. In this case, the respondent is more likely to answer that his work is practised in a “closed place”, thus lowering this proportion.
- e. The size of the sample was relatively small (2000 households covering 200 blocks).
- f. The Department of Statistics incorporated this question for the first time in its questionnaires. Ambiguity and errors are expected in many aspects and situations. For example: phrasing of the question inputs; training procedures; comprehension of the interviewers; errors in the way of asking the question; difficulty in defining the proper category of certain workers; and so on.

4.9.3 Recommendations

Regardless of the reasons stated in section 9.2 above, and due to the difficulty of identifying the underlined reason that affected the results, in addition to some unidentifiable reasons which need testing and indepth analysis, the following ideas are recommended:

- S Reconsidering and developing the inputs of the question on place of work to better suit local conditions in Jordan, taking into account the experiences of more other countries, and find easier ways that enable interviewers to register workers under the proper category they belong to.
- S Incorporating this question in one of the next EUS rounds to collect data on this question from a larger sample (8800 households), and be repeated in another subsequent round using 50 percent of the households surveyed in the pervious round. This will allow studying the changes that might take place on the one hand, and testing the quality of data, interviewing techniques and the degree of understanding the question by both the interviewer and the respondent on the other.
- S Studying the results obtained and comparing them with the present findings, as well as the causes and effects of change, if any.
- S Funding another analytical study in this connection in case recommendation 2 above was adopted, with the possibility of comparing the results with other data sources.
- S Holding a one-day seminar to present and discuss the findings of the present study and any other relevant results in the future. The resultant views and suggestions should be pursued by a group of technical subject-matter in order to identify ways and means to solve the deficiencies and shortcomings related to this question.

- S

Annex 1.1

Conclusions and recommendations of the experts' group meeting on the Measurement of Place of Work, Geneva, 24-28 August 2000

During the Ankara meeting of the Delhi Group, as well as during the XVth and the XVIth ICLS, were discussed – or at least raised – the opportunity and possibility of a revision of the ICSE for improving the measurement of the category of homeworkers. However, while a revised ICSE which will better reflect contractual forms which are intermediate to the “pure” forms of paid-employment and self-employment will help improve the measurement of these work situations, it is clear that other variables and associated classifications are also needed. One of these additional variables will be the “place of work”. This was re-affirmed at the second annual meeting of WIEGO in Ottawa (1999) where it was decided a proposal be prepared for funding by the UNSD/IDRC/UNDP project on “Gender issues in the measurement of paid and unpaid work”.

Only a few countries have collected the “place of work” variable in their regular labour force survey (Latin America) or in their population censuses (North Africa) and even fewer have analysed the results, and it is difficult, by the time being, to know the extent and the trends of employment in these two categories of the labour force.

International compilations were undertaken and the ILO Project on Measurement of the variable Place of work, funded by the UNSD/IDRC/UNDP Project on “Gender Issues in The Measurement of Paid and Unpaid Work”, was launched in early 2000. Within the project, two pilot studies were undertaken in Jordan and in South Africa, consisting in the inclusion of a question on “place of work” in the regular labour force surveys; in addition analyses of the results from previous surveys were prepared for Colombia, Mexico and Bolivia. This project held an experts' meeting from 24-25 August 2000 to review the results of these studies and international compilation on homeworkers and street vendors. The observations and conclusions of the meeting may be summarised as follows:

- 1) **Size of home-based and street-based workers.** Based on available statistics and depending on the definitions used and coverage of surveys, and excluding construction, transportation and domestic workers, the home-based workers (including the own-account workers, and piece-rate sub-contracted homeworkers) represent between 5 and 15 per cent of the non-agricultural labour force. The street-based workers represent between 5 and 8 per cent of the non agricultural labour force. Approximately 1/10 to 1/4 of the non-agricultural labour force is working under these conditions. Most of these workers are in the

informal sector, although the formal sector is often at one end of complex contracting chains. Home-based and street-based workers are far from being negligible and are assumed to be rapidly increasing.

- 2) **Measurement objectives.** A primary objective of developing a classification for “place of work” is to develop appropriate tools to be used in regular statistical surveys particularly labour force and informal sector surveys. A better measurement of work remains the major goal.
- 3) **Analytical objectives.** A main analytical objective is to identify groups of workers such as homeworkers, street vendors and domestic workers who are particularly vulnerable in relation to the lack and difficulty of organising, the physical risks associated with the place of work, the absence of social protection.
- 4) In household surveys, scope and coverage should carefully consider i) measurement problems associated with women’s work and child labour; ii) recording of multiple activities; and iii) seasonal variations in economic activities which are difficult to measure for a short reference period (such as “past week” in labour force surveys) and which are directly related to the measurement issues of homeworkers.
- 5) The physical place of work – where the worker spends most of the time – rather than the place of the economic unit to which he or she is attached is the appropriate unit of classification for the analytical objectives mentioned above. This point needs to be made because it was observed that sometimes “mixed” responses were obtained to the question on place of work.
- 6) One well-designed single question could be sufficient for the measurement of place of work. However, in order to identify specific types of workers such as home-based workers, homeworkers and street vendors, the “place of work” variable will have to be cross-classified by industry, occupation and status of employment.
- 7) An appropriate typology of “place of work” should be developed based on a conceptual framework. The above mentioned project provides the starting point for this.
- 8) Countries should be encouraged to conduct similar studies.

Annex 1.2

Recommendation of the 4th session of the Delhi Group on “place of work”

These conclusions of the study were presented at the 4th session of the Delhi Group, held in Geneva from 27-29 August 2000, which adopted the following recommendation:

“The Expert Group on Informal Sector Statistics recommends that countries include the variable “place of work” in labour force and informal sector surveys and endorses recommendations of the ILO Project on Measurement of Place of Work, as follows:

- S** The physical place of work - where the worker spends most of the time - rather than the place of the economic unit to which he or she is attached, is the appropriate unit of classification when the unit of analysis is the worker.
- S** One well-designed single question may be sufficient for the identification of place of work. However, in order to identify specific types of workers such as home-based workers, home workers, and street vendors, data on “place of work” will have to be cross-classified at least by industry, occupation and status in employment.
- S** An appropriate typology of “place of work” should be developed based on a conceptual framework.

A main analytical objective for inclusion of “place of work” in household surveys is to identify groups of workers such as home workers, street vendors and domestic workers who are particularly vulnerable in relation to the lack and difficulty of organising, the physical risks associated with the place of work, and the absence of social protection.

With respect to informal sector survey methods, the use of “place of work” in the construction of sampling frames may be explored and studied.”

Annex 3.1. Total employed population, by place of work, sex and school attendance

School attendance and sex	Place of work							
	Total	In household	Other	Kiosk	Vehicle	Door-to-door	Street	Fixed premises
T O T A L	6,278,723	806,035	624,426	50,015	429,365	215,642	407,551	3745689
Attends	524,050	43,684	26,095	2,446	13,862	13,952	24,906	399,105
Does not attend	5,754,673	762,351	598,331	47,569	415,503	201,690	382,645	3,346,584
Men	3,530,970	256,893	310,784	28,856	410,207	135,201	328,894	2,060,135
Attends	267,863	15,236	11,977	1,102	11,369	8,607	19,675	199,897
Does not attend	3,263,107	241,657	298,807	27,754	398,838	126,594	309,219	1,860,238
Women	2,747,753	549,142	313,642	21,159	19,158	80,441	78,657	1,685,554
Attends	256,187	28,448	14,118	1,344	2,493	5,345	5,231	199,208
Does not attend	2,491,566	520,694	299,524	19,815	16,665	75,096	73,426	1,486,346

Source : DANE, Colombian National Household Survey, phase 100 B june 1998

Annex 3.2. Employed population by sex, place of work, and number of employees, Mexico, April-June 1998

	Total	1 person	2-5	6-10	11-15	16-50	51+	Not spec.
without premises	16,395,838	6,316,443	9,138,321	655,230	137,246	88,148	18,655	41,795
Door-to-door	897,209	522,354	366,182	7,601	938	66	0	68
Vehicle	996,769	342,730	650,075	3,829	0	0	29	106
Household	7,179,794	3,786,040	3,014,543	244,839	59,642	39,999	10,322	24,409
Fixed location	508,444	136,992	356,986	14,113	58	242	53	0
Other	6,813,622	1,528,327	4,750,535	384,848	76,608	47,841	8,251	17,212
with premises	22,210,562	948,543	5,313,674	1,576,304	834,200	2,342,392	11,112,343	83,106
Small	7,035,554	898,502	4,725,577	1,076,467	239,137	55,074	24,057	16,740
Medium/large	15,030,639	40,809	569,774	490,700	584,811	2,264,092	11,028,415	52,038
Other	144,369	9,232	18,323	9,137	10,252	23,226	59,871	14,328
Not specified	11,111	68	191	0	0	0	47	10,805
TOTAL	38,617,511	7,265,054	14,452,186	2,231,534	971,446	2,430,540	11,131,045	135,706
MEN	25,663,073	4,218,224	10,249,047	1,651,334	715,605	1,716,541	7,002,971	109,351
without premises	11,506,294	3,658,510	7,057,408	544,310	119,379	76,076	12,529	38,082
with premises	14,149,023	559,646	3,191,448	1,107,024	596,226	1,640,465	6,990,395	63,819
Not specified	7,756	68	191	0	0	0	47	7,450
WOMEN	12,954,438	3,046,830	4,203,139	580,200	255,841	713,999	4,128,074	26,355
without premises	4,889,544	2,657,933	2,080,913	110,920	17,867	12,072	6,126	3,713
with premises	8,061,539	388,897	2,122,226	469,280	237,974	701,927	4,121,948	19,287
not specified	3,355	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,355

Source: National Urban Employment Survey. INEGI. Mexico 1998

Annex 3.3. Employed population by sex, branch of economic activity, and place of work, Mexico, April-June 1998

	TOTAL	without premises	with premises	MEN	without premises	with premises	WOMEN	without premises	with premises
Agricultural	7,817,369	6,741,100	1,076,269	6,680,063	5,755,682	924,381	1,137,306	985,418	151,888
Mining	108,198	16,938	91,260	105,918	16,546	89,372	2280	392	1,888
Oil	106,807	0	106,807	89,635	0	89,635	17172	0	17,172
Manufacturing	6,921,601	1,277,982	5,643,619	4,418,735	524,690	3,894,045	2502866	753,292	1,749,574
Electricity	182,655	56	182,599	155,066	56	155,010	27,589	0	27589
Construction	2,125,499	1,549,703	575,796	2,058,561	1,539,273	519,288	66,938	10,430	56508
Commerce	6,804,149	1,951,386	4,852,695	3,643,492	989,826	2,653,598	3,160,657	961,560	2199097
Hotels etc	1,824,831	564,795	1,260,036	815,226	206,996	608,230	1,009,605	357,799	651806
Transportation	1,517,882	821,674	696,208	1,426,415	816,852	609,563	91,467	4,822	86645
Communications	175,211	5,390	169,821	113,107	1,857	111,250	62,104	3,533	58571
Financial	1,472,032	173,143	1,298,889	941,893	138,398	803,495	530,139	34,745	495394
Other services	7,785,348	3,292,737	4,492,130	3,942,588	1,515,220	2,426,887	3,842,760	1,777,517	2065243
Public administ.	1,606,995	0	1,606,995	1,134,098	0	1,134,098	472,897	0	472897
Not specified	168,934	934	157,438	138,276	898	130,171	30,658	36	27267
TOTAL	38,617,511	16,395,838	22,210,562	25,663,073	11,506,294	14,149,023	12,954,438	4,889,544	8061539

Source: National Urban Employment Survey. INEGI. Mexico 1998

