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## ABSTRACT

The third in a series of five handbooks designed to present and analyze statistical data on women in various regions of the world, this handbook focuses on women in 14 countries in the Near East and North Africa. Beginning with an overview of population distribution and changes in the region, the analysis continues with a description of women's litefacy and education, their labor force participation, their marital status and living arrangements, their fertility, and their mortality. Information is presented not only in tables, charts, and text but also in narrative form offering a crittque on concepts, availability, and quility of data assembled on each variable. Findings show that there are more women in the working age group (ages 15-64) in labor exporting countries, with more men in this group in labor importing countries. The Midde South Asia subregion has higher crude birth and death rates than North Africa and Western South Asia. Because more men than women migrate, the working age population remaining in rural areas is dominated by women. Although there are, substantial differences in joth literacy and school enrollment rates among men and women, impfovements have been evidenced by higher percentages of literate and enrolled women among the younger age groups. Statistics also show a far lower participation of women than men in the labor force. Appendices contain a list of over 100 publications; information on data sources; a list of tables; and information on population by age, sex, and rural/urban residence. (LH)

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U.S. Deportment of Commerce BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

US. Agency for International Development
OFFICE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

## *. <br>  WORLD Near East and North Africa

 by Mary ChamieThis report was prepared under a Resources Support Services Agreement with the Office of Wormen in Development, Bureau for Program and Polrey Coordinatom, US Agenev for Intermational Development


## U.S. Department of Commerce <br> 'Malcolm Baidrige,

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## : Contents

0 ..... Page
Map. ..... vii
Chapter 1. Introduction ..... 1
Chapter 2. Population Distribution and Change ..... 5
Figures
21 Estimated and Projected Population Size and Components of Population Change: 1960 to 2025 ..... 10
2.2. Population Distribution of Near Eastern and North African Countries: 1983 ..... 11
2.3. Estimated and Projected Population: 1960, 1970, and 1985 ..... 12
2.4. Sex Ratios of Total Population ..... 13
2.5. Percent of All Women in Selected Age Groups ..... 14
2.6. Sex Ratio of Population in Two Age Groups ..... 15
2.7. Percent of Rural Women in Selected Age Groups ..... 16
6 , 2.8. Percent of Urban Women in Selected Age Groups ..... 17
2.9. Sex Ratio of Population in Two.Age Groups, by Rurai/Urban Residence ..... 18
2.10. Percent of Women Living in Urban Areas: Latest Two Censuses ..... 19
Tables
2.1. Total Population, by Sex, and Sex Ratio ..... 20
2.2. Estimates and Projections of Midyear Population: 1960 to 1985 ..... 21
2.3. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 22
2.4. Percent of Mald Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 23
2.5. Sex Ratios of Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 24
2.6. Percent of Ruralfemale Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 25
2.7. Percent of Rural Male Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 26
2.8. Sex Ratios of Rural Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 27
2.9. Percent of Urban Female Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 28
2.10. Percent of Urban Male Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 29
2.11. Sex Ratios for Urban Population in Selected Age Groups ..... 30
2.12. Percent of Population Residing, in Urban Areas, by Sex, and Female/Male Rapo of Percent Urban: Latest Two Censuses ..... 31
2.13. Percent of Female Population Residing in Urban Areas, by, Selected Age Groups ..... 32
2 14. Percent of Population Non National, by Sex, and Sex Ratios of Nationals and Non Nationals ..... 33
2.15 Intercensal Growth Rate of National and Non-National Population, by Sex, for Egypt, Saudı Arabia, and Syria ..... 34
Chapter 3. Literacy and Edu'cation ..... 35
Figures
31 Percent literate Among Women and Men Age 10 Years and Over ..... 40
32 Percent Literate Among Worion and Men Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/UibanResidence41 Residence
Chapter 3-Continued
3.3. Percent Literate for Women and Men, by Agé ..... 42
3.4. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate in Rural Areas, for Selected Age Groups ..... 44
3.5. FemaleMale Ratio of Percent Literate in Urban Areas, for Selected Age Groups ..... 45
3.6. Percent Enrolled in School Among Girls and Boys Age 10 to $\uparrow 4$ Years ..... 46
3.7. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School in Rural Areas, for Selected Age Groups ..... 47
3.8. Female/Male Ratio of Pefcent Enrolled in School in Urban Areas,for Selected Age Groups ..... 48
Tables
3.1. Percent Litarate, Among Population Age 10 Years andsover, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and/Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate ..... 49
3.2. Percent Literate Amond Population in Selected Age Groups, by Sex ..... 52
3.3. Percent Litegote Antrg Population in Selected Age Groups, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Algeria, Jordan, and Lebanon ..... 53
3.4. Percent Literate Among Women in Selécted Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 54
3.5. Percent Literate Among Men in Selected Age Groups, by Ruy̧al/Urban Residence ..... 55
3.6. Percent Female Among Literate Population, by Selected Age Groups and Rural/Urban Residence ..... 56
3.7. Percent Fémale Among Literate Population. Age 15 Years and Over, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence: Lebanon, 1970 ..... 57
3.8. Percent of Population Enrolled in School, by Age and Sex ..... 58
3.9. Percent of Rural Population Enrolled in School, by Age and Sex ..... 59
3.10 Percent of Urban Population Enrolled in Schoot, by Age and Sex ..... 60
3.11. Fémale/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School, by Age and Rural/Urban
Residence ..... 61
3.12. . Percent Female Among Enrolled Population, by Age and Rural/Urbañ Residence ..... 63
3.13. Percent of Population, by Literacy/Level of Education and Selected Characteristics, for Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Syria ..... 64
3.14. Primary School Dropout and Graduation Rates, by Sex: 1970.75 ..... 65
Chapter 4. Economic Activity ..... 67
Figures
4.1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population Age 10 Years and Over, © Sex ..... 75
4.2. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates ..... 76
4.3. Percent Economically Active, by Sex and Age, for Iran, Jordan, Morocco, and Turkev' ..... 77
4.4. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates in Selected Age Groups ..... 78
4.5. Labor Force Participation Rates for Women Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 79
4.6. Labor Force Participation Rates for Women in Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 80
4.7. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates in. Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urben Residence ..... 81
4 4.8. Female Share of Rural and Urben Labor Force in Two Age Groups ..... 82
4.9. Percent of Labor Force in Agriculture, by Sex ..... 83
4 10. Female/Male Ratio of Percent of Unpaic Eamily Workers in Labor Force ..... 84
4.11. Percent of Unpaid Family Workers in Selected Industries, by Sex, for Algeria, Iran. Tunisia, and Turkey ..... 85

## Chapter 4-Continued

## Tables

4.1. Number of Economically Active Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Selected Age Groups, and Percent of Economically Active Outside Age Range 15 to 64 Years ..... 86
4.2. Labor Force Participation Rates Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economically Açtive, and Percent Female Among Persons in Labor Force ..... 87
4.3. Total Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age ..... 88
4.4. Female/Male Ratio of Total Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age ..... 90
4.5. Female Share of Total Laßor Force, by Age ..... 91
4.6. Female Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, för Jordan and Turkey: Late'st Two Censuses
92
92
4.7. 2 Labot Force Participation Rates Among Rural Population Age 10 Years and Over, by
Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economically Active, and Percent Female Among Persons in Rural Labor Force ..... 93
4.8. Rural Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age ..... 94
4.9. Female/Male Ratio of Rural Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age ..... 96
4.10. Female Share, of Rural Labor Force, by Age ..... 97
4.11. Labor Force Participation Rates Among Urban Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economioally Active, and Percent Female in Urban Labor Force ..... 98
4.12. Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age ..... 99
4.13. Female/Male Ratio of Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age ..... 101
4.14. Female Share of Urban Labor Force, by Age ${ }^{\circ}$
102
102
4.15. Percent of Labor Force in Agriculture, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent in Agriculture
103
103
4.16. Percent of Unpaid Family Workers in Labor Force, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent of Unpaid Family. Workers ..... 104
4.17. Percent of Unpaid Family Workers, by In甘ustry and Sex, for Selected Countries ..... 105
4.18. Number and Parcent of Women Unpaid Family Workers in Selected Occupations for Lebanon: 1970 ..... 106
Chapter 5, Marital Status and Living Arrangements ..... 107
Figures
5.1. Age by Which 50 Percent of Women and Men Have Ever Been Married ..... 112
5.2. Percent Single and Widowed Among Women Age 15 Years and Over ..... 113
5.3. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single, by Age ..... 114
5.4. Percent Single Among Women in Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence
1.15
1.15
5.5. Percent Widowed Among Women in Two Age Groups, by Rurai/Urban Residence ..... 116
5.6. Median Number of Persons per thousehold ..... 117
Tables5.1. Minimum Legal Age at Marriage, by Sex
118
5.2. Age by Which 25 and 50. Percent of Women and Men Have Ever Been Married, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 119
5.3. Percent of Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Martal Status and Sex ..... 120
5.4. Percent of Rural Population Age 15 Yearseand Over. by Marital Status and Sex ..... $122^{\circ}$
5.5. Percent of Urban Population Age 15 years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex ..... 124
5.6. Percent Single Among Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex ..... 126
5.7. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Population Age 15 to 49 Years ..... 128
5.8. Percent Single Among Rural Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex ..... 129

## Chapter 5-Continued

5.9. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Rural Population Age. 15 to 49 Years ..... 131
5.10. Percent Single Among Urban Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex ..... 132
5.11. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Urban Population, Age 15 to 49 Years ..... 134
5.12. Pgrcent of Women Who are Widowed, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence ..... 135 ..... 135
5.13. Selected Household Characteristics ..... 136 ..... 136
5.14. Percent of Households With Female Heads, by Age of Household Head and Rural/Urban Residence ..... 137
Chapter 6. Fertility ..... 139
Flgures
6.1. Crude Birth Rates ..... 141
6.2. Gross and Net Reproduction Rates ..... 142 ..... 142
6.3. Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother ..... 143
Tables
6.1. Crude Birth Rate, Total Fertility Rate, Gross Reproduction Rata, and Net Repröduction Rate ..... 144
6.2. ' Crude Birth Rate and Total Fertility Rate, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 145
6.3. Age-Specific Fertility Rates, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 146
6.4. Percent Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother and Rural/Urben Residence ..... 148
6.5. . Contraceptive Use Among Currently Married Women Age 15 to 49 Years ..... 150
6.6. Percent Distribution of Contraceptive Users Among Currently Married Women Age . 15 to 49 Years, by Method ..... 151
Chapter 7. Mortality ..... 153
Figures
-7.1. Uife Expectancy at Birth for Women and Men ..... 956
7.2. Eemale/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates ..... 157
7.3. Proportion of Children Dying Before Their Fifth Birthday, by Sex ..... 158
Tables
7.1. Life Expectancy at Birth and at Age 1 Year for Women and Men, and Female/Male Ratio of Life Expectancies ..... 159
7.2. Life Expectancy at Birth and at Age i' Year for Women and Men, and Female/Male Ratio of Life Expectancies, by Rural/Urban Residence ..... 160
7.3. Infant Mortality Rates, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates ..... 161
7.4. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men ..... 162
7.5. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Turkey, Afghanistan, and Iran ..... 164
7.6. Percent of Children Dying Before Their Fifth Birthday, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Dying ..... 166
167
Chapter 8. Conclusions
Appendixes
4
173
A. References
179
179
B. Sources of Data
B. Sources of Data .....
181 .....
181 ..... 183
Table B.4. Number of Tables in WID Data Base, by Country and Category
Table B.4. Number of Tables in WID Data Base, by Country and Category
C. Tables in Women In Development Data Base
C. Tables in Women In Development Data Base
185
185
D. Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence
D. Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence ..... 195

Near East and North Africa $\therefore \cdot$

# Chapter 1 

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1

The Women of the World handbooks present and analyze statistical data on women in the Near East and North Africa, SubSaharan Africa. Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean. The statistics are derived from the Women in Development Data Base (WID Data Base) compiled by the U.S. Bureau of the Census from national census and survey data gathered by the countries themselves. The WID Data Base and handbooks are a part of the National Statistics on Women project of the Office of Women In Deveiopment, U.S. Agency For Inter; national Development (USAID).

The WID Data Base originally was designed for US'AID's policy and program planners; the decision to analyze and publish the data in the present series of Women of the World handbooks grew out of a desire not only to make the information more accessible to development planners outside USADD, but to share it with a wider audience. The handbooks are descriptive and exploratory in nature, although they do strive towards giving some hinfs at explanation. They are offered as a necessary first step towards more elaborate analyses. Time and budget restrictions prohibited cross-cultural comparison between and among the variables. Such comparisons are extremely complex, each requiring much more analysis then could be carried out for a publication which aims at giving a general overview of the WID Data Base. If one fact stands out in recent research, it is that there are few, if any, simple one-to-one causal relationships between two variables. As Youssef (1982, p. 178) points out in a recent exploration of the interrelationships between the division of labor in the household and women's roles, and their impact on fertility, few studies make clear that the relationships among such variables as education, employment, and marital status are neither direct nor simple. Each variable affects the other as well as fertility, and in addition, there may be other variables that have an equal impact on fertility. Elaborate analyses depending upon multiple regression techniques were IC yond the scope of the present exploratory data analysis.

The handbooks are offered in full knowledge that they have many shortcomings inherent in data sets based primarily on cen-
sus sources. Yet we believe they give valuable information ón, women that otherwise woutd simply not be ávailable. No datagathering effort matches the decennial census in scope and coverage, and the results are useful if one is aware of the limitations. Statistics come principally from the 1970 and $1980^{\circ}$ census rounds; in some cases, 1960 census round data are included.' To supplement the census data, the results of national surveys are also usied for some topics. These handbooks do not sipply present the information on women's status in tables, charts, and text, but offer a critique on the concepts, availability, and quality of the data assembled on each variable - the positive attributes, as well as the major deficiencies. Because census data must be assessed carefully, and often corrected, by comparison with other data sources, the handbooks are one step toward providing better information on women for both planning and scholarly purposes.

## Near East and North Africa

The Near East and North Africa region is derived from three major areas of the world: (1) North Africa, (2) Western South Asia, and (3) Middle South Asia. The WID Data Base provides information on 14 countries of the Near East and North Africa. The countries ware chosen either because their populations total 5 million or more or because they are countries in which USAID has had assistance programs. Arab countries (that is, countries
-
$\$$

[^2]where the spoken language is Arabic) included in this analysis are Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, and Tunisia in North Africa; and Iraq, Jordan, Lebahon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, and Yemen (Sanaa) in Western South Asia. Non-Arab countries selected are Cyprus and Turkey.in Western South Asia and Afghanistan and Iran in Middle South Asia. (Other countries of Middle South AsiaBangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakisten, and Sri Lanka - are examined in a separate handbook on*Asia and the Pacific.)

## Analytical Sumpary

This report reviews some of the existing published census and national survey tabulations relevant to the status of women as compiled by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in the WID Data Base. When data are not available from the WID Data Base, examples are offered from other relevant research in order to highlight alternative data sets available for a comprehensive analysis of the situationof women. Despite the limitations of the data, some generalizations can be made concerning the status of women in the 14 countries of the Near East and North Africa investigated in this handbook.

Population distribution and change. According to 1983 projected estimates prepared by the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1983),
the subregions of North Africa and Western South Asia are similar in population size and vital rates:

| Subregion | Population (in thou sand) | Births per 1,000 population | Deaths per 1,000 population | Growth rate lin percent) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| North Africa | 96.455 | 38.41 | 11 | 2.7-3.0 |
| Western South | 96.26 | 37.38 | 11 | 2.5-2.6 |
| Middle South |  |  |  |  |
| Asia, | 56,667 | 43-45 | 15 | 2.7-2.8 |

The Middle South Asia subregion has the highest crude birth and death rates. The overall growth rate for this subregion, however, is tempered by the emigration of 2 to 3 persons per 1,000 population in 1983 from Afghanistan and Iran, the two Near Eastern countries included in this subragion. These figures are based on weighted averages and mask differences among individual countries that are evident from the more detailed tables presented later.

The distribution of the population by age and sex is an important element for developing planning strategies às it identifies potential candidates for schooling, childbearing, employment, migration, and other activities. A summary of these percent distributions for the 14 countries combined based on United Nations (1982a) projected estimates for 1980 is shown below:

1

| * | - North Africa |  | Western South Asia |  | Middle South Asia |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | . Men | Women | Men |
| All ages | 100.0 | 1.00 .0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 0 to 14 years | 42.2 | 43.6 | 41.9 | 41.9 | 44.9 | 45.5 |
| 15 to 49 years | 46.3 | 45.8 | 46.1 | 46.8 | 45.0 | 45.3 |
| 50 to 64 years | 7.8 | 7.3 | : 7.8 | 7.6 | 6.8 | 6.5 |
| 65 years and over | 3.7 | 3.3 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 2.7 |

- 

Although subregronal differences are not large. the proportion of both sexes in the youngest age group is slightly higher in Middle South Asia than elsewhere, reflecting the higher birth rates there. In all subregions, the proportion in the older ages is higher among women than men.

An analysis of sex ratios for selected age groups clearly shows more women in the working ages 115 to 64 years) in labor ex. porting countries such as Algeria and Yemen (Sanaa), with more men in this age group in labor importing countries, for example, Saudi Arabia.

The one dominant characteristic of the region is migration, both internal. as shown by the rapid increase in proportions living in urban arias, and international. The impact that both types of
migration have had upon the composition of the pópulation in rural and urban areas is illustrated below by the median sex ratios (males per 100 females) for selected age groups based on rine countries with available data:


Althougb both women and men participate in the rural-to-urban movement, more men than women migrate, probably to seek job opportunities in the cities. As a consequepce, the workingage population remaining in rurgl areas is dominated by women.

Literacy and education. Literacy and higher levels of education are recognized as prerequisites to entering the labor force, especially the modern sectors. Although statistics are not available for all countries, the use of median percentages based on data.for six or seven countries may illustrate the findings:

| Measure and age | Rural |  | Urbàn |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men |
|  |  |  | , |  |
| Percent literate: |  |  |  |  |
| 15 to 24 |  |  |  |  |
| years | 15.6 | 72.7 | 68.2 | 84.8 |
| 25 to 34 years. | 4.5 | 33.46 | 41.3 | 74.0 |
| 35 years and |  |  |  |  |
| over. | 0.8 | 13.6 | 12.4 | 43.0 |
| Percent enrolled: |  |  |  |  |
| 10 to 14 |  |  |  |  |
| years | 34.4 | 72.8 | 80.2 | 90.4 |
| 15 to 19 years. | 19.0 | 40.4 | 43.8 | 59.2 |
| 20 to 24 years. | 2.0 | 9.5 | 11.0. | 19.2 |

Improvements have been substantial in all categories, as evidenced by higher percentages literate and enrolled among the younger age groups. Nevertheless, rural women continue to have the lowest rates while urban men continue to have the highest.

Economic activity. As expected, the available statistics show a far lower participation of women than men in the labor force, and a proportionately greater participation as unpaid, family workers, especially in rural areas. This is illustrated by the following median percentages for the population age 10 years and over based on the six countries reporting such information by rural/ urban residence:

| - | Percent economically active |  | Percent of active persons who are unpaid family - workers |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Residence | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| Rural. | 14.7 | 71.5 | 59.4 | $\stackrel{-}{176}$ |
| Urban | 9.9 | 063.5 | 6.2 | 2.0 |

Supplemental data indicate that occupations in the modern sector most readily availabte to wofien are those of teacher, nurse, and secretary. Furthermore, women who work in these occupations, on the whole, are less educated than their mate counterparts.

Marital status and Fiving arrangements. With respect to marriage, the data offer some interesting contrasts between women and men. Women marry at younger ages than men, and rural women marry earlier than urban women. Women who are divorced or widowed have less opportunity for remarriage than do divorced or widowed men. Finally, more divorced than widowed women tend to remarry.

Fertility and mortality. The fertility indicators for the Near East and North Africa show generally high levels of fertility and modefate rates of cbntraceptive use among married couples of reproductive age in these 'countries. Cyprus and Lebanon are farthest along in fertility raduction, and Cyprus is close to the level of replacement. The remaining countries in the analysis show high fertility levels, as reflected in their age-specific and total fertility rates. Knowledge of contraception is generally widespread, although cureent use of contraception by married women varies substantially from country to country. Mortality patterns by age and sex suggest that in several countries gender differences in mortality are especially prevalent during the reproductive ages, but overall differences are not substantial.


This chapter highlights the differential population distributions and migration pafteyfistof women and men in the Near East and North Africa. A recent analysis of the literature available for the study of population and development indicated that for this region: \&

The population issues of major concern to most Arab coun- . tries are: population distribution and intemal migration, pasticularly rural-to-urben migration and, to sorne extent, nomadic movements of Bedouins; international migration, particwarly intra-regional migration among the Arab countries and the emigration of professionals and skilled workers to countries outside the Arab world (Tabbarah, et al., 1978, p. 11).

In this chapter, the spedific concerns of girls and women are discussed within the broader framework of demographic and population issues. Attention is initially placed upon the availability of data that distinguish between the sexes for the analysis of population distribution, composition, and migration patterns. The second part of the chapter highlights gender differentials found in the available data on population size, composition, and migration.

## Quality and Availability of Data

Basic demographic data about women and men for eachof the countries included in the Near East and North Africa region are available from cens tabulations and compiled in the WID Data Base.' The stuidy of migration and population growth or change as they relate to women requires additional data sources
'In a faw inganices, in particular for Jordan and Turkey, data in the tables whete updated just prise to publication to reflect a later census, while date Coteharts reflect an earliof cónses.
to fill the information gaps. Census date on gender differences in ethnicity, religion, ànd language spoken are notable in their absence.

Population stze and compodtion. Data are available since the 1970's for every coluntry included in the analysis. Rural/urthan composition, by sex, is not available for 5 of the 14 selected countries. Given the importance of rural/urban differences to any analysis of the situation of women, this is a significant gap in - information.

Population change and migration data. Six of the 14 selected countries have at least two censuses available since the 1960's. For these six countries, estimates can be made of changes in the rural/urban composition and sex distribution of their populetions over time. Data on nationality, by sex and rural/urban residence, were avallable only for Tunisia in 1975 and Turkey in 1970. Therefore, the analysis of differential female migration is based upon these limited data and additional supporing evidence from the literature:

Ethnictty, rellgion, and language. No data are available from any' of the censuses conducted during the 1970's or early 1980's that would allow an analysis of language, by sex and rural/urban residence. One census tabulation is available for Syria in 1970 indicating ethnic group by sex. The 1976 Egyptian and 1976 Iranian censuses do provide data by reifgion, sex, and rural/urban residence. Analysis of ethnic, religious, and language composition; therefore, requires-additional restearch using pther sources and the existing literature.

## Findings

In the Near East and North Africa, population growth rates remain moderately high because of the combined effect of fer-
tility, mortality, and international migration (U.S. Bureau of the 'Census, 1983): Because of the young age structure of the population already bori, combined with the fact that fertility - . declines have not kept pace with declines in portality, rates of natural population increase are moderatèly high but tempered by net emigration from the region. Figure 2.1 shows the relationships between fertility and martality for the combined group of countries comprising the Near East/North África region as defined for this analysis. These 14 countries have a projected population increase of about 475 million persons between 1960 and the year 2025 according to the United Nations (1982a).

Population size and the components of demographic change vary by subregion. Figure 2.2 shows the population distribution of the-subregions (as defined for the present analysis) in 1983. The Near Éastern countriés of Middle South Asia extribit the highest levels of fertility, mortality, and net international migration in 1983. Furthermgre, the Areb countries have higher rates of growth and natural increase than the non-Arab countries.

The following sections discuss various aspects of population size and composition of individual countries, and provide a context fof the analysis in subsequent chapters on education, labor force, family situation, fertility, and mortality.

Population size. Turkey hastithe largest population among the countries included in the study of the Near East and North Africa, nearly 45 million people according to the 1980 cgnsus, followed by Egypt with slightly more than 38 miltion people according to ' the 1.976 census (see table 2.1). The smallest populations are fownd in Cyprus 10.6 million in 1976) and in Jordan and Lebanon, each with about 2 million persons counted in the 1979 census and 1970 survey, respectively. Thie relative position of the 14 countries in regard to population size has changed only slightly since 1960 (see table 2.2 and figüre 2.3)."

There are more men than women in most of the dolintries (see figúre 2.41. The exceptions are Cyprus, Algeria, and Yemen. Algeria and Yemen (Sanaa) pre labor-exporting countries, with Algerian male workers going to France and Yemeni workers to the labor importing countries of the Gulf area, such as Saudi Arabia. There is high male labor emigration from Turkey as well, gcing primárily to West Germany, where about 2 percent of the 1977 population was of Turkish origin (U.S. Bureau'of the Census, 1980). Large-scale, emigration of men from Turkey, however, has less effect upon the overall sex ratio of Turkey than does the emigration of male laborers from Algeria or Yemen (Sanaa) upon their respective sex ratios. Labor-importing couniries, such as Saudi Arabia, hàve sex rațios that are strongly affected by immigration; 1974 census figures show 114 males to every 100 females in the country.

Age composition and sex ratio. Most fi the countries are characterized by a relatively young age distribution primarily because of high rates of fertility and dectining mortality. Iraq and Saudi Arabia, for example. report about haif' of their populations under age 15 years (see tables 2.3 and 2.4; and figure 2.5). With the exception of Cyprus and Turkey, all countries report having more than 40 percent of their populations under age 15 years.' Approximately 4 or 5 out of every 10 females in this region are
. $k$
in their reproductive years (see table 2.3 and figure 2.5). Cyprus has the oldest female population, with 11 percent of all women age 65 years and over. The rest of the countries have between 2 and 5 percent of their female population in this age group.

In general, the age distribution of males for these countries is similar to that of females (see table 2:4), but there is usually a larger percentage of women than men age 65 years and over, and the younger age groups show a slightly higher percentage of males than females.

Sex ratios show preponderance of boys among children under age 5 years (see table 2.5). With the exception of Algeria, Lebanon, and Afghanistan, the sex ratio becoge more strikingly masculine at age 10 to 14 years. Except for Afghanistan, the sex ratio starts to decline by age 15 to 19 years, primarily because of male emigration for work. For example, in Yemen (Sanaa), the sex ratio declines from 114 boys per 100 girls at age 10 to 14 years, to 79 men per 100 women at age 15 to 19 years. Labor-importing countries, such as Saudi Arabia, show a reverse pattern. The effect of sex-selective labor migration on the sex ratios also may be seen in figure 2.6. Further discussion of the reasons for such shifts will follow in the section on migration.

- Rural/urban composition. Data on rural/urban residence, by age and sex, are available for 9 of the 14 countries in this region. Tables $2.6^{\prime}$ and 2.9 show the percent of rural and urban female pobulations, respectively, in selected age groups. For every country with data, larger proportions of children are in rural than urban areas, except in Afghanistan, where the proportions of females. in the young age groups are similar in rural and urban areas.

There are usually higher proporitions of women and men age 15 to 64 years in urban than in rural areas. In addition, higher proportions of urben than rural women are in their reproductive years. Rural/urban differences in the proportion of females who are bețween ages 15 and 64 years, or between 15 and 49 years, may be seen by comparing figures 2.7 and 2.8 .
There is a higher proportion of elderly women lage 65 years and olderl in rural than urban areas for af countries, with the exception of Iran, Afghanistan, and Tunisia isee tables 2.6 and 2.9). Similar trends are found for elderly men (sep tables 2.7 ; and 2.10). .

Comparisons of sex ratios fór selected age groups in rural and urban areas (see tables 2.8 and 2.11 ) further highlight the dramatic shifts that take place in the sex composition of certain age groups primarily because of the heavy migration of men from rural areas to work in urban centers. These shifts are shown graphically in figure 2.9. Among the working age population, age $15^{5}$ to 64 years, women often óutnumber men in fural areas,
$\checkmark$ white men usually outnumber women in urban areas. Three exceptions are noted: Afghanistan and Lebanon, where men outnumber women in both areas; Morocco, where women outnumber men in both areas; and Tunisia, where men and women are aimost equal in both areas.
In general, this region of the world, has become subsfantially more urban since the 1960's (see table 2.12). The pfoportion of the total female population in urban areas, for example, has risen substantially if Morocco, Iraq, and Turkey in the 1960's
and 1970's. Figure 2.10 graphically shows the increase in the proportyons of female population living in the cities. Much of the growth is "concentrated in a single urbanized area:
-
In Lebanon, for example, more then 75 percent of total nonagricultural employment is concentrated in Boirut and its suburbs, while in Jordan more then 90 percent of nonagricultural employment is concentrated in Amman/Zarka area. A simple index of primacy can be obtained by dividing the population of the largest'city hy the total population of the three next largest cities. For most countries of Europe, for example, the value of this index of.primacy is almost invariably less than one, while it is much higher than one in most of the Asian Arab countries' (in fact, also in most of the Áfrican Arab countries). In Lebanon and Jordan, this index is more than 2.5 (Tabbarah, et al., 1978 ' ' $_{\text {' }}$ p. 101 .

An important consequence of such dramatic increases in primate city size is the ensuing housing shortage and the shortage of essential public service§ such as water, electricity, public transportation, and garbage collection owing to inadequate infrastructure to meet the needs of the rapidly increasing population sizes.

Table 2.13 shows that for each of the countries having data, a high percentage of women living in urban areas is usually found at age 15 to 49 yeals, and a lower proportion among children , under age 5 years and among elderly women age 65 years and over. The exception is Afghanistan, where the proportions are similar for each age group. Although there is no immediate explanation for this pattern, it is likely that higher proportions of women age 15 to 49 years are found in urban areas because they migrated for educational or work oppórtunities, or because they were maffied to men who moved to the city for work.

Intemai migration. As mentioned previousiy, there has been significant growth in the cities, resulting in compositional changes in the proportions of women and men that reside fn urban and rural areas. A large part of the utban growth is due to migration from rural areas, and women are heavily represented in the rural/urban movement. The United Nations Economic Commission for West Asia noted that in Egypt,

In addition to the male migrants, more and more women are believed to have been taking part in the outmigration from Upper Egypt to the urban centers of Lower Egypt (UNECWA, 1980a, p. 4-16).

Therpattern of the age-specific sex ratios of the migrant population to Cairo did not indicate anty significant defícit of women. Similariy, in Turkey, the average annual urban growth rates for women hafe been approximately similar but somewhat higher than male urban growth rates for every year since 1955 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1982, table 21, agair indicating that women are strongly participating in the rural-to-urban movement.

Refugee populations and displaced persons. Although a large part of the internal migration is explained by rural-to-urban I ovements primarily for reasons of greater economic oppor-
tunity, some countries are additionally struggling with unexpected movements as people are displaced because of conditions of war.

Since 1975 the armed conflict in Lebanon has produced large numbers of displaced persons. Entire communities and villages, particularly in the south of the country but also in every other region have been uprooted and have found shelter through charitable institutions, the farced oc: cupation of buildings, and the construction of houising gind related structures on governhent and private projerty. Resolving the political, social, and legal problems associated with this dislocation is becoming an increasingly difficult task (UNECWA, 1980q, p. 8-11).

The socioeconomic and demographic ramifications of unplanned 4. Uisplacement by abrupt migratory movements are largely unwocumented in censuses and survays because of the simultaneous disisption of government-supported statistical pffices in areas having, civil and internationat strife. The relocation of the Egyptian populatign out of, then back into, the Suez area, the dislocation of Jordanians and Palestinians on the West -Bank, and the dislocation of families beqlause of fighting in Cyprus and Atghanistan, are additional examples of politically induced migration which also alters the age and sex composition of the population.

There is little quagntitative evidence indicating the effects on women and men of rural/urbań migration or political displacement. Much of what is known is gleaned from field observation and in-depth discussions with recently displaced persons or new migrants to the city (for example, see Van Dusen, 1976). Quantitative studies examining the large-scale effects of rural-to-urban movement upon the status pf women and the differential effects upon women and men of being war refugees are greatly needed for this region of the world.

International migration. The significance of international migration in the Near East and North Africa is readily aoknowledged ${ }^{4}$ .by demographers (Chamie, 1981; Birks and Sinclair, 1980; and Tabbarah, et al., 1978). One importamt indication of gender dif: ferences in international migration is the proportion of nonnationals reported in these countries (see table 2.14). The proportion of non-nationals is estimated af 12 percent in Saudi. Arabia for 1974, 8 percent of women and 15 percent of men.' Turkey, Tunisia, and Egypt, in contrast, report verylow propor." tions of non-nationals, for both sexes.
In addition to estimating the proportions of people who have migrated to these countries, attempts were made to measure the proportions of persons living abroad.

It is generally agreed that the countries with the largest proportion of their populations abroad are Democratic Yemen. Oman and Yemen (about 8 percent of their total populations). These countries are followed by Bahrain, Egypt, and Lebanon who have about 5 percent of their populations abroad (Chamie, 1981, p. 7).

The impact upon the age-sex distribution of such high rates of, emigration is seen in the 1975 census of Yemen (Sanaa), where there is a noticeable shortage of middle-age men. The impact of such heavy emigration of males upon the families they leave behind is largely undocumented. The available evidence suggests that in Yemen (Sanaa), the large-scele emigration of men has. had a profound economic and social effect upon the lives of the peoplè residing in Yemen. Myntti (1979) observed that remittances from workers abread to families at home is one major reason for the increased wealth and improved socioeconomic status of women and children in Yemen (Sanaa).
In addition to the significant flow of international migrants for reasons of work, another type of international migration occurring in this part of the world is due to political displacement. For ${ }^{\circ}$ example.

During the last 30 years or so migration has played an extremely important role in the demogiaphy of Jordan. Due to the many military conflicts in the area, large numbers of both Jordanians and Palestinians have been displaced and made refugees. In $1948^{\circ}$ "for example, about 350.000 refugees from western and northern Palestine moved to the West Bank; as a result of further in-migration as well as natural increase, the refugee population grew to about 600,000 in 1961, about one-third of the total population (UNECWA, 1979a, p. 6-13).

Continued conflict, during which time the West Bank became an occupied territory, has further increased the already substantial movement from rural areas to urban centers in Jordan.

The complex interrelationships between international migration because of displacement and subsequept movements into urban capitals, such as Amman, Baghdad, Beirut, Kabul, or Tehran, are not carefully studied for evidence of the long-zerm effects of such displacement and movement upon families and upon the situation of women. The demographic ramifications of recent experiences with displacement are largely unknown. For example, in Lebanon,

At the present time, considering the scarcity of data, it is not possible to know how many left originally, how many returned, and how many are currently leaving. It appears, however, that the armed conflict in 1975-76, motivated large numbers of Lebanese to emigrate permanently (mainly to the Americas and Australial); it also prompted large numbers to migrate less permanently to the Gulf countries and elsewhere (UNECWA, 1980c, p. (8.10).

Again, the implications of such movements for thepersons left behind and for the new emigrants are largely undocumented. Demographic evidence of the effects of large-scale emigration upon the age and sex composition of the remaining population is still mainly eonjectural.

In general. the patterns of sex ratios for non nationals in these countries indicate that more men than women have migrated (see table 2.14). In Turkey in 1970, the sex ratio for nont
nationals was 102. In Egypt (1976) and Saudi Arabia (1974) they were exceptionally high (142 and 201, respectively), indicating many more male than female non-nationals. (The 1975 sex ratio was high also in Yemen (Sanaal, but the actual number of non-nationals was topo small to attach significance to the figures). Tunisia in 1975 was unusual in that the sex ratio indicated more female than male non-nationals. In general, however, people who migrate across national borders are men.Table 2.14 shows this to be the case among Arab countries included in the EGW ${ }^{3}$ A region. In contrast to the high sex ratios of non-nationals, the sex ratios of nationals are close to 100 in, most countries, indicatipg a balance between the sexes. The exception is Yemen (Sanaa), whose overall sex ratio is only 91, indicating a substantially greater number of female than male nationals residing there at the time of the census.
The de jure population of Yemen (Sanaa) was estimpted in 1975 to include approximately. 332,000 emigrants, of which 10 percent were wolmen. Among migrating women, none were reported to be emigrating for work. Over half of the females (59. percent) were reported to be dependent children whose fathers were migrating for work, and 41 percent were reported to be mothers of dependent कfildren or spouses of men who were migrating for work. In contrast, 89 percent of the men who* emigrated were reported tó be unaccompanied working' adults (Birk's' Sinclair, and Socknat," 1978, reported in UNECWA, 1979c).
Evidence indicating differential growth rates by nationality and sex for Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Syria, offer another perspective on gender differences in the migration experience (sele table 2.15). Aggin, as was the case with sex ratios for nationals, the growth rates of female and male national populations are similar: Growth rates of non-national populations are quite diffèrent by sex. In Egypt, during the 1966.76 intercensal period, the nonnational male population was growing at a faster pace than the non-national femaie population. In contrast, Saudi Arabia has a very high sex catio, indicating that significantly morement than women have immigrated. The 1963-74 intercensal growth rate of nọn-national women in Saudi Arabia, however, was, higher than the growth rate of non-national men, indiçting that women had entered Saudi Arabia at a faster pace than men during that period. In Syria, the negative growth rates between 1960 and 1970 for female and male non-nationals were almost equal, suggesting that both were leaving Syria at the same rate. These sex differentials in growth rates suggest that in countries where migration is a significant demographic factor, the effects of migration upon the age and sex composition of a nation can be substancial.

There age two batic problems associated with the measurement of gender differences in migr atory experiences. First, migratigh for work. eithier to nearby. urban areas or to the Gulf and other labor-importing countries, not only affects the countries where the migrants are accepted, but also influences the demographic composition and ocioeconomic conditions of the remaining population in the place of origin. Since a large proportion of the migration is composed of men migrating for work, the composition of remaining households is especially affected. tensus data on heads offouseholds, for example, have not ade-
quately dealt with the problem of distinguishing between de jure and de facto women-hpaded households. The de facto womenheaded households are likely to be attributable largely to the migration of men for work. Not only are the numbers of families affected by such migration underenumerated by censuses, but the consequences to women and children left behind are usually undocumented (Youssef and Hetler, 1982).

Second, the seasonal migration of workers, nomadic persons, and bedouins in such countries as Afghanistan, Jotdan, 'Morocco, and Saudi Arabia, within and evein across national boundaries, further complicates the meagutamome and analysis of migration pattofins. In several countyres, persons möst likely. to be missing from census counts gem noms, refugees, and persons residing in occupied territories, In Jordan in 1979; for example. population estimates refer to residents of the East, Bank only because since 1967 the West Bank, including East Jerusalem, has been occupied by lsreel. In Afghanistan, the' 1979 ceñsus excludes,an estimatéd 2.5 million nomads. In Lebanion, the 1979 de jure population excludes Palestintion
refugees residing in camps. In Saudi Arabia, approximately 210,000 frontier nomads were missed by the census and added in by census officials. Such transitory movements and population shifts not only make it difficult to establish base population sizes but also complicate program development plans for women and men.

Ethnic, Dnguistic and rellgious composition. Data on ethnic. lingtistic, and religious composition. indicate the degree of heterogeneity or homogeneity in the characteristics of women and men. Data on the language of persons; by sex and rural/unben'residence, are not available for the 1970 to 1983 period. Data were found only for Egypt in 1976 on religious composition by sex and rural/urban residence. One table of data on ethnic group, by sex, was available for Syria in 1970. Given the importance of such characteristics for the preparation of social and economic programs for women, the lack of data is remarkable.

Figure 2.1. Estimated and Projected Popülation Size and Components of Population Change: 1960 to 2025


[^3]
## Figure 2.2. Population Distribution of Near Eastern and North African Countries: 1983

- 6 percent in 10 countries not included in the analysis" Bahrain Gaza Strip Israel Kuwait Libya Oman Qatar United Arab Emirates Western
Sahara

- Handbook excludes 6 percent of the populstion of Near East/North Africs Of this, 1 percent refers to larael, which was excluded from the analysis, and 5 percent refers to 9 countries not presently in the WID Data Base.

Source: U.S. Burebu of the Census, 1983.

Figure 2.3. Estimated and Projected Population: 1960, 1970, and 1985.


Note: Countries are presented in rank order by population size in 1985.
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983.

Figure 2.4. Sex Raptios of Total Population


Males per 100



[^4] $\alpha$

Figure 2.5. Percent of All Women in Selected Age Groups


Figure 2.6. Sex Ratio of Population in Two Age Groups





[^5]' Figure 2.7. Percent of Rural Women in Selected Age Groups
$$
\cdot
$$
-





Percent



## (Figure 2.8. Percent of Urban Women in Selected Age Groups



Figure 2.9. ${ }^{-}$Sex Ratio of Population in Two Aga Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence


Rural


Urban
 100 women
Non-Arab countries $]_{120}^{140}$

Figure 2.10. Percent of Women Liאing in Urban Areas: Latest Two Censuses

Earlier Lader census consus $\because$ Percent

Percent

$\begin{array}{cc}\text { 1raq } \\ 1965 / 77 & \text { Jordan } \\ & 1961\end{array}$
©

6
Arab countries
Western South Asia


Table 2.1. Total Population, by Sex, and Sex Ratio
(Adjusteq pqpulation in thousands. Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)



WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


## l Males, per 100 females.

${ }^{2}$ Unadjusted population; adjusted figures not available.
3Unadjusted figures which refer to, residents of the East Bank only. Since 1967 the West Bank, including East Jerusalem, has been occupied by israel. Unless noted otherwise, all figures in subsequent, tables pertain to East Bank residents only.
${ }^{4}$ Adjusted November survey data moved to beyinning. of year. Figures exclude Palestinian refugees living in camps

SUnadjusted preliminary figures which exclude nationals living abroad and approximately 210,000 frontier nomads. Adjusted figures not available.

6 Adjusted figures based on a 3 ipercent sample of census returns. "Final adjusted total figure $(4,519,593)$ includes 48,602 persons residing in areas not covered by the census and 137,141 persons omitted in areas covered by the census.
$7_{\text {During the }} 1976$ census of Cyprus, only the population in the government-controlled area was enumerated. The population in the Turkish-occupied part of Cyprus was estimated on the basis of a Greeks-to-Turks ratio established in the last full census. The 1976 census figures presented in this and subsequent tables are adjusted figures for the whole island.

8 Refers to the settled population only, excluding an estimated $2,500,000$ nomads; estimated. figures for nomads are not available by sex.

GUnadjusted. An adjusted total shows, a population of $34,751,000$ for 1976 ; adjusted figures are not available' by sex.

Table 2.2. Estimates and Projections of Midyear Population: 1960 to 1985


Note: Discrepancies between the population totals shown in this table and those in table 2.1 are explained primarily, by the different gates during the year to which the data refer and oy the inclusion of estimaded nomadic and refugee populations. Population totals in table 2.1 refer to the respective census dates for each country, while those, in table 2.2 all refer. to July 1 .

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983.

Table 2.3. Percent of Female Population in Selected Age Groups
(Percentayes do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)



[^6]

Table 2.5. Sex Ratios of Population in Selected Age Groups
(Males per 100 females)


Table 2.6. Percent of Rural Female Population in Selected Age Groups
(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories). ;

| Region and country | - | $\begin{array}{r} \text { Pre- } \\ \text { school } \\ \text { •aye } \end{array}$ | School age |  |  | Reproductive age | Working age | Elderly |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Year | 0 to 4 years | 5 to 9 years | $\begin{gathered} 10 \text { to } 14 \\ \text { years } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 15 \text { to } 19 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 15 to 49 years | 15 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
| NORTH AFRICA | \% |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Eyypt................... | 1976 | 14.9 | 13.0 | 12.8 | 9.2 | 44.9 | 54.7 | 4.2 |
| Morocco................. | 1971 | 16.9 | 16.2 | 12.3 | 8.4 | 42.4 | 49.8 | 4.8 |
| Tunisial. | 1975 | 18.0 | 15.1 | 12.1 | 10.6 | 44.1 | 51.7 | 3.0 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iraq ${ }^{\text {l }}$ A................. | 1977 | 20.1 | 17.7 | 11.7 | 7.8 | 38.3 | 45.8 |  |
| Lebanon................. | 1970 | 14.4 | 15.9 | 12.9 | 9.8 | 42.1 | 50:3 | 1. 6.3 |
|  | 1970 | 19.4 | 16.9, | 12.6 | 9.5 | 39.7 | 46.2 | 4.8 |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey.................. | 1975 | 13.0 | 14.3 | 13.1 | 10.2 | 44.0 | 52.3 | 5.4 |
| MIddLe south asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan 2............ | 1979 | 18.0 | 14.6 | 12. 4 | $10.6^{\circ}$ | 46.3 | 52.9 |  |
|  | 1976 | 17.5 | 16.6 | 12.2 | 10.1 | 43.1 | 50.4. | $3.4{ }^{-}$ |

Table 2.7. Percent of Rural Male Population in Selected Age Groups
(Percentages do not add to 100.0 because of overlapping categories)


## ‘. 34




## Table 2.8. Sex Ratios of Rural Population in Selected Age Groups

(Males per 100 females)

| Region and country | - | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pre- } \\ \text { school } \\ \text { aye } \end{gathered}$ | School aye |  |  | Reproductive aye | Working age | Elderly |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Year | 0 to 4 years | 5 to 9 years | 10 to 14 years | 15 to 19 years | 15 to 49 years | 15 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
| NORTH 'AFrica |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Eyypt.................. | 1976 | 101.4 | 108.3 | 115.5 | 122.4 | 100.5 | 99.4 | 88.2 |
| Morocco................ | 1971 | 101.6 | 105.3 | 121.3 | 114.4 | 93.7 | 96.1 | 117.4 |
| Tunisial................ | 1975 | 103.6 | 104.6 | 108.0 | 108.2 | 97.5 | 100.9 | 138.7 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iray ${ }^{1}$. | 1977 | 106.8 | 112.2 | 115.0 | 71.1 | 91.4 |  |  |
| Lebangn | 1970 | 106.2 | H02.9 | 110.2 | 109.5 | 100.1 | 100.9 | 106.5 |
| Syria. | 1970 | 106.8 | 109.0 | 113.4 | 100.8 | 96.5 | 97.7 | 107.3 |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey. | 1975 | 104.1 | 105.2 | 111.3 | 99.2 | 95.4 | 96.0 | 94.0 |
| midole south asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2}$. | 1979 | 104.7 | 103.2 | 104.5 | 103.9 | 104.2 | 104.9 | 136.0 |
|  | 1976 | 110.6 | 108.9 | 108.3 | 88.9 | 91.5 | 96.2 | 121.0 |
| 1 Based on unadjusted data.2 Refers to the settled population only. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 2.9. Percent of Urban Female Population in Selected Age Groups
(Percentages do not add to 100.0 bectuse of overlapping categories)

${ }_{2}$ Based on unadjusted data.
${ }^{2}$ Refers to the settled population only.

Table 2.10. 'Percent of Urban Male Population in Selected Age Groups
(Percentayes do not add to 100.0 because of óverlapping categories)


Tablé 2.11. Sex Ratios of Urban Population in Selected Age Groups
(Males per 100 females)


WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


[^7]
## Table 2.12. Percent of Population Residing in Urban Areas, by Sex, and Female/Maie Ratio of Percent Urban: Latest Two Censuses

| Region and country | Years | Earlier census |  |  |  | Later census |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Percent urban |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} F / M \\ \text { ratio } \\ \text { (male }= \\ 1.00) \end{array}$ | Percent urban |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} \mathrm{F} / \mathrm{M} \\ \text { ratio } \\ \text { (male }= \\ 1.00 \text { ) } \end{array}$ |
|  |  | Both sexes | Female | Male |  | Both -sexes | Female | Male |  |
| NORTH.AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alyeria........... | 1966 | 38.8 | 38.9 | 38.6 | 1.01 | (NA) | $\therefore(N A)$ | (NA) | (NA) |
| Eyypt............. | 1966/76 | 41.2 | (NA) | (NA) | $\therefore$ (NA) | 43.8 | 43.4 | 44.1 | 0.98 |
| Morocco........... | 1960/71 | 29.3 | 29.6 | 29.1 | . 1.02 | 35.0 | 35.8 | 34.3 | . 1.04 |
| Tưnisia........ | 1966/75 | 40.1 | 39.6 | 40.6 | 0.98 | 49.8 | 50.1 | 49.6 | 1.01 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA | $\because$ |  |  | , |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  | - |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  | ? |
| Iraq............. | .1965/77 | 51.4 | 50.8 | 52.0 | 0.98 | 63.7 | 63.0 | 64.4 | 0.98 |
| Jordan ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | 1961 | 43.9 | 42.6 | '45.1 | $\therefore 0.94$ | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA). |
| Lebanon | 1970 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | 60.1 | 60.2 | 60.1 | 1.00 |
| \$yria ${ }^{1} . . . . . . . . . .$. | 1960/70 | 36.9 | 36.8 | 37.0 | 1.00 | 43.5 | 43.1 | 43.9 | 0.98 |
| Yemen (Sanaa)..... | 1975 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | 11.6 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA)., |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cyprus. | 1960 | 35.9 | 35.5 | 36.3 | $0.98{ }^{\circ}$ | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | $\therefore$ (NA) |
| Turkey............. | 1970/75 | 35.7 | 33.7 | 37.8 | 0.89 | - 41.4 | 39.8 | 42.9 | 0.93 |
| MIDULE SOUTH,ASIA |  |  | . |  |  | . |  |  | , |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2} . . \therefore .$. | 1979 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | 15.1 | 14.9 | 15.4 | 0.97 . |
| Iran ${ }^{1} . . . . . . . . . . .$. | 1966/76 | 38.0 | 37.8 | 38.2 | 1.00 | 47.0 | 46.3 | 47.8 | $0.97{ }^{\circ}$ |

[^8]
## Table 2.13. Percent of Female Population Residing in Urban Areas, by Selected Age Groups

| Reyion and country | Year | Preschool age | School age |  |  | Reproductive age | Workiny age | Elderly |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 0 to 4 years | 5 to 9 years | 0 to 14 years | to 19 years | 15 to 49 years | 15 to 64 years | 65 years and over |
| NORTH AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Egypt | 1976 | 39.4 | 39.8 | . 43.8 | 49.2 | 46.8 | 45.6 | 36.5 |
| Morocco,................ | 1971 | 32.6 | 34.2 | 38.9 | 41.8 | 37.6 | 37.0 | 30.4 |
| Tunisial................ | 1975 | 43.4 | 48.1 | 53.3 | 52.8 | 51.9 | 51.6 | 53.5 |
| WESTERH SOUTH ASIA Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iraqi. | 1977 | 60.9 | 61.2 | 65.3 | 67.7 | 64.9 | $64.1{ }^{1}$ | 60.6 |
| Lebanon................. | 1970 | 59.2 | 58.8 | 60.0 | 61.3 | 62.4 | 61.9 | 50.1 |
| Syrial................... | 1970 | 40.9 | 42.7 | 44.6 | 43.8 | 44.4 | 44.0 | 39.3 |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey................. | 1975 | 32.7 | 36.3 | 37.6 | 43.6 | 44.3 | 43.4 | 34.2 |
| MIUDLE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afyhanistan ${ }^{2}$ | 1979 | 14.9 | 14.9 | 14.9 | 14.4 | 14.9 | 14.9 | 14.9 |
| - Iran¹................... | 1976 | 41.0 | 42.7 | 47.6 | 50.0 | 48.9 | 48.5 | 47.0 |
| l Based on unadjusted data.2 Refers to the settled population only. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Table 2.14. Percent of Population Non-National, by Sex, and Sex Ratios of Nationals and Non-Nationals



Table 2.15. Intercensal Growth Rate of National and Non-National Population, by Sex, for Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Syria (In percent)


- , . . . , ,

Data on literacy, school atrendance, and-oducational attainment are essential measures of the situation of women. This chapter discusses the conceptual and methodological problems associated with these data and presents statistics from the WID Data Base and observations from other available sources.

## Quality and Availability of Data

Literacy. Definitions of literate persons used in censuses and surveys vary, but the essential ingredient used throlighout is a measure of the ability to read and write in some fanguage. For example, in the 1977 Algerian census, literacy is defined as the ability to read and write in any language; in the 1978.jranian census, it is defined as the ability to read and write a simple text in any language, to be students at least in the first yotr of elementary school, or to be persons in adult education or literacy campaign classes. The 1979 Jordanian census defined literacy as the ability to read and write in any language. In tha 1970 Population Active Survey of Lebanon, persons who had ever attended school or who knew how to read and write were considered literate. In each case, the beseline requirement is the ability to read and write regardless of whether the person' has formally attended school.

Several problems exist with respect to the measurement of litgracy. First, literacy tests are time consuming and, in many cases, must be done in more than one languabe. For this reason, literacy is often measured by means of seff-reporting rather then by a formal literacy test. Second, since school attendance does not automatically guarantee the achievement of literacy, there will be an overestimation of literacy when all persons who ever attended school are considered fiterate. Third, the knowledge of the written language and the purpose for which it waskegned can be quite different. Rote learning of the Koran or other O jious books while attending the traditional Kuttab of religious
school may rasult in a person baing labeled as literate when there may be little transference of this specialized knowledge into everyday reading requirements associated with contracts, proclamations from govermments or schools, or instructions on drug labels or other products.

Data on literacy are available from censuses in the region for the population age 10 years and over. For 9 of the 14 countries included in this analysis, literacy data ware available also by rural/urben residence, age, and sex.

Age-specific estimates of literacy, by sex, are particularily important because of the significant amount of change that has occurred since the late 1950 's in the educational systems of these countries. Significant improvements in female and male literacy are reflected in the substantially higher iteracy rates among younger persons when compared to those of older persons. Femaie illiteracy rates are especially difficult to interpret when age is not considered because in some countries virtually all women were illiterate 20 years ago, while today almost all literate woden afe under 30 or 35 . years of age.

School enrolment. Unlike literacy, school enroilment is a measure of program use, and deta collection can be conducted through the school system or through individual reporting. There is, unfortunately, no single data source that ideally measures schoot enrollment, and unique problems are associated with the use of each available source. The WID Data Base relies primarily upen estimates of enrollment derived from census data, with some data based on aggregeted annual reporting of school attendance and some national survey date on school attendance.

The level of school enrollment reported for any particular country or subregion is determined partially by the time of year the data are collected. When enrollment rates are based upon aggro-minm gated registration data compiled at the beginning of the school yeas, they are likely to be significantly higher than rates which
would have been recorded at the middle or end of the school year. This is because of the serious dropout problem in many areas or among particular subgroups of the population. Patterns of school attendance are not necessarily reflected in schopl enroliment rates. Student absenteeism, seasonal requirements. of children to work in agriculture or at home, epidemics and illnesses, transportational problems especially in poor or rainy weather, political unrest, and teacher shortages and absenteeism all contribute to substantial reductions in the number of children attending school even though the children are registered as students and are counted as enrolled.

The use of multiple sources of data for estimeting sctiool enroilh ment rates further complicates international comparisons. There are problems associated with the degree of consistency between estimates of school enrollment based on census data and data reported annually by educational institutions (Johnston and $O^{\prime}$ Brien, 1981). Among 57 countries for which both census and aggregated institutional data were available, 36 had data that were in relatively good agreement (ibid., 1981, p. 5). Unfortunately, gender differences in the quality of data from the two sources were not compared, primarily because institutional reportage of school attendance does not iypically differentiate between the sexes.

A statistical assessment is needed of gender differences in school dropouts and grade repetition to qualify the findings on school enrollment and provide international comparisons which: take into consideration not only the comparative levels of enrollment for girls and boys but also the schools' ability to keep and graduate students.

Difficulties or complications arising in international comparisons of school enrollment, by sex, can be summarized as those that are due to:

1) differences in the number of years required to graduate from school, or in the age at which one starts school;
2) significant overcounting or underreporting of enrollment by educational institutions owing to data collection systems that are highly variable in quality;
3) markedly different school completion rates occurring for women and men even when sex-specific enrollment rates are similar, owing to significant gender differences in dropout and repetition rates; and
4) substantially different enrollment rates occurring in public and private schools which can significantly affect the level

- of enrollment for countries that do not collect data on both school systems; for example, in Lebanon it is estimated that before the outbreak of fighting in 1975-76, 60 percent of the students were enroifed in private schools IUNECWA, 1980, p. 8-14). The inclusion or exclusion of private schoois from estimates of overall school enrollment can substantially change the estimates, especially if one of the school systems is sex-segregated.

The WID Data Base has age specific school enrollment data for 6 of the 14 countries in the analysis (Morocco, Tunisia, Clorden, Lebanon. Afghanistan, and Iran). These six countries
also provide data by runahurban residence. In addition, estimates of female and total enfollment for Egypt, Iraq. Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen (Sanaa), Cyprus, and Turkey are available in UNESCO (1977a).

Athough data were not compiled in the WID Data Base on school dropouts and repeaters, this subject is briefly addressed and some relevant' literature reviewed.

The study of edilcational "wastage," as it is generally called, is hampered by indidequate data, even though the methodologies designed for the analysis of school wastage are quite sophisticated. One method of estimating the effects of repetition and dropouts upon educational performance is through the calculation of pupil-years of school required in order to graduate a person from primary, secondary, or somie other level of sthool. In order to make such estimates, analysts must either have access to actual school ćchort data or derive synthetic cohorts of students from cross-sectional survey data. The years of school ${ }^{1}$ attendence are standardized through life table techniques in order to estimate the total number of student-months or student-years of attendance necessary to graduate one person. For ạ reviéw of this and other methods devised for the estimation of school wastage, see UNESCO (1980).'

Educational attainment. The educational attainment of women is often estimated by censuses and national surveys. Yet, ' ${ }^{\prime}$... the fact that women are restricted either by choice or social customs to particular streams of education is not clearly brought out by cenisus data" (United Nations, 1980). Data on the number of years of school completed, or on school level completed or last attended, must be supplemented by survey and school cur-* riculum data assessing sex-biased curricula and educational streaming, by sex. Recommendations for statistical measures that might be used to examine female educational attainment are discussed by Youssef (United Nations, 1984b). Youssef noted that educational attainment or school completion data are reasonably sensitive measures of gender differences in attrition becatise they directly measure differences in the amount of education completed by individuals, rather than relying upon the more indirectgeasures of institutional reports of program use.

Data collected on educational attainment are not always comparable because attainmerit can be measured in several different ways, for example, number of years of school completed, number of years of school ever attended, highest level of school eworattended, or highest level of school ever completed. Some national census and survey data will be examined to illustrate the kinds of information available on this subject.

## Findings

$n$
Literacy. Table 3:1 and figure 3.1 show that in every country for which data are available, proportionately fewer women than men are literate. Literacy sates among women vary from a low of 2 percent in Yemen (Sanaa) to a high of 85 percent in Cyprus. Cyprus is the only country in the region to exhibit a literacy rate

[^9]for women above 60 pericent. Literacy rates for men vary.from 22 percent in Afghanistan to $\mathbf{9 6}$ percent in Cyprus. The low levels of female literacy found in Yemen (Sanaa) and Afghanistan are remarkable when compared with levels of literacy in the other countries.

There are significant gender differences in the literacy rates of rural and urban areas. The female/male ratios of the percent literate for rural and urban areas presented in table 3.1 indicete that in the rural areas of liaq in 1977, the literacy rate for women was only 12 percent as high as the rate for men, while inurban areas, it was 55 percent as high. Jhis pattern is typical of the region, although the degree of difference between the urban and rural female/male ratios varies. Figure 3.2 compares the literacy rates of women and men, by rural/urban residence.
The general finding with regard to rural/urben differentials is thet rural women are the least likely to be literate, and urban men the most likely. For example, in Tunisia, 16 percent of rural women and 72 percent of urben men are literate, while literacy rates of rural men and urban women are 46 and 48 percent, respectively.

In addition to sex. age is a significant factor affacting literacy rates. Younger persons are more literate than older personis, and young men are more literate than young women (see table 3.2 and figure 3.3). Some 36 percent of Syrian women age 15 to 24 years are literate compared to 78 percent of Syrian men in this age group. However, over though young Syrian women have suhstantially lower rates of literacy than do young men, the literacy rates of women ages 15 to 24 years are much higher than the rates for women age 35 years and over, 36 versus 8 percent, respectively. Significant refarms and expansion in the educational systems of most countries have resulted in substantially higher literacy rates for younger than older people. Figure 3.3 shows the higher literacy rates for younger persons, especially for younger males. Rates for women age 15 to 24 years are similar to the rates for men age 35 years and over, suggesting that after approximately 25 years of reform, young women are achieving the literacy levels of men who were in the educational system some 20 years ago.
Tables 3.3 and 3.4 illustrate the way that rural and urban female literacy rates are evolving across the age groups. Each successively younger age group has higher literacy than its .predecessor. In most cases, improvemenis are substantial in both rural and urban areas but, even among younger women, literacy continues to be more prevalent in the cities. In Tunisia, among rural womenage 35 years and over, fewer than 1 percent were literate. as compared to 7 percent of urben women in this age group. Among Tunisian women age 15 to 24 yesrs, 28 percent were literate in rural and 77 percent in urban areas. This is a 28 point increase in female literacy rates in rural areas over the last few decades and a 70 point increase in urban areas.

In general, more young urban women than young rural women are literate. In every country with data, young urban men (table 3.5) have the highest literacy rates and young rural women the lowest (tables 3.4 and 3.5 ). The following table shows the ratio of the percent literate for rural and urban women and for rural men áge 15 to 24 years to the percent jiterate for urban men I hese ages in selected countries:


These data show, for example, that the literacy rate for rural women in Morocco is only 5 percent of the corresponding rate for urban men, whereas for urban women it is $\mathbf{6 2}$ percent of the rate for urban men.
'Another indicator used to measure the educational situation of women is the percent of the total literate population that is , female. Tables 3.6 and 3.7 show this measure by age and rural/urban residence for various countries. The female share of the literate population is lowest in rural areas, especially for women age 35 years or over. The exceptions ere Turkey and Lebanon, where the female share of literate persons is similar for rural and urban populations under age $\mathbf{3 0}$ years. Most of the improvement in literacy (again, with the exception of Turkey) has occurred among urban women, and the female share of the urban rate population is substantially higher than that in rural areas for age 15 to 24 years.

School enrollment. A lower proportion of women than men is enrolled in school at every age and for egch country (see table 3.8). Gender differences in the percent of young children envoiled in school differ least in Jordan and Lebanon, where schapl enrollment is highest. Lowest age-sex-specific enrollment rates are found in Afghanistan and Morocco, where the rates are especially low for rural women (see table 3.9). With the exception of Tunisia, the general trend is for a much greater proportion of children to be enrolled in schobl at age 10 to 14 years than at age 15 to 19 years.

Proportionately fewer urban females than males are enrolled in school at every age (see table 3.10). In addition, rural females are much less likely than rural males to be enrolled in school (see table 3.9). In urban areas, Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia, and Iran show substantially smaller differences between the sexes in regard to school enrollment than do Morocco or Afghanistan (see table 3.10). Without exception, query country shows markedly different rurai enrollment rates forgin's and boys, although Jordan and Lebanon do have large proportions of rural girls age 10 to 14 years enrolled in school.

Age-specific rural enrollment rates'for women in Mörocco and Afghanistan lag substanially behind those of other countries for which data are availabie. Iran and Tunisia are intermediate, and Jordan and Lebanon show relatively high enroliment rates in rural areas, especially for girls age 10 to 14 years. As expected, school
enrollment is higher among girls age 10 to 14 years than at any other age, in both rural and urban areas. These age-specific enroilment rates refer primarily to the early 1970's, and it is possible that further improvements in rural and urban female enroilment have been made since that time.

Table 3.11 and figures 3.7 and 3.8 present femala/male ratios of percent enrolled in school, by age and rural/urban residence. Even though famale/male enrollment ratios aca highest at age 10 to 14 years, they still favor boys in every country, especially in rural areas.

The female share of school enrollment (table 3.12) again reflects the trends noted in the enrollment rates and in the female/male ratios of enrollment rates. The female share of school enrollment is highest among urban girls under age 15 years, whth the exception of Lebanon, where the female share of enrollment is similarly high for rural and urban girls in this age groub.

Among countries with data, the female share of school enrollment for persons age 15 to 19 years in rural areas ranges from 5 to 34 percent. In urban areas, the range is from 28 to 46 percent. In each age group, the educational benefits of residing in an urban area are clear.

Educationial attanment. Educational attainment of the population age 10 years and over, by sex, nationality, age, and rural/urban residence is shown in table 3.13. Educational attainment in Saudi Arabia for 1974 was tabulated by nationality and sox, and in Syria for 1976 by rural/urban residence and sex. Age breakdowns, by sex, are available for Egypt in 1978. For Lebanon, 1970 data on educational attainment, by óccupation and sex, are available for persons who ever attended school, and the findings are discussed in chapter 4.

In Saudi Arabia, more than half of the entire population in 1974 was illiterate, and illiteracy rates were especially high ( 81 percent) forsaudi Arabian female nationais. Female non-nationals were better educated than female nationals. A higher percentage of female non-nationals are reported to have secondary degrees than are nationals of either sex or male non-nationais. Female nq́n-nationals are likely to have migrated to Saudi Arabia for work, and therefore to hold occupations such as teacher, clerk, secretary, receptionist, and so on, all of which typically require at least a secondary school diploma. Non-national men had the highest proportion ( 6 percent) of college or postsecondary training.

In Syria in 1976, the proportion of primary certificate holders ' is highest for urban men, simitar for rurel men and urban women, and lowest for rural women (table 3.13). The ranking of these population subgroups remains the same for intermediate and secondary school certificate holders and persons with university diplomas. although the percent of the population holding such degrees is much smaller than is the percent who hold primary school certificates.
in Egypt in 1976, age-specific rates of educational attainment reflect the significant increase in educational opportunity that has taken place in recent years. Gender differences in educational attainment, even among the younger population, however, remain substantial (see table 4.13).

- Educational attainment, by itself, is a powerful measure of access to schoois. Other important measures include estimates of sex-biased curricula and gender differences in educational wastage resuiting from sex differences in dropout and repeater rates. Curriculum differences in educational opportunity are suggested in data showifg female and male entollment by type of ,educational institution attended. School enrollment data for Yemen (Sanaa) in 19.74-75 (see table below) indicated that in preparatory and secondary schools, women receiving specialized educational training were enrolled solely in teacher training institutes, while men were, enrolled in a wider variety of educational institutions.

Persons Enrolled in Preparatory and Secondary Schools, by Sex and Selected Types of Training for Yemen (Sanaa): School Year 1974-75


Source: UNECWA; 1979c, table 14.5.

Dropping out and repeating. In a system where the expected amount of time required for a child to graduate from primary school is 6 years, in Egypt (1970-75) it takes an average of 8.2 years of primary school attendance for a girl io graduate arid an average of 7.0 years for a boy to graduate. In Algeria - (1970-75), it is estimated to take an average of 9.8 and 9.2 years of school attendance to graduate a girl and boy, respectively, from the 6-year school program (UNESCO, 1977). In Libya, it takes 7.1 and 6.7 years, for girls and boys, respectively, to graduate from primary school (UNESCO, 1977). These completion times are considergbly shorter than those found elsewhere in Africa during this same time period. For example, in Lesotho, comparable estimates are 14.7 years of attendance for girls, and 16.7 years of attendance for boys to graduate from a 7 -year primary school progfam. in Malawi, an average 23.8 girl schoofyears and 17.9 boy school-years of attendance are required to graduate a child from a 6-year primary school program (UNÉSCO, 1975). Sex differences in average pupil-years invested per primary school graduate are comparatively small for the obove-mentioned North African countries, when compared to most of Sub-Saharan Africa.

Other indicators used for international comparisions of educational wastage are the portion of students who graduate from school. those who graduete without ever repeating a year, and those who drop out before completing school. Table 3.14 shows these rates for primary school students based on cohort analyses of student populations in the various countries as estimated by UNESCO (1977).
With the exception of Saudi Arabia, the primary school dropout rates are much higher for girls than for boys. For example, the dropout rates in Iraq were 408 girls per 1,000 girl entrants and 295 boys per 1.000 boy entrants. In Jordan, where enrollment rates are similar for girls and boys, 209 girls and 137 boys per 1,000 entrants drop out of primary school. Ultimately, the similar • school enrollment ratios for girls and boys in. Jordan will be affected by the higher dropout rates for girls, thereby resulting in lower female educational attainment retes even when primary school enrollment rates are similar. In this casen the differences between the sexes in educational attainment are most likely ex-
plained by the dual forces of somewhat lower enroliment rates for girls and higher dropout rates for girls who do enroll. Table 3.14 shows that for every 1,000 enrollees of each sex in Syria, 748 girls and 821 boys graduate from primary school. If this loss were added to the additional loss incurred from the higher proportion of girls who never enroll, the differences in educational attainment would be substantial. When both of these negative forces upon school attainment ere known, a great deal of information can be gleaned about hational and regional educational systems.

Attempts have been made to analyze subregions within countries, with respect to educational enrollment and attainment. For example, see Maas and Criel (1982) for an interesting analysis examining the internal distribution of primary schoof enrollment, by sex of student, in countries of East Africa. Quite often, census enroilment data or school registration data would allow a similar analysis to be conducted for countries in North Africa and the Near East, but this is beyond the present analysis.

Figure 3.1. Percent Literate Among Women and Men Age 10 Years and Over




[^10]Figure 3.2. Percent Literate Ámong Women and Men Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/Urban Residence


'See footnotes to table 3.1 for monstandard age groups.

## Figure 3.3. Percent Literate for Women and Men by Age

Western South Asia and Middle South Asia


Figure 3.3. Percent Literate for Women and Men, by Age - Continued


Figure 3.4 Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate in Rural Areas, for Selected Age Groups


F/M ratio
F/M ratio
nale $=1.0$ )
$($ male $=1.0)$



- Female percent equats male percent.
${ }^{1}$ See table 3.3 for nonstandend age groupe.

Figure 3.5. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate in Urban Areas, for Selected Age Groups




[^11]Figure 3.6. Percent Enrolled in School Among Girls and Boys Age $\mathbf{1 0}$ to 14 Years



## Figüre 3.7.sFemale/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in Sghool in Rural Areas, for Selected Age Groups



F/M ratia


[^12]'See fontnotes to table 4.11 for nonstandard aqe groups.:

Figure 3.8. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School . . in Urban Areas, for Sefected Age Groups




F/M ratio $(\mathrm{male}=1.0)$


- Female percent equals male percent.
'See footnotes to table 3.11 for nonstancard age groups.


## Table 3.1. Percent Literate Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate



# Table 3.1. Percent Literate Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Literate-Continued 



See footnotes at end of table.

## Table 3.1. Percent Literate Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, and Female/Malé Ratio of Percent Literate-Continued



[^13]4hdsed on unadjusted 1972-73' survey data. Preliminary 1979 census data for the settled population age 5 years and over who were attending school or who had already completed the first yrade report the following percentages literate for both sexes, females, and males, respectively: for total country, 24,9 , and 37 percent; for rural areas, 20,6 and 34 percent; and for urban areas: 4?. 2 k , and 56 percent.

Note: bata for Eyypt in North Africa, and Cyprus, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen (Sanaa) in Western South Asia are not available by rural/urban residence.

Table 3.2. Percent Literate Among Population in Selected Age Groups, by Sex

${ }^{1}$ Sper tale 3.3 for percent literate by sex and selected age yroups.
2Based on unadjusted 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

Table 3.3 Percent Literate Among Population in Selected Age Groups, by Sex and Rural/Urban Residence, for Algeria, Jordan, and Lebanon

| 'Country, year, and age | Total |  | Rural |  | Urban |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| Algeria 1977 |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| 15 to 17 years.......... | 47.6 | 72.67 |  |  |  |  |
| 18 to 20 years.......... | 38.7 | 75.8 | - |  |  |  |
| 21. to 34 years......... | (NA) | (NA) |  |  |  |  |
| 35 to 39 years.......... 40 to 54 years........ | 7.2 | - 35.6 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |
| 40 to 54 years.......... | (NA). | (NA) |  |  |  |  |
| 55 to 54 years......... | 1.6 | 18.6 |  |  |  |  |
| Jordan 1974 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 to 19 years......... | 89.0 | 97.67 |  |  |  |  |
| 20 to 24 years.......... | 78.7 | 95.3 |  |  |  |  |
| 25 to 29 years......... | 64.0 | 93.0 |  |  |  |  |
| 30 to 34 years.......... | 49.0 | 89.7 |  |  |  |  |
| 35 to 39 years......... | 33.2 | 83.3 |  |  |  |  |
| 40 to 44 years......... | 22.2 | 73.0 \} | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |
| 45 to 49 years......... | 17.0 | 64.7 |  |  |  |  |
| 50 to 54 years.......... | 15.3 | 61.2 |  |  |  |  |
| 55 to 59 years.......... | 12.0 | 54.1 |  |  |  |  |
| 60 to 64 years.......... | 8.0 | 43.6 |  |  |  | 1 |
| 65 years and over...... | 4.9 | 27.6 |  |  |  |  |
| Lebanon 1970 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 to 19 years......... | 79.3 | 91.5 | 72.4 | 91.5 | 83.7 | 91.5 |
| 20 to 24 years........ | 71.4 | 89.0 | 62.7 | 88.0 | 76.5 | 89.6 |
| 25 to 29 years.......... | 62.2 | 84.8 | 51.7 . | 82.7 | 67.9 | 85.8 |
| 30 to 39 years......... | 48.7 | 75.0 | 33.8 | 68.8 | 57.4 | 78.4 |
| 40 to 49 yedrs.......... | 40.2 | 68.8 | 25.9 | 62.0 | 49.7 | 73.0 |
| 50 to 59 years......... | 33.2 | 64.6 | 19.5 | 54.9 | 42.2 | 70.7 |
| 60 years and over...... | 20.6 | 46.1 | 11.0 | 40.5 | 29.3 | 51.8 |

Table 3.4. Percent Literate Among Women in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence


[^14]
## Table 3.5. Percent Literate Among Men in Selected Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence

|  | Year or period | 1 | Rural |  | Urban |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Reyion and country |  | 15 to 24 years | $2 b$ to 34 years | 35 years and over | 15 to 24 . yéars | $\begin{aligned} & 2 b \text { to } 34 \\ & \text { years } \end{aligned}$ | 35 years and over |
| NOKTH AFKICA. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Murocco. | 1971 | 36.0 | 20.6 | 12.9 | 81.4 | 59.4 |  |
| Tunisia... | 1975 | 74.9 | 37.2 | 13.9 | 95.8 | 59.4 74.7 | 38.7 |
| WESTERN SUUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lebanon.. . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 1970 | 90.1 | 1 (NA) | ${ }^{1}$ (NA) | 90.6 | ${ }^{1}(\mathrm{NA})$ | 1 (NA) |
| Syrid..................... | 1970 | 72.7 | 57.7 | 31.0 | 84.6 | 80.7 | 57.0 |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey................... | 1970 | 81.8 | 72.4 | 45.7 | 92.7 | 88.6 | 72.8 |
| MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan 2 ( |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2} . . .$. . .t.... | 1972-73 | $30: 0$ | 15.8 | 11.9 | 53.6 | 42.8 | 34.2 |
| Irdn..................... | 1976 | 51.2 | 29.7 | 13.2 | 84.8 | 73.3 | 47.4 |

1 jee table 3.3 for percent literate amony men in selected aye groups. - ${ }^{2}$ based on unadjusted 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

# Table 3.6. Percent Female Among Literate Populatian, by Selected Age Groups and Rural/Urban Residence 

|  |  | Ṙural |  |  | Urdan |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Region and country | Year op period | $\begin{gathered} 15 \text { to } 24 \\ \text { years } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 25 \text { to } 34 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 35 years and over | 15 to 24 years | 25 to 34 years | 35 years and over |
| NORTH AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Morocco. | 1971 | 9.0 | 4.6 | 2.6 | 40.3 | 27.7 | 17.8 |
| Tunisia.. | 1975 | 26.7 | 13.3. | 3.0 | 44.8 | 37.8 | 15.5 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lebanon........ |  |  |  | 1 (NA) | 49.3 | ${ }^{1}$ (NA) | ${ }^{1}$ (NA) |
| Lebanon........ | 1970 | 17.0 | 11.1 | 5.1 | 40.3 | 33.2 | 21.8 |

Non-Arab countries


[^15]
## Table 3.7. Percent Female Among Literate Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence: Lebanon, 1970



Table 3.8. Percent of Population Enrolled in'School, by Age and Sex

|  | Women |  |  |  |  | Men |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Reyion and country | Year | $\begin{array}{r} 5 \text { to } \\ 9 \text { year's } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } \\ 14 \text { years } \end{array}$ | 15 to <br> 19 years | $\begin{array}{r} 20 \text { to } \\ 2.4 \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 5 \text { to } \\ 9 \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } \\ 14 \text { years } \end{array}$ | 15 t. 0 <br> 19 years | $\begin{array}{r} 20 \text { to } \\ 24 \text { years } \end{array}$ |
|  |  | - |  |  |  |  | , |  |  |
| NORTH AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Algeri | 1977 | ${ }^{1} 60.3$ | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | 181.0 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |
| Morocco'.. | 1971 | '15.0. | 24.8 | 12.3 | 2.4 | $28.8{ }^{\circ}$ | 46.3 | . 29.6 | 9.9 |
| Tunisia. | 1975 | 35.3 | . 65.5 | 59.7 | 45.5 | 47.9 | 87.4 | 86.9 | 82.6 |
| WESTERN SUUTH ASIA. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jordan. | 1975 | . 65.0 | 89.7 | 54.5 | 9.3 | 68.1 | 95.6 | 64.2 | 16.4 |
| Jordan.............. | 1974 | (NA)- | 77.5 | 38.2 | 8.8 | (NA), | 89.1 | 55.0 | 25.7 |
| Saudi Arabiaz ${ }^{\text {a }}$.... | 1974-75 | (NA) | - (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA). | (NA) | (NA) |
| - Yemen (Sana ${ }^{\text {3 }}$.... | -1975 | - (NA) | (NA) | , (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |
| MIDDLE SUUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 8.5 |  | 0.5 | 35.9 | 50.6 | 26.6 | 6.5 |
| Afyhanistan ....... |  | -560.5 | 8.5 54.7 | 25.8 | 6.3 | 580.3 . | 80.4 | 47.0 | 14.0 |
| Mran. ....:......... | 1976 | 50.5 | 54.7 | 25.8 | 6.3 | 80.3 |  |  |  |

${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 6 to 14 years.
2enroliment data for $1974 / 75$ indicate that 19.2 percent of women and 35.5 percent of. men age 5 to 24 years were enrolled in school.

3preliminary census results for 1975 indicate that 3.2 , percent of women.and. 26.0 percent, of men , age 5 to 24 years were enrolled in school.
${ }^{4}$ Kefers to the settiled population only:
$5_{\text {Refers to }}$ age 6 to' 9 years.

Table 3.9. Percent of Rural Population Enrolled in School, by Age and Sex

| Reyion and country | Year | Women |  |  |  | Men |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | sto <br> 9 years | 10 to <br> 14 years | $1 b t o$ 19 years | 20 to 24 years | $\begin{array}{r} 5 \text { to } \\ \text { gyears } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } \\ 14 \text { years } \end{array}$ | 1b.to <br> 19 years | 20 to <br> 24 years |
| Nurth africa |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alyeria.. | 1977 | 141.5 | (NA) |  | (A) |  |  |  |  |
| Morocco. | 1971 | 11.5 3.0 | (NA) 4.3 | (NA) | ( ${ }^{(A)}$ | 172.6 18.8 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |
| Tunisia..........s. | 1475 | 19.4 | 38.7 | 34.4 | 042 | 18.8 | 29.4 | 17.9 | 5.8 |
| Thas. |  | 19.4 | 38.7 | 34.0 | . 20.6 | 39.0 | 76.7 | 77.0 | 70.7 |
| WLSTERN SUUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jordan............ | 1475 |  |  |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |
| Lebanon........... , | 1970 | (NA) | 75.1 | 33.7 | 2.9 | 63.7 | 94.5 | 58.6 | 13.2 |
| Ledanon.e......... , | 1970 | (NA) | 75.7 | 31.2 | 5.7 | (NA) | 90.1 | 55.3 | 21.1 |
| MIDULE Suljth asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2}$. | 1979 | 8.2 | 4.7 |  |  | $34{ }^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Iran............. | 1976 | 342.5 | 4.7 30.2 | 1.2 6.7 | 0.1 1.2 | 34.4 73.0 | 48.0 69.0 | 23.5 | 5.1 |
| ${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 6 to 14 years. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{2}$ Refers to the settled population only. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 Reters to age 6 to 9 years. ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 3.10. Percent of Urban Population Enrolled in School, by Age and Sex

| Region and country | Year | Women |  |  |  | Men |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 5 to 9 years | 10 to 14 years | 15 to 19 years | 20 to 24 years | $\begin{array}{r} 5 \text { to } \\ 9 \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } \\ 14 \text { yeárs } \end{array}$ | 15 to <br> 19 years | 20 to <br> 24 years |
|  |  |  |  |  | ? |  | - |  |  |
| NORTH AFRICA . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alyeria............ | 1977 | 184.7 | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | ${ }^{1} 92.5$ | $)$ (NA) | (NA) |  |
| Alyeria............ Morocco.......... | 1971 | 38.2 | 57.1 | 27.4 | 6.0 | 49.1 | 79.9 | $49.4$ | $\begin{aligned} & 17.0- \\ & 93.8 \end{aligned}$ |
| Tunisia........... | 1975 | 52.5 | 88.9 | 82.7 | 69.0 | 57.4 | 97.3 | 96.3 | 93.8 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\cdots$ |  |  |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA . . . . . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jordan............. | 1975 | 68.8 | 94.4 | 62.1 | 11.6 | 70.1 | 96.1 | 66.2 | 17.7 |
| Lebanon............ | 1970 | (NA) | 78.7 | 42.5 | 10.7 | (NA) | 88.4 | 54.9 | 28.3 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | , |  |
| MIDULE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2} \ldots .$. | . 1979 | - 22.6 | - 29.9 | 18.7 | 3.2 | 44.4 | 65.8 | 44.4 | 13.7 |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Iran............an. | . 1976 | 384.3 | 81.7 | 45.0 | 11.3 | 390.3 | 92.5 | 63.6 | 20:8 |

[^16]Table 3.11. | Female/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School, by Age |
| :--- |
| and Rural/Urban Residence |
| $(M d y=1.00)$ |

| Residence, region, and <br> country |
| :--- |

North afrICA


Rural
NORTH AFRICA


MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA


Table 3.11. Femaie/Male Ratio of Percent Enrolled in School, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence-Continued
(Male $=1.00$ )


[^17]
## Table 3.12. Percent Female Among Enrollad Populationt ${ }^{\text {fiby }}$ Age and Rural/Urban Residence



[^18]
## Table 3.13 Percent of Population, by Literacy/Level of Education and Selected Characteristics, for Egypt, Saudi Arabla, and Syria

| Country, year, and literacy/level of education | , |  | Age and: sex |  |  |  | , |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 15 to 24 years |  | 25 to 34 years |  | 35 to 44 years |  | $45^{\circ}$ to 54 years |  |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |

Egypt 1976


Nationality and sex
Saudi Arabial , 1974"i

Total............................


Rural/urban residence and sex
Syria $19 / 6$

Rural



I Refers to age 10 years and over.
Sources: For Egypt, UNECWA, l98Ua, table 4.1U; for Saudi Arabia, UNECWA, 1979, table 11.6; for Syrid, UNECWA, lqunb, table 12.11.

## Table 3.14. Primary School Dropout and Graduation Rates, by Sex: 1970-75 (kates per 1,000 entrants)

| Keyion and country | Uropped out |  | Graduated |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Total |  | Without repeating |  |
|  | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girl's | Boys |
| NURTH AFKICA |  |  |  |  |  | - |
| Alyeria | 389 | 338 | 611 | 662 |  |  |
| Egypt | 377 | 171 | 623 | 829 | 441 | 589 |
| WESTERIN SUUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iray | 408 | 295 | 592 | 705 | 165 | 183 |
| Jordan | 209 | 137 | 791 | 863 | 595 | 667 |
| Syria ${ }^{\text {Saudi Aratio }}$ | 252 | 179 | 748 | 821 | 433 | 467 |
| Saudi Arabia | 195 | 251 | 805 | 749 | 305 | 172 |

Note: Data reter to $1970-75$ life table estimates of dropout and graduation rates prepared by UNESCO for each country.

## -

Chapter 4

## Econonnic Accivivicy

The purposes of this chapter are to: (1) review available censús and national survey data in the WID Data Base for measuring women's economic activities, (2) discuss the strengths and inadequacies of census and national survey estimates of women's labor force participation in the Near East and North Africa, and (3) recommend ways in which the inadequacies identified may be at least pertially resolved through the refinement of measures used to depict women's economic activities.

## Quality and Availability of Data

Estimates of the total number of women who are economically active are inadequately derived from census data (Doctor and Gallis. 1964; Boserup, 1975; United Nations, 1980 and 1984a; Lattes and Wainerman, 1982; and Jamison and Baum, 1982).
Compared to special purpose surveys on economic activity, censuses are methodologicaliy weak when used to collect data on female $\rho$ conomic activities in the agricultural sector and to count unpaid family workers (Lattes and Wainerman, 1982; and United Nations, 1984a and 1984b). Census underenumeration of workers in the agricultural sector and of women and men who are unpaid family workers is especially prevalent in countries where economic activities are frequently conducted in the home and are therefore not clearly differentiated from gther household responsibilities (Boserup. 1975; Dixon, 1982; and Lattes and Wainerman, 1982). This is undoubtedly the case in large parts of the Near East and North Africa. (Ahdab-Yehia, 1977; Dixon. 1982: Chamie. 1983). Underenumeration of work's economic activities alao occurs when work is seasonal or sporadic and when rigid time estimates of work are required by enumerators. especially when the economic activities of women are mixed with domestic chores rather than clearly defined as either work or domestic acrivities Under such confusing conditions, more ctalized survey techniques, such as time-use súrvgys, are re-
quired to sort out the various work and nonwork activities of women. Conceptual problems in the definition of wark, sex biases in the questions used and in the reporting systems designed to measure work, as well as inadequate training of enumerators, further complicate the measurement of women's oconomic activities using census data (United Nations, 1980).
For exampla, questions and probes used in censuses and largescale surveys need to be posed very carefully in order to ensure their validity and reliability. During a survey of the labor force in Syria, men were initially asked whether their wives worked. A large proportion said that they did not. When asked whether they would be forced to hire a replacement were the wife to stop assisting them in their work, the overwhelming answer was yes.' Similarly, responses te questions about women's economic activities in Kenya were found to be sensitive to the way in which specific questions were worded. Anker and Knowles (1978) found that estimates of adult female activity rates in their Kenya study varied from abou: 20 percent when the word "job" was used to about 90 percent when the word "work" was used. Such findiņgs suggest the need for careful wording of socially appropriate expressions for work and for careful pretesting priorto instituting large-scale surveys intended to measure labor force participation.

Partial activity rates. Even the most critical analysts of the use of census estimates recommend that findings from censuses can be utilized to estimate the changing status of women's economic. activity, provided that the estimates are used with considerable caution and with modification (Boserup, 1975; and Lattes and Wainerman, 1982). The lack of other data bases, especially for a historical analysis of women's work patterns, compals one to

[^19]do so. Recognition of census weakness has resulted in the intro duction of refinements to estimates of women's work derived from cenșuses. One important modification for the analysis of economic activity rates is a calculation based on the number of women who work in the modern sector (Doctor and Gallis', 1964; Boserup, 1975: and Lattes and Wainerman, 19821. This partial activity rate is an estimate of the number of women having clear and regular work patterns typical of nonagricultural work and includes women, working in professional, technical, managerial, and administrátive occupations as well as salaried office workers, wage-earning salepersons, and nonagricuttural wage earnars. Excluded from the modern sector partial activity rates are unpaid family workers and all other non-wage-earners who are economically active, as well as agricultural laborers and wage earners whose earnings are not recognized by governments or whose earnings are illegal and therefore go unreported. The purpose of the partial activity rate is to analyze those portions of census data that offer the most valid and reliable observations of women's work status.

An analysis by Jamison and Baum (1982) compared partial activity rates with total economic activity rates of women and concluded that increases in the partial activity rate, or the percent of women in the modern sector, is unquestionably a betteri indicator of the improved status of womenthan is the total economic activity rate. This conclusion was based upon the finding that for a number of countries in the WID Data Base, census estimates of partial activity rates correlated more highly with other indicators of the improved status of women than did total activity rates. These other indicators included literacy rates,. school enroilment rates, total fertifity rates, and estimates of contraceptive use. Lattes and Wainermen (1982) indicated that the only partial activity rate producing a ranking of countries with regard to the status of women participating in the labor force that was similar to the rate of women working in modern occupations, is the partial activity rate of female wage earners.

Women's work which does not conform to "modem sector." The significant loss of information about women who are rural agricuitural laborers, who are unpaid family workers on farms, who help manage family owned businesses, or who protace essential goods or services while in the home environment, results in the view that partial activity rates are essentially indicators of the extent to which women's economic activities conform to industrial work patterns. Women's and men's economic activites that go uncaptured by census reportage, primarily because they do not conform to the Western industrialized definitwo sf "work." are greatly in need of research and require more focused highly specialized survey luchiques in order to be measured properly. The status of women working outside of the modern sector. their economic and social returns from their work. and the ways in which thgír work might be upgraded or better integrated with the modern sector need careful assessment. As long as a large part of women's economic activities remains primarly outside of the modern sector, or at least unmeasured and therefore largely unrecognized, their work remains unpro tected by legistation on such factors as social security, work benefits. matermiy leave, sick leave, compensation for work
injuries, fair wages, and opportunities for further specialization. A significant proportion of women who work throughout the Near East and North Africa are believed to be outside the boundaries of work legislation and regulation.

Approaches to the analysis of women's economic activities are, therefore, at least two-dimensional. The first dimension requires an analysis of the way in which the traditional economic activities of women are conducted; the second is the study of the degree to which women are integrated into the "modern" economic sector. Both of these dimensions must take intò consideration the changing sociosconomic conditions prevalent throughout much of the region, such as oil-exporting economies, heavy emigration of men to the Gulf for work, high rates of urbanization, governmental intervention into the educational and

- health systems, and the redefinition of educational credentials required for legal recognition of members of the work force in health, business, medicine, agriculture, and education occupations. Censuses are more prepared to cope with an analysis of the latter than of the former dimension.

The data presented in the WID Data Base do not provide sufficient information for an analysis of modern sector participation rates, but some analysis of occupation will be presented based on other sources.

In the Near East and North Africa, definitions of the - economically active population, for the most part, conform to the ILO standard. Even when definitions of the economically active population are clearly laid out by national statistical offices, there is some doubt as to the validity of the questions concerning work. Given that in most cases enumerators were. limited to a single question on work or simply to filling in a response to a heading for a row or column in the census questionnaire (allowing each enumerator to ad lib the question), the answers to the questions most likely refer to current work status.
With the exception of Lebanon in 1970, the WID data are from national censuses. In Lebanon, they are results of a special national household survey of the economically active population completed in November 1970. The findings of these censuses and survey will be supplemented by other relevant pieces of research whenever possible in order to highlight the status of working women in the region.

## Findings

Economically active population. Table 4.1 and figure 4.1 describe the total size of the labor force for persons age 10 years and over, by sex, for countries of the Near East and North Africa region. In contrast to the 6.8 million women identified as economically active in Turkey in 1980, 11.1 million men were reported to be economically active. In Iran, 1.4 million women. as opposed to 8.3 million men, were identified as economically active.

The percent of the labor force reported to be outside the ages 15 to 64 years was greater for women than men in every country. In Egypt in 1976, for example, 16 percent of economically active women and 11 percent of men were under age 15 years and over age 64 years. in Afghamistan. 17 percent of women and 11 percent of men were outside the ages 15 to 64 years.

Table 4.2 shows the labor force participation rates of women and men age 10 years and over for each of the countries. Turkey reported the highest labor force participation rate of women and Saudi Arabia the lowest. The labor force participation rates of men were substantially higher than those of women in every country. Few, if any, conclusions can be drawn from these comparisons, because the composition of the total econiomic activity rates is a result of many other factors not taken into account, for example, the age composition of the populations, the proportion of the populations that are rural, the proportion of persons attending school, and the definitions of economically active persons used by censuses. In Turkey, not only is the proportion of women in the labor force larger than in most other countries of the region, but census enumerators were instructed to include nearly all farmers' wives as members of the agricultural labor force (United Nations, 1980). ${ }^{2}$ In contrast to the Turkish reporting system, wives of farmers in Afghanistan were not automatically considered members of the labor force. Thus, the differences in women's participation rates between Turkey and Afghanistan are a result more of census rules on the counting of agricultural workers than of significant differences in the rates of rural women who worfin the agricultural sectors of these two countries.

Although information on the proportion of women active in modern occupations as a percent of all women age 15 years and over is not available for these two countries, inf nations where they are available there are differences in the female activity rates between all occupations and modern occupations. The following table shows the percent of women age 15 years and over who are economically active for all occupations and occupations in the modern sector:

| Country | Year | $\begin{array}{r} \text { All } \\ \text { occupations } \end{array}$ | Modern occupations |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tunisia | 1975 | 19.4 | 5.3 |
| Iran. | -1976 | 15.9 | 5.4 |
| Egypt | +1976 | 6.4 | 4.1 |
| Algeria | \% 1977 | 6.4 | 2.6 |

Source: Jamisan and Baum, 1982; table 1.

The values for all occupations are much greater than are values for modern occupations in these four countries. In addition, the differences in rank when comparing total activity rates largely disappear for Tunisia and Iran when observing the percent of women in modern occupations. Also, it seems that Egypt and Algeria focused their censuses upon the, reportage of nonagricultural workers and wage earners, since the difference between the activity rates of women for all occupations and for

[^20]- Althnugh the Uniferf Nations report relates to the $19: 75$ census of Tuikey, It is likely that the ermmerators' instructions were the same in 1980, as charges in womer's participetion tates were insignificant between the two O) وияяея
modern occppations is not very large. In any case, the degree qf diversity of women working in modern occupations for all four countries is not great, suggesting that few women work in modern aseupations and that a significant proportion of women workers are outside the modern economic sector. The study did not compile information from which comperisons could be made between the proportions of working women and men in modern occupations.
Table 4.3 and figure 4.3 show total labor force participation rates of women and men, by age. For 5 out of the 10 countries having age-specific deta (Lebanon, Jordan, Iran, Egypt, and Tunisia), the rates for women peak at age 20 to 24 years. In Iraq, they peak at age 30 to 34 years. Both Morocco's and Syria's rates peak at age 15 to 19 years, although the rates for Morocce are bimodal, with very young women (under age 20 years) and older women (age 55 to 59 years) showing the highest labor force participation rates. Turkey, for reasons mentioned earlier, reports high rates of female labor force participation at every age, and Afghanistan shows consistently low rates, probably as a result of underenumeration of women, age misreporting, and problems with census definitions of work.
In contrast to the age-specific labor force participation rates of women, men's age-specific rates are uniformly high after age 25 to 29 years, except in Tunisia, where they are somewhat lower then in other countries. In general, lower rates for women than men are observed in every country. This is clearly seen in table 4.4. which shows the female/male ratios of percent economically active in each age group. With the exception of children age 10 to 14 years, the female/male ratios are infavor of males at all ages. Figure 4.4 shows female/male ratios of làbor force participation rates for chifdren age 10 to 14 years, and for persons ages 20 to 24 years and 25 to 29 years. Among children, there were higher female/male ratios in Iraq, Lebianon, and Turkey. In contrast, for these same countries, female/malg ratios for ages 20 to 24 years and $\mathbf{2 5}$ to 29 years are subistar. tially lower.

Table 4.5 presents the percent of the labor force that is female, by age. At the time when males are least apt to be reported as economically active, the female share of the labor force is highest, that is, at age 10 to 14 years. The percent of the labor force that is female rapidily decines at every age thereafter. Even though the rate of labor force participation increases for women ages 15 to 19 years and 20 to 24 years in almost every country, the rate of increase is significantly higher for males, making the female share of the labor force substantially smaller in each subsequent age group.
Comparisons over time were possible for two countries. For Jordan (East Bank), data are available from the 1972 laborforce survey and the 1979 census, suggesting little change over time, or perhaps slight differences that may be attributable more to the differing measurement mechanisms than to actual changes over time. In Turkey, labor force participation rates of women declined at every age between 1970 and 1975 , suggesting that working women were either overestimated in 1970 or perhaps undercounted in 1975. Changes during the 1975 to 1980 period were small, with slight increases in some age groups counterbalanced by slight decreases in others.

Ruraturben differences. There is no uniform pattern in the labor force participstion rates of women by rural and urban residence (see tables 4.7 and 4.11). In Morocco and Lebanon, urban labor force participation rates of women are higher than rural rates. In Ireq, Syria, Turkey, and Iran, the opposite is true (see figure? 4.5). In all cases, the labor force participation rates of men are substantially higher than the rates of women for both rural and urban areas.

According to 1970 data for Turkey, differences between women and men are smaller in rural than urban areas; 72 percent of women and 86 percivim men in rúral areas were reported as economically active (see table 4.7). In urban areas, 11 percent of women and 70 percent of men were reported to be economically active (see table 4.11). Participation rates of urban women are significantly lower than those of rural women because no assumption is made about the economic activity of urban wives as is made for rural agricultural wives. In the remaining countries, women's rates are substantially lower than men's in both rural and urban areas. In all of the countries, the proportion of the labor force that is female does not approach 50 percent, with the exception of Turkey, where the female share of the labor force age 12 years and over is 48 percent in ruralarey. The definitional problems mentioned earlier relating to the interpretation of total labor force participation rates also apply when discussing rates for rural and urban areas.

The economic activity rates of rural and urban women and men, by age, are presented in tables 4.8 and 4.12. The pattern of female labor force participation rates which peak at age 20 to' 24 years contínues to be found for rural and urban Lebanon, and for urban Iran. Rural rates in Iran peak at age 15 to 19 years rather than at age 20 to 24 years. Morocco shows its first peak of female particfoation rates at age 15 to 19 years in rural areas and at agesp 5 to 24 years in urban areas. Again, Morocco's overall bimodal pattem was especially discernible in urban areas, where one-out of four women age 55 to 59 yearsxyas reported as economically active. In rural Morocco, there was also a bimodal pattern, again with more women ages 50 to 59 years being reported as working than at any other age. Irag reported that between one fourth and one third of all women in riral areas were economically active between the ages of 10 and 64 years, with the highest percentages occurring at ages 40 to 54 years. In urban Iraq, labor force!participation rates of women were highest at ages 25 to 34 yaiars. Syria reported female labor farce participation rates to be highest among women age 20 to 34 years in urban areas and among women age 10 to 24 years in rural areas the 1970 Turkish census reported high rural rates amony women at every age and lower urban rates, peaking at ages 20 to 24 years. There is little doubt that the lower urban rates of lat)or force participation across the age groups reflect, to a great extent, urban women who are working in the modern sector, ontsede of the thene, and whe are wage earners. The decomposition of economic activity by occupational and employment status, age. sex, and marital status for urban and rural areas would be very helpfal when explaining these various patterns of economic activity reported for women in ürban and rural areas.

Tables 4.9 and 4.13 show the female/male ratios of rural and Cuban activity rates, by age. Female/male ratios are usually
highest at age 10 to 14 years, and decline significantly thereafter for all countries with the exception of Turkey, where female/male ratios in rural areas remain quite high in every age group. Figure 4.7 shows the femaia/male ratios of urban and rural labor force participation rates for ages 10 to 14 and 20 to 24 years. For ; workers age 20 to 24 years, the ratios indicate substantially smaller proportions of women than men participating in the labor force in both rural and urben areas, with the exception of rural Turkey, where higher percentages of women aretreported as economically active, for reasons already mentioned.

Tables 4.10 and 4:14 show the percent of the rural and urban labor force that is female, by age. The largest female share appears at age 10 to 14 years, when male participation in'the labor force is lowest. Figure 4.8 shows the percent of the labor force that is female in rural and urban areas for ages 10 to 14 years and 20 to 24 years. For the younger groups in Iraq, Syria, Turkey, and lran, girls comprise a larger share of the labor force in rural than in urban areas. Morocco, on the other hand, reports a substantially higher share for girls in the urban than the rural labor force. In Lebanon, just,over half of both the rural and urban labor force age 10 to 14 years are girls. Although rural men are economically active at an earlier age than urban men, the rates for men are much higher tritith the rates for women at all ages between 20 and 64 years (see tables.4.10 and 4.14; and figure 4.8).

1

Women in agricultural labor force, Table 4.15 shows the estimated percent of the labor force in agridulture, by sex, and the female/male ratio of these percentages. The Arab countries of North Africa and Middle South Asia report proportionately fewer women than men in agriculture. Dixon (1982) noted wide fluctuations in the reporting of women agricultural workers ramong North African courtries. The 1966 Tunisian census excluded $250,000^{\circ}$ female unpaid family workers from the agricultural labor force, resulting in an agricultural labor force that was oniy 2 percent female. When these unpaid women were included in the agricultural labor force, women accounted for 38 percent of the total agricultural labor force, or the samte pro'portion that was estimated in the 1956 Tunisian census. Similar obseryations may be made for Algeria and Morocco (Dixon, 1982, p. 5421.
Arab countries in Western South Asian،show a reverse pattern to those in North Africa. A higher proportion of female than male labor force participants were in agriculture. Non-Arab Western South Asian countries also recorded higher percentages of female then male labor force participants in agriquiture. The female/male ratios of the percent in agriculture shown in table 4.15 also reflect these reported differences, with low femalehgale ratios of the percent of labor force in agriculture inNonin Aftan Arab countrios andin countries of Middla South. Asia, and high female/male ratios among Western South Asian countries. In in mind that the base of the percentages for women is much smailer than for men, that is, there are generally far fewer women than men in the labor force overall, and so a larger percentage of women in agriculture does not necessarily imply a larger actual
number of women. There is usually a larger actual number of men in agriculture just as there is a larger number in the labor force overail.
tmproving census eatimates. A recent article reviewed and compared the H.O published figures of the percent of agricultural labor force that is female, with figures derived from population censuses, FAO agricultural censuses, and labor force surveys (Dixon, 1982). For the 66 countries having both census and ILO estimates, the ILO estimates of the total agricultural labor force were higher than those based on population census and survey estimates. The " $\ldots$ averages of ILO rates for men are substantially'higher than census rates in all five regions, whereas 110 ras for women are substantially higher only in Asia' (Dixon, 1982, p. 547). The ILO estimates of women working in agriculture were especially conservative in the Near East and North Africa.

> There is evidence that women have been counted as at least one-third of the agricultural labor force in at least one population or farm census in much of North Africa and the Middle East (Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Turkey, Cyprus, Syria, Jordan, Iraq) and in Pakistan, and as at least iwofiths in Egypt and Saudi Arabia - figures quite unlike those in the generally low estimates of the ILO. For example, whereas the $1 L O$ estimated only 2 percent female in the agricultural labor force in Iraq in 1970, the 1977 population census reports 37 percent female and the FAO agricultural census of 1971 reports 41 percent. The new estimates alter substantially our image of the sexual division of labor in agriculture in these Muslim countries (Dixon, 1982, p. 557).

The proportion of the labor force that is female is found to be generally higher under certain conditions: (1) when a low minimum number of days or hours of work is used as a criterion for inclusion in the labor force; (2) when longer reference periods are used, allowing for seasonal variation; (3) when censuses are conducted in peak agricultural seasons; (4) when enumerators ask about usual activities and secondary occupations and activities fither than just about current primary activities; (5) when probing is conducted about work activities; (6) when women rather than just the male heads of households are interviewed; and (7) when economic activities of children (age 10 to 14 years) are included in the estimate (Dixon, 1982, p. 562).
Improvements in census estimates depend primarily upon additional survey information from FAO and other supporting labor force surveys. Standing (1978) found very different female participation rates in agricultuma in selected rural areas of Iran based on 1966 census data compared to rates based on results from the 1971 and 1973 labor force surveys.

In Sanandaj, Reziiyah, and Rhahabadigharb, the census - reported only 3 to 4 percent of rural women as economically active. while surveys conducted in peak or semibusy seasons reported from 43 to 47 percent for the same areas Standing. 1978, p. 30; cited in Dixon, 1982, p. 563).

The 1960 Egyptian census results indicated that women accounted for 4 percent of the agricultural labor force. Yet a more extensive rural labor record survey indicated that approximately one-fourth of all "nondomestic productive work" done in farm households was done by women (ILO, 1969, p. 27; cited in Dixon, 1982, p. 540). Evidence for Tunisis indicates that although an estimated 13 percent of rural women were labor force participants in 1972, findings from a small Tunisian village indicated that 40 percent of adult women ing the village were deriving incomes from work (Nassif, 1976; cfed in Van Dusen, 1976, p. 23). Repeatedly, where there is evidence, it appears that the numbers and rates of women working in agriculture and in rural areas is underestimated for many Near Eastern and North Afritan countries.

The estimates shown in table 5.15, indicating the percent of labor force in agriculture, by sex of worker, are heavily dependent upon the quality of the survey research techniques and the definitions used for identifying labor force participants. One report suggests that the participation of woman in agriculture may even be increasing in'jabor-exporting Arab countries, such as Yemen (Sanaa), and in oil-producing countries, such as Algeria.

> Even where male migration may not be to destinations outside of the country, it can have a profound effect. In one oil-producing country. Algeria, the government reported that femaie participation in agriculture more than doubled between 1966 and:1973, primarily owing to male migration, which resulted in an increased importance of fengale labour in self-managed farms (United Nations, 1978 , lp. 22; cited in Blumberg, 1981, p. 68).

Migration, in itself, however, might not be the sole reason or even the primary reason for the increases in the proportions of women who participated in agricultural wark in Algeria between 1966 and 1973. In contrast to the above explanation, other authors stress methodological or conceptual changes as the reason for rapidly changing female agricultural participation rates in Algeria.

In some countries, female unpaid family helpers in agriculture are systematically excluded... in other countries, women appear and disappear in large numbers from one survey to the next. In 1954, the Algerian census counted 981,000 women agricultural laborers ( 37 percent of the farm labor force) but in 1966 only 23,000 ( 2 percent of the total) (Dixon, 1982, p. 539).

If the Algerian estimates can show such a substantial decline between 1954 and 1966, primarily because of methodological changes in the definition of econemically active persons in agriculture, then discussions concerning the participation of wamen in agriculture must clearly distinguish between findings that are due to methodological changes and those brought about by demographic and socioeconomic change. .

Unpaid family workers. Over half of the women reported in the labor force of Saudi Arabia, Yemen (Sanaa), and Turkey were reported to be unpaid farmily workers (see table 4.16). In general,
the percent of the labor force who are unpaid farnily workers is higher among women than men. In most countries with available deta, rural women have the highest proportions of unpard family workers, followed by rural men, urban women, and urban men.

There is evidence that unpaid family workers are primarily agricuttural laborers. In the 1971 Moroccan census, among agricultural workers, 71 percent of women and 30 percent of men were classified as unpaid family helpers. In nonagricultural work; 11 percent of women and 3 percent of men were found to be unpaid family workers (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980a, table 211. The 1975 Turkishocensus reported that 96 percent of women and 41 percent of men working in agriculture were unpaid family workers. Among nonagricultural workers, 13 percent of women workers and 2 percent of men workers were un-. paid family workers (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980b, table 20).

The lower percentages of urban women workers who are reported as unpaid family, workers may be attributable partly to the fact that even less is known about the economic activities of women outside the modern occupational sector in urban areas than is known about unpaid family work in rural agriculture. Various classes of female urban workers, such as domestic servants who work part time; women who- work with their families in running small shops (or even large businesses); women who work in the home production of gopds that are sold or exchanged on the streets bypeddlers, husbands, or children; women who are street beggars, prestitutes, marketers, and traders in local bazaars; indigenous midwives and medical practitioner's; have yet to be successfully captured by urban labor force'surveys.

Occupations of unpaid family workers. The Thirteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians, which met in 1982 , adopted revised recommendations pertaining to statistics on the labor force, employment, unemployment, and underemployment. A major change from the viewpoint of statistics on women related to the concept of unpaid family workers. Unpaid family workers are recommended to be considered as self employed, ".... if such production comprises an important contribution to the total consumption of the household" (United Nations, 1983, p. 17). In addition, unpaid family workers are to be defined as economically active if they work for at least one hour during a specified brief period of time, that is, either one week or one day Concern was expressed at the Conference that, in many countras. to include in the self-employed economically active category unpard family worker's who satisfy the minimum onehour requirement might " . . enlist virtuelly the whole of the rural population into the labour force ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ (United Nations, Y983, p. 10 ). Greates attention would then need to be paid to the occupational types and socioeconomic levels of unpaid family work in order to distinguish the kinds of workers that are includad in this economic sector. Although problematic, the one-hour minimum work requremen! for unpaid family workers would help force a redefintion of work and economic activity that includes the non wáge earning labor of rural populations, especially women.

Further conceptual discussions and suggestions for the measurement of unpaid family workers are found in United Nations (1984b), Seltzer (1978), and Blacker (1979 and 1980). Special ptiention is given in the above reports to problems relating to the identification of people who work sporadically or seasonally and thosa, who mix economic activities with other responsibilities.

Athough detailed occupational data by employment status are not avallable, several countriès do report the percent of unpaid family workers by major division of economic activity (see table 4.17 and figure 4.1 1). For Algeria in 1977, it is estimated that for every 10 female unpaid family workers, 4 were in agriculture, 3 were in manufacturing, 2 were in services, and 1 was in wholesale or retail trade. In Iran in 1976, 3 out of 10 female unpaid family workers were reported to be in agricutture and 7 in manufacturing. The large majority of female unpaid family workers in Tunisia and Turkey in 1980, that is, 9 out of 10, were found in agriculture. On the whole, most male unpaid family workers were reported in agriculture. They are also found, however, in manufacturing, construction, wholesale/retail trade, and services. These findings suggest that unpaid family workers are heavily agricultural, but that a significant minority are engaged in nonagricultural work.
The 1970 Population Active Survey of Lebanon collected data on the occupations of women unpaid family workers (see table 4.18). The percent unpaid family woriters was highest among women agricultural faborers. The next highest proportion of unpaid women workers were commissioned sales persons, followed by women employed in commerce and sales and skilled and unskilled laborers. Even among professionals, 2 percent of women in medicine, dentistry, veterinary science, and nursing, and 1 percent of teachers were reported as unpaid family workers. Assuming that these data probably underestimate the proportions of women workers in Lebanon who are engaged in
' unpaid family work, they do suggest that researchers should look for non-wage-earners who are economically active across a wide range of occupations and not focus only on women working in agriculture.

Another major area of concern is domestic food production, that is, "... househoid procedures lesding to the preservation of food for storage and later consumption" (Basson, 1982, p. 75). Basson found that the proportion of women working as unpaid family workers in this economic sphere depends to a certain extent upon their type of househoid. Basson's research in rural Jordan compared the domestic economic productivity of women residing in male-headed households, female-headed households (de facto heads due to male migration for work), and households where women were wage earners outside the home. When women work outside the home, they are placed in dual and incongruent occupational statuses, managing both the domestic production and the wage-earning job. Although families with male household heads who are working abroad and families wity wives working outside the home have higher yearly per capita family incomes; higher income through male emigration for work increases female domestic economic productivity, whereas higher income resulting from women working outside the home decreases it through the substitution of one type of female
economic activity for another. Findings such as Basson's suggest that the transition from unpaid family worker to wage eamer must be examined for its effects not only upon family consump: tion patterns but also upon family production patterns.

Women in industry and services. The shitt of tabor force participation from agriculture into the industrial and service sectors is a shift being made by women as well as men. The ILO (1977). estimates show a shift in the propartions of the fabor force in agriculture, industry, and services, by sex of worker, for Lebind and Egypt since 1950. The transition of women workers out of agriculture into services is especially remarkable. In Lebanon, 15 percent of women workers were estimated to be in the service sector in 1950 and 55 percent in 1970. The prgportion of Egyptian women in services is estimated to have increased from 46 to 58 percent during the same time period. This shift of the female labor force into services and away from agriculture is influenced substantially by the rural-to-urban migration flows prevalent in these iwo countries. It is also due partially to the underestimation of women workers in agriculture, as mentioned previously.
The transition from farm laborer to service worker does pot necessarily imply an improvement in the status of. women. In order to méasure women's work status brought about by the change from agricultural to service work, detailed occupational analyses are required. Unfortunately, ćross-tabulationis of occupational status by industry, educational attainment, sex, and rural/urban residence are not available in the WID Data Base. Evidence in the literature suggests that, in general, there is occupational segregation by sex, limited occupational diversity among women workers, and lower status of women workers in the service and industrial sectors, just as there was (and is) in the agricultural sector (see Chamie, 1983; Chaudhry, 1980; and House, 1,983). Far example, in Lebanon,

The overwhelming majority of women who worked for remuneration in' 1970 were found in the following occupations classified by category: scientific, technical and liberal arts and humanities professions (nurses, midwives and teachers of.children); administration and management (managers of enterprises and secretaries); business and sales (sales clerks and commissioned sales persons); services (house servants and janitorial workers); agriculture (field laborers) and non-agricultural laborers, (seamstressest With the exception of fhe 225 women who reported managing enterprises, the vast majority of working women were found in low paying and unprestigious jobs. In addition, the overwhelming majority of women. were limited to certain socially acceptable "female" occupations IChame, 1583, p. 6).

## *.

Detalled comparisons of women and men who worked in the various occupational categories repeatedly showed the lack of diversity in women's occupations in Lebanon. For examiple, the Population Active Survey coded nine general occupational cafegories of persons working in the scientific and technical prossions. Whereas the distribution of meg across the nine
$\checkmark$
categories was diverse, 87 percent of all women in scientific and technical professions were in a singto occupational category-qursing and midwifery (Chamie, 1983 ).

House (1983) reached the same conclusion about occupational status and the diversity of occupations in Cyprus. He noted that women are concentrated in just a few occupations.

> Where they are present in the professional group it is mainly as paramedical personnel and teachers, while as clerical and sales workers they serve largely as stenographers and shop assistants. As production workers, they are over-represented as relatively low-skilled tailors and dressmakers, process workers, and labourers. Their inferior status is revealed by their token membership in the prestigious professions, such as architecture, engineering and medicine, and their absence from supervisory roles. Their concentration in just a few occupations is brought out by the fact that 18 occupations account for 85 percent of all fernates employed in the non-farm sector (House, 1983, p. 84),

In the category of modern occupations, some of the more significant occupations of women are teaching, nursing, and secretarial or clerical work. Several research studies have tried to compare the situation af women armen in similar economic sectors, for similar oocupations. Theri results suggest that even when working in similar occupations, women are less educated, have fewer options for advancement, and earn less money than mẹn do (Chaudhry, 1981; Chamie, 1983; and House, 1983).

Women's wages. Chaudhry (1981) reported on the '"... average gross money wage (i,e., wages before deduction of income taxes and social security contributions payable by the workers)" derived from payroll data supplied by "... a sample of establishments furnishing data on hours and employment' '. for Egypt. The average weekly wages in manufacturing (all industries) were as follows:


Source: Chaudhry, 1981, table 22.
The majority of women categorized as working in manưacturing in Egypt were tailors, dressmakers, spinners, weavers and knitters, and clerical workers (Chaudhry, 1981, p. 70). Date limitations prohibited further exploration into the reallons for the lower wages.
A study of occupational segregation and discriminatory pay in the Cyprus labor market (House, 1983) was based upon a multivariate analysis using regression techniques to predict an-
nual earnings of women ánd men. Predictor variables included in the multivariate analysis were: educational attainment, quality of schooling (graduation from an English-speaking university), work experience, sector or employment, occupation, firm size, years of tenure on the job, union statas, public or private sector, and location of work. House (1983, pp. 86-87) found that:

The over-all average annual earnings advantage of men is 0.592 in logarithmic terms, or CE.B95, of which 63 percent is ascribed to wage discrimination as we have defined if, and 37 percent to the greater endowments of men with wage-related characteristics... With only one exception, the endowments of wage-enhancing characteristics are all favourable for men. The major contributions arise from their longer years of education, their potential and firm-specific experience, and their favourable occupational distribution.

The author suggests that the lower average number of years of firm-specific experience is a result of women's childbearing responsibilities which intermittently interrupt their work experience. Women's lower educational attainment across occupations is believed fo be a result of other forms of discrimination against women which ultimately curtail their educational opporunities. House also notes that even when educational attainment is similar for women and men, men's wages are substantially higher, reflecting greater opportunity for advancement.
A recent survey of 42 enterprises in Cyprus found that 19 discriminated against women with respect to wages paid and that their discrimination could not be explained by differences in job context (Cyprus, 1978). In general, women who worked in the public sector in Cyprus were more fairly treated when it came to average wage earnings than were women who worked in the private secter (House, 1983). The Cypriot government uses consistently more egalitarian hiring and promotion procedures than does the private sector, resulting in greater equality of the sexes amang government workers with respect to annual earnings. Given that 20 percent of all men and 26 percent of all women workers are employed in the public sector, its influence is substantial. Governmental influence upon the private sector may need to be tried if the disfrimination in wages and promotion is to be reduced. ;

Educational attainment of women, ih modern sector occupations. In Lebanon, evidence gathered from a UNESCO (1973) study indicated that higher educatiotial attainment did not increase - occupational diversity among women as it did among men. The overwherming majority of women university graduates who were working in 1970 were in three professions: teaching, management. and secretanal/clerical work. There were practically no
women university graduates working outside of these three professions, primarily because of the limited selection of academic fields available to them while attending universities (Dibs, 1975).
A typical pattern of career development among professional women in Lebanon is reflected in the nursing and teaching professions. Women who work es nurses or midwives typically have an elementary education or are illiterate (UNESCO, 1973; and Chamie and Harfouche, 1976). In Egypt, among medical, dertal, veterinary and related workers, 22 percent of women and 64 percent of men in this category have at least a university degree (Egypt, CAPMAS, 1980, table 22). Under such conditions, the meaning of "professional" for women diverges substantially from the meaning it achieves for men.

According to UNESCO (1973) data analyzing a subgroup of women respondents age 20 years and over who had ever attended school from the Population Active Survey of Lebanon in 1970, women entering the teaching field were less educated than men and were in greater need of educational and training opportunities in order to upgrade their current positions. Whereas educational attainment of most women teachers is at the intermediate level, the level for men is a university degrag. In Egypt, 31 percent of women teachers and 40 percent of men teachers are university graduates (Egypt, CAPMAS, 1980, table 22).

Similarly, in Jordan, the 1980 National Family Expenditure Survey finds divergence in educational attainment between women and men teachers:

Percent Distribution of School Teachers, by Educational Attainment and Sex: Jordan, 1980

| Educational attainment | Female | Male |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
| Number of school |  |  |
| teachers | 115 | 81 |
| All levels | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Illiterate | 0.0 | r. 1.2 |
| Elementary | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Preparatory | 1.7 | 1.2 |
| Secondary | 17.4 | 4.9 |
| Diploma . . . . . . | 59.2 | 43.2 |
| Bachelor | 20.0 | 45.7 |
| Higher education | 1.7 | 3.7 |
| 1 |  |  |

Source: Jordan Department of Statistics,. 1980, table 8.
Women school reachers, on the whole, are less educated than their male counterparts. Men predominate amiong those with Bachelor degrees or higher education, while more women than men teachers are reported to have only a secondary diploma or less.

Figure 4.1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Population
Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex


See footnotes to table 4.2 for nonstandard age groups.

Figure 4.2. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates


Figure 4.3. Percent Economically Active, by Sex and Age, for Iran, Jordan, Morocco, and Turkey


Figure 4.4. Female/Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates in Selected Age Groups


F/M ratio $($ male $=1.0)$


6
$F / M$ ratio (male - 1.0 ).


- Famale rano aguals materate

[^21]Figure 4.5. Labor Force Participation Rates-for Women Age 10 Years and Over, by Rural/Urban Residence



Percent


See footnotes to tables 4.7 and 4.11 for nonstandard age groups.

86

Figure 4.6. Labor Force Participation Rates for Women in Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence

| . | Rural | Urban |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\cdots$ |  |
| $10-14$ | $20-24$ | $10-14$ | $20-24$ |




[^22]Figure 4.7. Female/ Male Ratio of Labor Force Participation Rates in Two Age Groups, by Rural/Urban Residence


- Female rate equals mole rate

Sen ton notes to tables 4.9 and 4. 13 for nonstandard age groups.

Figure 4.8. Female Share of Rural and Urban Labor Force in Two Age Groups


Percent


'See footnotes to tabies 4.10 and 4.14 for nonstandard age groups."

Figure 4.9. Percent of Labor Force in Agriculture, by Sex


[^23]Figure 4.10. Female/Male Ratio of Percent of Unpaid Family Workers in Labor Force -



[^24]Figure 4.14. Percent of Unpaid Family Workers in Selected Industries, by Sex, for Algeria, Iran, Tunisia, and Turkey
Agriculture Women

Manufacturing


Table 4.1. Number of Economically Active Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex and Selected Age Groups, and Percent of Economically Active Outside Age Range 15 to 64 Years
(Numbers in thousands)

| Region and country | Women |  |  |  | Men |  |  | Percent outside the aye range of 15 to 64 years |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | * year | 10 years and over | 10 to 14 years | 65 years and over | 10 years and over | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } 14 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 65 years and over | Women | Men |

nukth africia


| Turkey.................. 1980 | 26,785 | 4643 | 275 | ${ }^{2} 11,663$ | 4659 | 418 | 15.7 | 10.2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MIUDLE SOUTH.ASIA, $\quad \therefore$ | - | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Af yhanistan ${ }^{\text {a }}$.......... $19 / 9$ | - 296 | 48. | $2{ }^{2}$ | 3,503 8.347 | 272 416 | 123 $35 \%$ | 17.0 -16.9 | 11.3 9.2 |
| Iran.................. . 1976 | 1,449 | 220 | 25 | 8,347 | 416 | 352 |  |  |

[^25]
## Table 4.2. Labor Force Participation Rates Among Population Age 10 Years and Over, by Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economically Active, and Percent Female Among, Perssons in Labor Force

(Rates in percent)



NUKTH AFRICA


[^26]Table 4.3. Total Labor Force Participation-Rates, by Sex and Age
(In percent)

| Sex, reyion, and country | Year | 10 to 14 years | $\begin{array}{r} 15 \text { to } \\ 19 \end{array}$ yedrs | 20 to 24 years | 25 to 29 years | 30 td years | 35 to <br> . 39 <br> years | $\begin{array}{r} 40 \text { to } \\ 44 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 45 to 49 years | 50 to 54 yedrs | $\begin{array}{r} 55 \text { to } \\ 159 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 60 to 64 years | $\begin{array}{r} 65 \\ \text { years } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { over } \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

## women

NURTH AFRICA

| Eyypt............... | 1476 | - 5.5 | 5.1 | 12.4 | 10.8 | 7.8 | 5.5 | 4.4 | 3.5 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 1.0. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -Morocco............. | 197.1 | $6: 9$ | 16.6 | 13.5 - | 11.2 | 10.2 | 11.0 | 13.0 | 15.0 | 18.9 | 22.5 | 7.7 | 3.8 |
| Tunisíd............. | 1975 | 2.5 | $10.4$ | 11.1 |  |  | 0 |  |  | \% |  |  | $2.3 \cdots$ |
| WESTERN SUUTH ASIA |  | $\because$. | - |  |  |  |  | $\cdots$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  | i | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iraq.............. | 1977 | 9.8 | 10.9 | 15.5 | 19.0 | 20.8 | 19.2 | 19.3 | 18.6 | 18.3 | 16.5 | 13.0 | 6.7 |
| Jordan:............ | 1979 | (NA) | 3.4 | 15.7 | 13:5 | 8.7 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 2.4 | +2.0 | 1.8 | 1.1 | 0.5 |
| Ledanon. .'....... | 1970 | 6.6 | 15.8 | 23.8 | - 20.2 |  |  |  | 2.9 |  |  | 8.3 | 4.1 |
| Syria. | 1970 | 8.3 | 11.5 | 10.2 | 9.2 | $\longdiv { 8 . 7 }$ | 8.5 | 8.2 | : 8.0 | 7.7 | 6.1 | 5.6 | 3.2 |
| Non-Ară ${ }^{\text {d }}$ Countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |  |  | , |  |  |
| Turkey.............. | 1980 | 141.6 | 49.4 | 47.8 | 44.3 | 44.4 | 47.1 | 49.3 | 50.4 | 49.5 | 46.9 | 43.7 | 23.8 |
| MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  | - |  | - |  |  |  | 4 |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2}$. | 1979 | 6.1 | 9.2 | 9.0 | 8.5 | 7.0 | 7.8 | - 5.2 | 5.2 | 4.0 | $4.1^{\circ}$ | 2.3 | 1.6 |
| Iran. | 1976 | 10.7 | 15.7 | 17.9 | 16.1 | 14.1 | 12.8 | 11.7 | 10.9 | 4.7 | 8.1 | 6.6 | 4.5 |

See footnates at end of table.

95

Table 4.3. Total Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age-Continued
(In percent)



- Arab countries:

| Iraq. Jordan | 1977 1979 | \%(NA) 21.30 .98 | 84.9 85.9 | 96.7 97.0 | 97.5 98.9 | 96.8 -98.6 | 94.9 97.3 | $\begin{array}{r}\text { a } \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 87.7 93.0 | 82.9 88.0 | $\cdot 74.7$ 76.6 | $\begin{aligned} & 54.0 \\ & 38.9 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lebarion..........ex. | 1970 | 6.0 - 38.0 . | 72.7 | 92.6 | and | 0 - |  |  |  |  | 69.5 | 41.9 |
| Syria............. | 1970 | 19.1-54.0. | 81.2 | . 95.0 | 98, | 98.4 | 97.5 | 96.2 | 93.8 | 90.8 | 82.6 | 56.2 |
| Non-Arab Countries |  |  | B. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey. | 1980 | $139.0 \quad 61.9$ | 83.8 | 92.8 | 95.4 | 9808 | 94.9 | 90.8 | 84.5 | 77.4 | 68.3 | 43.7 |
| MIDDLE SUUTH ASIA | - |  |  | $\cdots$ |  |  |  | 1 . |  |  |  |  |
| Atyhanistan ${ }^{2}$. | -1979 | 33.3 - 63.3 | $86.6{ }^{\circ}$ | 94.9 | 96.1 | 97.3 | . 96.2 | 96. | 94.0 | 91.3 | 87.0 | 65.9. |
| Iran................. | . 1976 | 18.453 .3 | 86.4 . | 95.7 | 97.8 | 98.4 | 97.7 | 98.0 | . 92.4 | 86.3 | 77.0 | 56.4 |

${ }^{1}$ kefers to aye 12 to 14 years.
2Refers to the settled population only.

Table 4.4,' Female/Male Ratio Sof Total Labor Force Participation Rates, byíAge
(Male = 1.00 )


Table 4.5. Female Share of Total Labor, Force, by Age'


WESTERN SOUTH ASIA



Table 4.6. Female Labbr Force Participation Rates, by Age, for Jordan and Turkey:
Latest Two Censuses
(In percent)

${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 6 to 14 years.

- Note: For Jordan, data are from the 1972 labór force survey and the 1979 census. 'For Turkey, ddta dre from censuses for the respective years.


## Table 4.7. Labor Force Participation Rates Among Rural Population Age 10 Years and - Over, by Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economically Active, and Percent Female Among Persons in Rural Labor Force (Rates in percent)



Table 4.8. Rural Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age


Women"



Non-Arab countries


MIDULE SUNTH ASIA
See footnote at end of table.

105

Table 4.8. Rural Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age-Continued

| 50: <br> Sex, region and country | Year | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \text { to } \\ 14 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $157_{19}^{\text {to }}$ years | 20 to 24 years | $\begin{array}{r} 25 \cdot \text { to } \\ \quad 29 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\left.{ }_{\text {y years }}^{30}\right\|_{34} ^{\text {to }}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 35 \text { to } \\ 39 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 40 to <br> 44 years | $\begin{array}{r} .45 \text { to } \\ 49 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 50 \text { to } \\ & \text { years } 54 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 55 \text { to } \\ & \text { 5y } \\ & \text { years } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 60 \text { to } \\ & 64 \\ & \text { years } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 65 \\ \text { years } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { iover } \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Men |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| .NORTH AFKICA |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Moracco. | 1971 | 20.0 | 69.5 | 88.8 | 95.1 | 96.5 | 96,8 | 95.8 | 94.9 | 92.5 | 90.4 | 64.5 | 32.7 |

WESTEHN SUUTH ASIA
Arap countries


| Non-Arab count Pies |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | , |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Turkey................ | 1970 | ${ }^{1} 33.7$ | 71.8 | 91.8 | 96.1 | 96.3 | 97.0 | 96.9 | 97.1 | 95.4 | 94.0 | 98.2 | 71.6 |
| MIDDLE SOUTHASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iran.. | 1976 | 28.9 | 73.9 | 93.2 | 98.4 | 98.1 | 98.8 | 98.3 | 97.9 | $95.8$ | 92.2 | $85.0^{\circ}$ | 63.1 |

[^27]Table 4.9: ${ }^{\text {© Female/Maler Ratio of Rural Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age }}$
(Male $=1.00$ ).


NORTH AFRICA,


WESTERN SOUTH ASIA.
Arab countries

| Iray................... | 1977 | 1.41 | 0.46 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.29 | 0.31 | 0.34 | Q.36 | 0.36 | 0.33 | 0.28 | 0.18 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lebanon | 1970 | 1.16 | U.48: | 0.28 | 0.20 | 0.15 |  | 0.14 |  | $0$ |  | 0.12 | 0.11) |
| Syria.....to......... | . 1970 | 0.52 ${ }^{\text { }}$ | 0.28 | 0.13 | 0.10 | '0.09 | 0.09 | $\bigcirc$ | 0.09 | 5 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.06 |
| Non-Arab countriés |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . . 1 |  | - |  |
| Turkey............... | 1970 | 11.21 | 1.00 | 0.83 | 0.78 | 0.76 | 0.78 | 0.80 | 0.80 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.74 | 0.66 |
| MIDOLE SUUTH ASIA |  |  |  | - | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iran.................. | 1976 | 0.59 | 0.32 | 0.21 . | $0.17{ }^{7}$ | 0.16 | $0.16^{\prime}$ | 0.15 | 0.15 | 0.13 | 0.12 | 0.09 | 0.08 |

${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 12 to 14 years,

103

Table 4.10. Femite Share of Rural Labor Force, by Age



[^28]111

Table 4.11. Labor Force Participation Rates Among Urban Population Age 10 Years and 'Over', by Sex, Female/Male Ratio of Percent Economically Activa. and Perc̣ent Female in Urban Labor Force (Rates in percint).

refers to age 12 years and over.

Ta'le 4.12. Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age
(In percent)


Table 4.12. Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age-Continued
(In percent)


[^29]$r$

Tabie 4.13. Female/Male Ratio bf Urban Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age $\%$
(Male $=1.00$ ).

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Io } \\ \text { Kegion and country } \end{gathered}$ | ${ }^{\text {Year }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \text { to } \\ & \text { year } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 15 \text { to } \\ 19 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | 20 to <br> 24 years | $\begin{gathered} 25 \text { to } \\ 29 \\ \text { years } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 30 \text { to } \\ 34 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 35 \text { to } \\ & \text { years } \\ & \text { y9 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 40 \text { to } \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 45 \text { to } \\ 49 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ |  | $\begin{array}{r} 55 . \text { to } \\ .59 \\ \text { years } \end{array}$ | $\because 1$ 60 to 64 years | $\begin{array}{r} \text { '65 } \\ \text { years } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { over } \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NQRTH AFRICA |  |  | \} |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |
| Morocco............. | 1971 | 1.76 | 8.52 | 0.28 | 0.18 | $0.13{ }^{\circ}$ | 0.14 | 0.18 | 0.20 | 0.29 | 0.33 | '0.18 | 0.17 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iraq. | 1977 | 0.22 | 0.12 | 0.15 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.14 | 0.11 | 0.10 | $\underbrace{0.09}$ | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.06 |
| Lebanon............... | 1970 | 1.06 | 0.38 | 0,36 | 0.23 |  | 6 \% |  | 13 | : 0 |  | 0.12 | 0.08 |
| Syria................. | 1970 | 0.23 | 0.31 | 0.12 | - 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.06 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.04 |
| Non-Arab countries |  | - |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey............... | 1970 | 10.39 | 0.29 | 0.21 | 0.16 | 0.12 | 0.11 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.11 | 0.09 : | 0.08 | 0.08 |
| - . . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iran.................. | 1976 | 0.53 | 0.21 | 0.20. | 0.26 | 0.13 | 0.10 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0,08 |

${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 12 to 14 years.

## Table 4.14. Female Share of Urban Labor Force, by Age


nokth africa


WESTERN SOUTH: ASIA

## Arab qquntries



Non-Arab countries
Turkey.
. $1970{ }^{1} 23.9$
17.6 11.8.' 11.6 10.5' $9.2^{\prime}$ 9.9 9.4 • 10.2 .
$9.0 \quad 9.7$
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA


1 Refers to age 12 to 14 years.

120

## Table 4.15. Percent of Labor Force in Agriculture, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of 'Percent in Agriculture



Table 4.16. Percent of Unpaid Fanily Workers-in Labor Force, by Sox and'Rural/Urban Residence; and
..


[^30]Table 4.17. Percent of Unpaid Family Workers, by Industry and Sex, for Selected Countries
(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)


Source: ILO, 1982, table 2A.

Table.4.18. Number and Percent of Women Unpaid Family Workers in Selected. Occupations for Lebanon: 1970
(Numbers in thousands)


Note: Uccupations were selected because they were the most prevalent occupations for women in Lebanon.

Source: Chamie, 1983; table 5.

## $?$ <br> 

## Chapter 5

In the Near East and North Africe, as elsewhere, marriage marks a significant turning point in a woman's life. Cohabitation and premarital sexual activity are not commonplace in this region. There are strong taboos and many protective and punitive forms of legislation that encourage women to, "protect their honor". and their families' honor by remaining cellbate until marriage.

## Quality and Availability of Data

There are several aspects of both marital status and living arrangements which affect family household peimerns in the region. National data that have measured pattems of miarital and living arrangements are not widely available. This section discusses the avaliable data and their strengths and weaknesses.

Marital ststus. A large body of research about women has concentrated upon the measurement of marital reproductive behavior. This concentration has not subsequently led to a more sophisticated conceptualization and measurement of the different types of arrangements that cuiminate in marriage. The so-called love marriages, for example, are not typically distinguished from arranged marriages by national surveys except through the indirect estimation of spouse consanguinity, or by the rate of cousin-marriages. Even then, what constitutes a cousin-marriage is not always carefully defined.

Another distinguishing factor that is not typically differentiated Gy marital statistics is the extem of delayed cohabitation that has taken place after the signing of a manttal contract (Chamie and Weller, 1983). In a number of predominantly Muslim countries, the Kateb ef-Kitab (signing of the marriage contract) predates the actual wedding ceremony and the consummation of the marriage. The.contract is signed by the bride's representetive, her groom, and by witnesses in the presence of officials $0^{\circ}$ the Muslim court and can be broken only by divorce pro:-
ceedings (Prothre and Disb, 1974, p. 35). One-half of the marriage contracts examined by Prothro and Diab were signed 1 to 6 months before the marriage was consummeted. Another study feund the average delay between the Kateh el-Kitab and the actual marriage ceremony to be approximately 7 to 8 months (Coale, et al., 1975). The predeting of the wedding ceremany cen result in statistically overstating the amount of actual exposure to sexusi intercourse and underestimating marital fertality rates, especially for younger women whose marital duration has been relativaly short (Chamie and Weller, 1983).

In conjunction with the problems of interproting when and under what conditions marriage has occurred, there also are problems with assessing the extent of polygamous marriages and with the definitions of divorce. Most, but not all, predominantly Muslim countries allow polygamous marriages, even though such marriages are few in number. Polygamous" marriages, when they do occur, complicate' the reporting of household headship. For exsimple,

In polygamous families where co-wives maintain separate househoids, doss the husband get counted twice (or more if there are more than two wives) or is one (or more) wife considered as heading her own household if her husband does not normally reside with her? (Youssef and Hetler, 1982, p. 24).
In addition to the distinctionbetween marriage types, Muslim countries recognize three types of divorce according to their. degree of "irreversibility" (Chamie and Nsuly, 1981). To a certain extent, the milder form of divorce approximetes what is called legal separation in many parts of the world. Since separation and divorce are grouped tagether in most census tables for countries in this region, all forms of separation and divorce are typically treated similarly in the analysis.

Information on marital status, by age and sex, is available in \$he WID Data Base for 11 of the 14 countries. Rural/urban data
on this subject are found for 8 of the 14 countries. Data on marital status are generally derived from national censuses or surveys.
Household headship. Although the definitions of marital status used by censuses and national surveys are relatively straightforward, the definitions of a household are not. Youssef and Hetler (1982) noted in their study of wouren-headed households that even though statistical guidelines are prepared by such intedirational orgánizations as the United Nations,'

Few countries ... adhere to these guidelines for identifying. either family head or household head. A review of the inter-, national census literature and the literature on crosscultural comparisons of family and household structure indicate that there is a wide range of definitions for the general terms "family head" or "household head" and that these terms are often assumed to be commonly under-- stood, and are not therefore formally defined (Youssef and Hetler, 1982, p. 25).
For every coufitry in this analysis having household data, no explanation or definition of "head of household" was provided in. the published census or sutvey documents. This leaves the interpretation of data collected on heusehold heads open to debate. Given the cultural context of most of the countries, it may generally be surmised that heads of housoffolds are typically thought of in terms of a male head.

Chapter 2 described the complications introduced by data collection procedures that do not distinguish between de facto and de jure women-headed hpuseholds. Because of the marked in-

- fluence of international and internal migration upon household formation in many countries of the region, further work must be done to establish the number of households that are headed by women and the conditions under which these responsibilities are'assumed, that is, marital separation, widowhood, divorce, male migration for work, and/or displacement because of war. Joint headships are not accommodated in the data collection procedures used by censuses and large-scale surveys in the Near East and North Africa, further clouding the issúe of the cooperative role of women and men in heading households.

In addition to the general limitations in the existing crosstabulations of household data, the phrasing of questions about head of househoid strongly influences the responses given. Cultural pressures to argue for the presence of a responsible male, éven if it means midicating that a 12 -year-old son is the responsible head when the aduit male is absent from the home or deceased, suggest that more than one question is required if the actual situation is to be realistically assessed.

- Mean househoid size is available for nine countries. Data for women-headed households are available for only four countries: Morocco, Tunisia, Turkey and Iran.
Lie cycle changes in marital and household status. Life cycle analyses of changes in marital status and living arrangements are rare and require sex-and age-specific household data as well as vital registration and survey data on the incidence of remar-

[^31]riage, by previous marital status (Chamie ant Nsuly, 1981 ). Rates of currently married, divorced/separated, and widowed persons, as well as the rates of femaleadship of households, are àfected by gender differences in remarriage rates. Although nQ data are currghery available in the WID Data Base for an investigation of this subject, national remarriage rates by type of femarriage will pe presented using other data found in the literature.

## Findings

Legal age at marriage. The policies underlying the establishment of minimum legal ages for marriage have several purposes. One major purpose is to prevent, or at least strongly discourage, child marriages. Another is to raise the age at marriage so that agespecific fertility and ultimately total family size is reduced. Policies on age at marriage are also d'sed to encourage young women and men to continue their schooling or to work before marriage.
In all but two countries, there is a 2- or 3-year difference in the legal age at marriage for women and men, with women having the younger minimum age (see table 5.1). The miminum legal age at marriage for both sexes in Saudi Arabia is 13 years and in Iraq 18 years. In thie remaining countries with data; the - minimum legal age at marriage for women ranges from 13 years in Lebanon to 18 years in Iran. ${ }^{2}$ For men, it ranges from 16 years in Lebanon to 20 years in Tunisia and Iran.
Although Lebanon's legal age at Harriage for women is very - low, ${ }^{3}$ in actuality Lebanon has one of the highest singulate mean ages at marriage ${ }^{4}$ for women in this region. In general, the singulate mean ages at marriage are moderately high, ranging for women from 19 years in Sasdi Arabia to 23 years in Tunisia and Lebanon and for men from 22 years in Yemen (Sanaa) to 28 years in Lebanon. This suggests that in most countries the minimum legal age at marriage for women and men is generously below the age at which most marriages actually take place. Singulate mean ages at marriage (in years), by sex, for selected countries and various years are shown below:


Source: Chamie and Weller, 1983, sable 1.

The minimum fegal ages at marriege shown for Iran were ostablished by the 1974 Family Protection Law. These ages were reduced following the change in iran's political leadership in 1979. Conflicting reports now put the minimum legal age at marriage for women between 13 and 15 years, and for men between 15 and 18 years.
The minimum leget age at marrigge in Labanon varies according to rellgious group and sect, from ege 9 or puberty to age 18 years for women and from group and sect, from ege 9 or puberty to age 18 yeers for women
age 16 or puberty to age 18 years for men (Dib, 1977. p. 39).
TThe singulate mean age at marriage is an estimate of the mean number of yaers lived by a cohort of women or men before their first marriage.

Further evidence that the minimum legal age at marriage is conservative is shown in table 5.2 and figure 5.1. The age at which 25 or 50 percent of the population has ever been married for each of these countries is substantially higher than the legal minimum age at marriage. For example, in Egypt in 1976, the minimum age for women to marry is 16 years, and the age at which 25 percent of all women have ever been married is 20 years. in some cases, the minimum legal ages may discourage child marriages at very young ages.

A recent analysis of 16 Middle Eastern and North African countries correlated singulate mean ages at marriage with national gross reproduction rates, and found that the association between age at marriage and fertility was dependent upon the inclusion ${ }^{\text {- }}$ or exclusion of data from four countries (Chamie and Weller, 1983). The zero order correlation between the two variables. showed a weak negative value when data from Lebanon in 1970, Israel in 1946, 1961, and 1972, Egypt in 1976, and Tunisia in 1975 were included in the analysis and showed no correlation when thase data were excluded. In an analysis of microlevel data from the Jordanian World Fertility Survey, age at marriage was found to be negatively related to fertility rates when controls for duration and cohort of marriage were introduced (Nur, 1981) and when cohtrols for educetional attainment were used (Jordan Department of Statistics, 1979, p. 43).
With respeict to policies aimed directly at raisind the age at marriage for the purpose of lowering fertility, it is not clear whether increases in the legal age at marriage would necessarily result in significant reductions in fertility, given that a large proportion of fertility in this region occurs after age 35 years. (See chapter 6 for a discussion of how older ages contribute to the - th total fertility rate found in most of these countries.) Roof 71979) reports for Iran that an increase in the age at marriage for 'women between 1966 and 1976 in both rural and urban areas resulted in a significant reduction of fertility in the cities but no change at all in the rural sector. The singulate mean age ${ }^{*}$ at marrisge and fertility rates are both quite high in the region, and the evidence suggests that countries experiencing lower rates of fertility with higher ages at marriage also are experiencing other types of sogioeconomic change and transitions in the educational and occupatiohal statuses of women.

Martal status. The majority of the population age 15 years and over is married (table 5.3). A larger number of women than men report that they are currently married in every country but Cyprus - (see table below). One important reason for the excessnumber of women reported to be currently married inf various censuses and national surveys is gender difference in the interpretation of marital status categories:

One source of this disparity may be that women in consensual union, divorced and separated women and ${ }^{\wedge}$ widows, referred to themselves as "married" to a greater extent than do men in these categories dunited. Nations, 1980, p. 34).

Number of Currentiy Married Persons and Female/Male Raylo, by Sex (Numbers in thousands)


Other reasons indigenous to the Near East and North Africa include the possibility of polygamous marriages resulting in more married women than men, although the rates of polygamy are not remarkably high in any of hese countries. Another possibility is that the emigration of middle-aged men to wark elsewhere has decreased the numbers of married men present in the country. It is not clear from the tables at hand whether or not men who emigrated for work are included in the marital status crosstabulations; if they are not, this could contribute to the greater numbers of married women than men reported in some of the countries.

The differences in the marital statusek of women and men are most remarkable when contrasting the proportions single or widowed, rather than the proportions married (see table 5.3 and figure 5.2). Because women tend to marry at younger ages, larger proportions of men than women are currently single, while much larger proportions of women than men are currently widowed because of women's mofe favorable longevity.

Reports of divorce and separation are uncommon for both women and men. The proportion of divorced or separated women and men ranges from less than 1 percent to 4 percent for women, and from less than 1 percent to only 2 percent for men. The difference between the sexes in the percent divorced and separated is partially explained by different rates of remar-- riage for women and men (Chamié and Weller, 1983).

Rural and urban differences in marital status for women and men are shown in rables 5.4 and 5.5 . Somewhat lower proportions of rural than urban women age 15 years and over are single. Largest differences in propurtions single in rural and urban areas were found in Afghanistan in 1972.73 (10 percent in rural areas and 20 percent in urban areas). These proportions no doubt reflect the older average age at marriage for women in urban areas.
Table 5.6 shows the percent single by age and sex, and table 5.7 the female/male ratio of the percent single for each country. These tables show that virtually all persons eventually marry. At age 45 to 49 years, the range of values in the percent single for women is from less than 1 percent (Afghanistan and Iran) to 7 percent (Lebenon). The range for single men age 45 to 49 years is from 1 percent in Iran to 6 percent in Lebanon.

There is a marked decline in the percent single for women after ., age 15 to 19 years. For men, the first notable decline in the percent single is at age 20 to 24 years. From ages 15 through 34 years, the proportions of persons who are single are much smaller in general for women than men. The female/male ratios of percent single also reflect the differences between the sexes, especially between the ages of 20 and 34 years where fewer - women than men are single (see figure 5.3).

Cyprus has a slightly different age-specific pettern of percent single than other countries. The difference between the sexes is smaller at age 25 to 29 years. Also, the female/male ratios at the older ages are much higher because greater proportions of women than men age 30 years and over have never married. The proportions of women and men who are not married after age 30 years are high also in Lebanon, yet the sex ratios are lower than in Cyprus because in Lebanoin higher proportions of both sexes are unmarried. Yemen (Senaa) and Afghanistan exhibit' unusually low proportions single among younger women when compared to other countries.
Rural/urban differences in the percent single'by age and sex show substantially lower proportions single in rural areas for both sexes in every age group between 15 and 49 years except in

Lebanon Isee tables 5.8 to 5.11 and figure 5.4). A comparison between women and men shows that in both rural and urban areas, the proportions of single women are smailer than the proportions of single men at each age.

Widowhood rates for women are shown in table 5.12. A re-- zent article discussing sex-based stereotypes and sex biases of national data systems noted that:

The categories divorced/separated/widowed are often combined under one heading for statistical convenience. Although there may be reasons for combining these groups in order to save publication space, the social circumstances of the women in each of these categories can be quite dif--ferent (United Nations, 1980, p. 34).

Fortunately, most censuses and surveys at least distinguish between divorced/separated persons and widowed persons. The secial and demographic circumstances of widows remain outside the realm of most investigations into the status of women in the Middle East and North Africa, even though the lives of millions of women are affected emotionally, socially, and financially by these circumstances.

The proportion of women in the age group 40 years and over who are widowed is remarkable (see table 5.12 and figure 5.5). In Moroccó, for example, 1 out of 10 women age 40 to 44 years is reported as widowed. The percentage increases rapidly for every age group thereafter, until by age 60 to 64 years, between 5 and 6 out of 10 women are widows. After age 64 years, 7 out of 10 women in Morocco are widows.

Remarriage. Not all divorced and widowed persons choose to remain permanently without a spouse. A recent investigation into gender differences in remarriage and spouse selection for 47 countries throughout the world reported findings in Egypt, Tunisia, Jordan, and Turkey (Chamie and Nsuly, 1981). The findings (see table below) indicate that a substantial proportion of existing marriages are remarriages for both women and reen, but the proportions are slightly lower for women.

Percentit of Marriàges That Are Remarriages and Percent Previously Divorced Among Remarried Persons

| Country | Year | Percent of marriages that are remarriages |  |  | Percent of remarried persons who were divorced |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Both sexes | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| gypt | 1973 | 26.9 | 18.1 | 22.0 | 84.4 | 82.0 |
| Tunisia' | 1973 | 15.0 | 7.9 | 11.6 | 76.3 | 65.3 |
| Jordan. | 1974 | 19.3 | 11.0 | 14.4 | 81.2 | 66.9 |
| Turkey. . | 1972 | 13.3 | 7.4 | 9.1 | 70.4 | 62.8 |

[^32]Source Chamie and Nsuly. 1981, table 1.

Gender differences in the percent of remarried persons who were previously divorced are notable in Tunisig, Jordan, and Turkey, where a larger proportion of remärried women than men were previously divorced. Remarriage'rates per 1,000 widowed and divorced persons are shown belgw for each sex:

| Country | Year | Widowed |  | Divorced |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Wómen | Men | Women | Men |
| Egypt | 1960 | 9 | 89 | 311 | 398 |
| Tunisia | -1971 | 4 | 59 | 107 | 379 |
| Jordan | 1961 | - 6 | 52 | 267 | 349 |
| Turkey | 1961 | 4 | 27 | 56 | 72 |

Source: Chamig and Nsuly, 1981, table 2.
For each country having data, the rates of remarriage among widowed and dizforced men are higher than among widowed and divorced women. These data are over 20 years old for three of the countries/in the table, and it will be interesting to compare more recenf rates of remarriage when they become available.
With respect to female/male differences in spouse selection according to previous marital status of bride and groom, the sithors/note that:

As/would be expected, given the relative sizes of the masital groups - that in nearly all countries between 90 and
82 percent of the marriages are homogamous, that is, single choosing single (Chamie and Nsuly, 1981, p. 340).

In general, womien are less likely than men to marry or remarry single persons, except in Jordan. In Jordan in 1974, similer proportions of both sexes married single persons, regardless of their own previous marital statús (Chamie and Nsuly, 1981, tabie 4); In Egypt in 1973, Tunisiá in 1973, and Turkey in 1969, divorced women were more likely than divorced men to miarfy a divorted or widowed person. The exception again is Jordan, where divorced men are more likely than divorced women to remarry a divorces person. Divarced women in Jordan do, however, - marry widowed persons more often than divorced men do.

Older women are particularty lacking in opportunities for remarriage. Data for Egypt, Tunisia, and Jordan \{Chamie and Nsuly, 1981, table 3) show a remarriage rate, af only 2 or 3 per 1,000
 widowers ranges from 73 to 99 fer 1,000. Remerriage rativ, for divorced women of these ages are higher (ranging from 10 to 41 per 1,000 , but they are still substantially below the rates for divorced men (between 123 and 202 per 1,000). These data relate to the early to mid-1960's, and it is not yet known what differences will be reflected when data relating to the current decade become available.

Women-headed households. The reporting of women who are household heads does not indicate whether the women, are
abandoned, separated, divorced, or widowed, or whether mala migration, war , or displacement, hasjbrought about their situation. Five of the 14 countries in the analysis tabulated head of household data by sex of head (see table 5.13). Findings show that women-headed households range from 7 percent of all households in Iran in 1976 to 17 percent in Morocco in 1971. Turkey in 1975 and Tunisia in 1976 reported that 10 percent of all households were headed by women. Given all the problems associated with identifying women-headed households and the general reluctance to report women as household heads, these numbers are conservative, yet they indicate o substantial number of women heads for each country.
A larger proportion of women-hesded households äre reported in urban than rural areas in Morocco, Tunisia, and Iran. The pattems of age-specific rates of women-headed households in both rural and urben areas are typically $U$-shaped, with the highest rates of female heradship reported amonig the very young and among the elderly. For example, 4 out 10 households headed by persons age 15 to 19 years in Turkey are reported to be headed by women, and the rate declines to about 1 out of 10 among/persons age 20 to 24 years. The proportions of households headed by women are not again this high untll household heads are over 60 years of age.

Although fewer than at other ages, the numbers of households headed by adolescents under 20 years of age are not insignificant: For example, in Iran (1976), 13,000 adolescent women and 137,000 -adolescent men were reported as heads of hoüséholds. In Moroccop (1971), 57,000 househoids were headed by women and 167,000 by men in the age group 15 " to 24 years. In Turkey, 49,000 women and 77,000 men age 16 to 19 years were reparted as heads of households. Aithough. it cannot be dehonstrated by the data at hand, adolescent male household hesds are likely to have the support and assistance of an older woman, such as a mother or aunt (who may be the de facto unreported head of household), whereas this is less likely to be the case in homes reporting young female heads.

There is no obvious explanation why the rates of female headship are generally higher among persons age 15 to 19 years inan among persons age 20 to 35 years. The rising proportions of -women-headed households at older ages are more readily explained, in that the increasing incidence of widowhood and the increase in the numbers of divorced and separated persons may help to push up the rates of femaie headship. Cross-tabulations showing marital status, household size, occupational status, and fertility rates of young women who are reported as household heads might lead to an increased understanding of ways to develop policies and programs to improve their welfare, especially since they are often caring for very young children or alderly or debilitated persons. Investigations of the comparative socioeconomic statuses of households reported to be haaded by adolescent wpmen or men would prove interesting. No doubt the reasons for yoporting a young person as head of household differ considerably according to the sex of the person designeted as head.

$\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{s}$

Figure 5.2. Percent Single and Widowed Among Women Age 15 Years and Over -

Western South Asia



'Refers to women age 20 years and over.'

Figure 5.3. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single, by Age


[^33], Figure 5.4. Percent Single Among Women in Two Age


Figure 5.6. Médiann Number of Persons per Household



Persons per


+

18

Table 5.1. Minimum Legal Age at Marriage, by Sox



Table 5.2. Age by Which 25 and 50 Percent of Women and Men Have Ever Been Married, by Rural/Urban Residence


[^34]

## Table 5.3. Percent of Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)
Year or
Sex, région, and country

Women
NORTH AFRICA

| Egypt ${ }^{1}$ | 1976 | 100.0 | 12.3 |  | 69.7 | 16.7 | 1.3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Morocco | 1971 | 100.0 | 17.0 |  | 65.0 | 14.0 | 4.1 |
| Tunisia. | 1975 | 100.0 | 29.9 | ' | 59.4 | 9.5 | 1.2 |

WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


Non-Arab countries
Cyprus.................... 1976

Turkey................... 1980
100.0
100.0
100.0
100.0
100.0
100.0
21.2
25.5
29.6
20.8
10.0
66.5
65.2
59.4
67.5
72.9
10.7
8.4
10.1
10.8
14.7
1.1
1.0

MIDDLE SÓUTH ASIA


Sée footnotes at end of table.
-

## Table 5.3. Percent of Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex-Continued

(Figures may, not add to totals due to rounding)

|  |
| :---: |

Men
NORTH AFRICA

western south asia
Arab countries

| Iraq. | 1977 | 100.0' | 35.9 | 61.4 | 1.5 | 0.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Jordan. | 1979 | 100.0 | 38.3 | 60.3 | 1.0 | 0.4 |
| Lebanon.................. | 1970 | 100.0 | 41.4 | 56.5 | 1.7 | 0.4 |
| Syria.................... | 1970 | 100.0 | 35.8 | 62.1 | 1.8 | 0.4 |
| Yemen (Sanaa)............ | 1975 | 100.0 | 20.5 | 73.7 | 4.0 | 1.6 |
| Non-Arab countries | - | , |  |  |  |  |
| Cyprus.. | 1976 | 100.0 | 32.6 |  | 2.8 |  |
| Turkey................... | 1980 | 100.0 | 31.1 | 66.5 | 1.9 | Q 6 |
| Middle south asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2} . . . . . . . . . .$. | 1972-73 | 100.0 | 34.6 | 60.9 | 4.5 | 0.1 |
| Iran...................... | 1976 | 100.0 | $30: 1$ | 67.8 | 1.6 | 0.4 |

[^35]Tabie 5.4. Percent of Rural Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex
(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

| Sex, region, and country | Year or period | . Total | Single | Married | Widowed | Divorced or separated |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Women
NORTH AFRICA

| Eaypt ${ }^{1}$ | 1976 |  | 100.0 | 52.8 | 37.2 | 9.4 | 0.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Morocco | 1971 |  | 100.0 | 13.2 | 69.3 | 14.2 | 3.3 |
| Tunisia | 1975 |  | 100.0 | 26.7 . | 63.7 | 8.5 | 1.0 |

WESTERN SOUTH ASIA


See footnotes at end of table.

## Table 5.4. Percent of. Rural Population Age 15 Years and Over,

 by Marital Status and Sex-Continued(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)
Sex, region, and

country $\quad$\begin{tabular}{c}
Year or <br>
period

$\quad$ Total $\quad$ Single Married Widowed 

Divorced or <br>
separated
\end{tabular}

Men
NORTH AFRICA

| Egypt ${ }^{1}$ |  | 1976 | 100.0 | 63.5 | 35.3 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Morocco |  | 1971 | 100.0 | 30.6 | 65.9 | 1.0 1.8 | 0.2 |
| Tunisia | + | 1975 | 100.0 | 39.4 | 58.2 | 1.9 | 0.4 |

WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


[^36]Table 5.5. Percent of Urban Population Age 15 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Sex
(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)

| Sex, region, and country | Year or period | $\rangle^{\text {Total }}$ | Single | Married | Widowed | Divorced or separated |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Women
NORTH AFRICA

| Eyypt ${ }^{1}$ | 1976 | 100.0 | 55.9 | 36.1 | 7.2 | 0.8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Morocco | 1971 | 100.0 | 23.6 | 57.5 | 13.6 | 5.4 |
| Tunisia. | 1975 | 100.0 | 32.9 | 55.2 | 10.5 | 1.3 |

WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


See footnotes at end of table.

## Table 5.5. Percent of Urban Population Age 15 Years arid Over, by Marital Status and Sex - Continued <br> (Figures .may not add to totals due to ${ }^{\text {rounding }}$



## Men

NORTH AFRICA

${ }^{1}$ Refers to all ages of the population.
${ }^{2}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.
Note: Percentages are based on total figures excluding the "not stated" marital status category.

Table 5.6. Percent Single Among Population Age $\mathbf{i 5}$ to $\mathbf{4 9}$ Years, by Sex

Women

| NORTH AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Egyp | 1976 | ${ }^{1} 96.5$ | 38.9 | 14.0 | $7.1^{\circ}$ | 4.7 | 4.9 | 3.9 |
| Egypt. | 1971 | 70.2 | 20.4 | 6.0 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.7 |
| Morocco | 1975 | .93.7, | 51.5 | 17.3 | 5.8 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 1.6 |

-WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries
 See footnotes at end of table.

Table 5.6. Percent Single Among Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex-Continued

.Men
NORTH AFRICA

| Egypt. | 1976 | 199.7 | 80.3 | 43.3 | 17.0 | 7.2 | 5.4 | 3.8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Morocco.. . . . . . . . . . . | 1971 | 96.9 | 71.3 | 30.6 | 12.7 | 6.4 | 5.4 4.5 | 3.8 3.5 |
| Tunisia. | 1975 | 100.0 | 90.2 | 49.4 | 16.2 | 7.1 | 4.3 | 3.0 |

## WESTERN SOUTH ASIA

Arab countries


Table 5.7: Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Population Age 15 to 49 Years (Male = 1.00)


## NORTH AFRICA



WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries

| - |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Iray. | 1977 | 0.71 | 0.47 | 0.43 | 0.57 | 0.69 | 0.62 | 0.64 |
| Jordan................... | 1979 | 0.79 | 0.47 | 10.41 | 0.63 | 1.00 | 1.18 | 1.50 |
| Ledanon.............. | 1970 | 0.88 | 0.58 | 0.46 | 0.56 | 0.67 | 0.89 | 1.21 |
| Syria؛................ | 1970 | 0.75 | 0.39 | 0.32 | 0.46 | 0.63 | 0.86 | 0.89 |
| Yemen (Sanaa)......... | 1975 | 0.57 | 0.28 | 0.30 | 0.44 | 0.59 | 0.46 |  |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cyprus................ | 1976 | 0.96 | 0.72 | 0:69 | 1.12 | 2.03 | 2.23 | 2.04 |
| Turkey................ | 1980 | 0.80 | 0.42 | 0.38 | 0.50 | 0.56 | 0.53 | 0.47 |
| MIddle SOuth Asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | * |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{2} . . . . . . .$. | 1972-73 | 0.54 | 0.18 | 0.10 | 0.10 | 0.11 | 0.23 0.56 | 0.11 0.67 |
| Iran................... | 1976 | 0.70 | 0.35 | 0.30 , | 0.35 | 0.42 | 0.56 | 0.67 |

[^37]

## ${ }^{3}$ Table 5.8. Percent Single:Among Rural Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex



See footnote at end of table.

91

## Table 5.8. Percent Single Among Rural Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex_Continued


"Based on 1972-73 survey data the for settled population only.

## Table 5.9. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Rural Population $*$ Age 15 to 49 Years <br> (Male = 1.00)

| Region and country | Year o perio |  | to 19 years |  | to 24 years |  | to 29 years |  | to 34 years | $35$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { to } 39 \\ & \text { years } \end{aligned}$ |  | to 44 years |  | $\text { to. } 49$ years |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NORTH AFRICA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Morocco........... | 197 |  | 0.65 |  | 0.19 |  | 0.15 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Tunisia............ | 1975 |  | 0.92 |  | 0.50 |  | 0.28 |  | 0.35 |  | 0.36 0.30 |  | 0.50 |  | 0.72 0.57 |
| WESTERN SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Iraq.. | 1977 |  | 0.69 |  | 0.46 |  | 0.46 |  | 0.56 |  | 0.54 |  | 0.41 |  | 0.40 |
| Lebanon.............. | 1970 |  | 0.89 |  | 0.59 |  | 0.52 |  |  | ) | 0.57 |  | 0.83 |  | 1.00 |
| Syria................ | 1970 |  | 0.76 |  | 0.38 |  | 0.29 |  | 0.34 |  | 0.38 |  | 0.46 |  | 0.50 |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey. | 1970 |  | 0.84 |  | 0.34 |  | 0.28. |  | 0.33 |  | 0.38 |  | 0.43 |  | 0.56 |
| middle south asia |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Afghanistan ${ }^{1}$. | 1972-73 | , | 0.50 |  | 0.14 |  | 0.08 |  | 0.08 |  | 0.10 |  |  |  |  |
| Iran.................. | 1976 |  | 0.69 |  | 0.35 |  | 0.30 |  | 0.32 |  | 0.35 |  | 0.50 |  | 0.56 |

## Table 5.10. Percent Single Among Urban Population Age 15 to 49, Years, by Sex



## Women

NORTH AFRICA

| Morocc | 1671 | 80.5 | 33.3 | 9.9 | 4.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tunisia. | 1975 | 95.5 | 59.7 | 22.3 | 7.1 | 3.4. | 2.1 | 2.0 |

WESTEKN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries

| Iraq | 1977 | 69.7 | 35.3 | 14.9 | 8.3 | 5.5 | 4.2 | 3.8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lebanon | 1970 | 86.2 | 50.7 | 24.0 | 14.1 | 11.3 | 8.4 | 89 |
| Syria. | 1970 | - 72.8 | 33.3 | 14.1 | 8.3 | 6.2 | 5.5 | $4{ }^{4}$ |
| Non-Arab countries |  |  |  |  |  | ‘ |  |  |
| Tükey | 1970 | 73.6 | 24.3 | 8.0 | 3.7 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 |

MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA

| Afghanistan ${ }^{1}$ | 1972-73 | 65.9 | 25.8 | 7.6 | 3.7 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Iran......... | 1976 | 69.5 | 26.1 | 9.2 | 3.8 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.1 |

See footnote at end of table.

## Table 5.10. Percent Single Among Urban Population Age 15 to 49 Years, by Sex -Continued



Men
NORTH -AFRICA


[^38]

Table 5.11. Female/Male Ratio of Percent Single Among Urban Population

## Age 15 to 49 Years

$\{$ Male $=1.00$ )

${ }^{1}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

## Table 5.12. Percent of Women Who Are Widowed, by Age and Rural/Urban Residence

NORTH AFRICA

| Age | $\text { Moroćco } 1971$ |  | Tunisia 1975 |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Afghanistan }{ }^{1} \\ 1972-73 \end{gathered}$ |  | Iran 1976 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Rural | Urban | Rural | Urban | Rural | Urban | Rural | Urban |
| 15 to 19 year |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 to 24 years.. | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 25 to 29 years.. | 0.7 | 1.0 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| 30 to 34 years.. | 2.5 | 2.1 | 0.1 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| 35 to 39 years.. | 5.0 | 6.9 | 1.9 3.0 | 2.3 | 4.3 | 2.8 | 1.9 | 1.9 |
| 40 to 44 years.. | 10.7 | 13.2 | 5.2 | 7.8 | ${ }_{13}^{5.3}$ | 6.9 | 3.3 | 3.6 |
| 45 to 49 years.. | 16.4 | 19.3 | 8.8 | 13.8 | 13.9 | 11.5 | 6.7 | 7.3 |
| 50 to 54 years.. | 25.7 | 31.9 | 14.9 | 13.0 21.1 | 19.4 | 19.6 | 11.1 | 12.8 |
| 55 to 59 years.. | 31.3 | 38.1 | 22.4 | 29.5 | -42.2 | 31.4 | 20.3 | 22.8 |
| 60 to 64 years.. | 51.9 | 55.9 | 36.2 | -43.1 | . 58.6 | 48.1 | 28.2 | 33.3 |
| 65 years |  | 5.9 | 36.2 |  | 58.6 | 54.7 | 46.0 | 49.8 |
| and over...... | 71.9 | 70.5 | 56.8 | 65.2 | 74.0 | 69.6 | 61.5 | 67.5 |

WESTERN SOUTH ASIA

[^39]
## Table 5.13. Selected Household Characteristics


${ }^{1}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

$$
2
$$

Table 5.14. Percent of Households With Female Heads, by Age of Household Head and Rural/Urban Residence



In developing countries generally, one of the sarliest govern: ment supported programs directed at improving the status of women was focused upon reducing married couples' fertility. The reasons underlying such programs varied with regard to their . specific intentions, for example, to decrease the national populetion growth rate, to reduce matemal and infant morbidity and mortality, or to increase the economic activity of women. The goas of lowered fertility was expressed programmatically through, the design of family planning programs whose aim was to offer contraceptive services primerily to women.

## Quality and Availability of Data

One consequence of governmental interest in the political and socioeconomic goal of reduced fertility is the improvement of data necessary to monitor reproductive behavior. Fertility *surveys have been qonducted in order to augment birth registration data which are typically either inadequate or incomplete, Recently, data have been collected through the. World Fertility Surveys (WFS). Given the amount of attention paid to fertility by researchers, it is surprising to note that there remain a number of gaps in the successful attainment of national statistics on this subject. Some of the most basic national estimates of fertility crude birth rate, total fertility rate, gross reproduction rate, and net reproduction rate -- are missing for severalcountries in the 1 region

Data are collected on contraceptive knowledge and use as well as on fertility. Eariy on, Knowiedge, Attitude, and Practica (KAP) surveys were the primary source of such information. More recently, the WFS and specially designed contraceptive prevalence surveys have provided data. Several problems arise in the measurement of contraceptive knowiedge and use. The incidence and prevalence of contraception depend, for exam() upon whether the husbend's or the wife's use is recorded
(Koenig, 1984). Incidence and prevalence of use also depend to a cartain extent upon the definition of family planning methods used in surveys (United Nations, 1984c). Medical methods (IUD, orai pill, injections, diaphragm) thet are offered by family planning clinics can be counted through clinic records or through community surveys that count both clinic records and methods offered by private practitioners. Female and male sterilization, famale hysterectomy, or induced abortion may or may not be counted as mothods of contraception. Likewise, indigenous methods (such as aspirin inserted into the cervix or breast feeding) may or may not be counted. Even though family planhing is stressed as an important aspect of population policy, estimates of contraceptive knowledge and use are far from complete.

Age-specific fertility rates are available for 10 of the 14 countries in the WID Data Base. Rural/urban differencas in agespecific fertility are avallable for 5 of the 14 countries. Eleven countries in the WiD Data Base have crude birth rates available for the 1970's or later, while seven countries have data indicating their net reproduction rates. Although data on family plannifidwere not compiled in the WID Data Base, supplementary tables are provided from other sources to highlight the general trend in contraceptive use for this region.

## Findings

Fertility retes. Crude birth rates (births per 1,000 population) ere generally high, with lowest rates reported for Cyprus and Tunisla (see table 6.1 and figure 6.1). Total fertility rates also are high (see table 6.1). Four countries have rates of 7 or more births per woman: İraq in 1974, Jordan in 1975-76, Syria in 1976-78, and Afghanistan in 1978-79. An additional four countries reported totai fertility rates that wers between 6.0 and 6.9 births peŕwoman: Algeria in 1978, Egypt in 1976, Marocco in 1972,
and Iran in 1973-76. Lowest total fertility rates are found in Cyprus in 1980 and Turkey in 1974-75, 2.5 and 5.2 children per woman, respectively: Rural/urban differences for these countries follow the classical pattern of higher fertility rates in rural than urban areas (see table 6.2).
Fertility rates by age of women are presented in table 6.3. showing fairly high rates at age 15 to 19 years for Syria, Turkey, Afghanistan, and Iran. For Turkey, this represents an earlier start to a moderate overall level of fertility, whereas for the other three countries the rates remain rather high at other ages in a pattern consistent with their overall high fertility levels.

Four to five-tenths of women's total fertility occurs during their midtwenties to midthirties; the remaining fertility if often fairly - equally divided between the younger and older age groups (see sable 6.4 and figure 6.3). In Cyprus and Turkey, where lifetime fertility is lowest, a substantial portion (about 40 percent) occurs when women are still under age 25 and a correspondingly lower portion after age 35 years.

Contraception. The proportion of currently married women age 15 to 49 years who have ever used methods of contraception ranges from 34 to 67 percent (see table 6.5). The proportions who are currently using a mathod range from a low of 2 percent in Afghanistan to a high of 53 percent in Lebanon.

For countries with data, the evidence suggests that there is a wide mix of family planning methods used by married couples (see table 6.6). Two of the most common methods used are the pill and withdrawal. Interestingly, in Lebanon, where total fertility is the lowest among Arab countries, the majority of current users are using withdrawal, a nonprogram method.

Women's Education and Fertility Reduction

Although it is not the purpose of this chapter to explain the determinants of fertility, it is important to note that one significant factor influencing fertility, is female educational attainment. Fertility rates are negatively associated with wife's educational attainment in Near Eastem and North African countries (AbouGamrah, 1980; Chamie, 1981; and Kandis, 1977). A popular explanation for the high fertility rates found in much of the region Is that Muslims have higher fertility than other religious groups, and Arab countries are predominantly Muslim. A recent multivariate analysis of the determinants of fertility in Lébanon showed that religious status interacts with female educational attainment in the explanation of fertility behavior among Muslims and Christians. In a study of almost 3,000 married couples residing in Lebanon, religious differences in fertility were signiflcant among women who were less educated and were not significant for women with higher educational lovals (Chamie, 1981). Differences in fertility rates among Druze, Surinf and Shi's Muslims, and Catholic and non-Catholic Christians wers significant at lower educationsl levels of the mother and"not significant at higher educational levels. The evidence that female education significantly reduces the completed family size of married couples regardiess of their religious affiliation strongly suggests that, in addition to family planning programs, the opportunity for girls and women to further their education is one effective means of reducing future fertility (see Kandis, 1977; and AbouGamrah, 1980).

## Figure 6.1. Crude Birth Rates



Sourca: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983.

Figure 6.2. Gross and Net Reproduction Rates
$\substack{\text { Rate per } \\ \text { woman } \\ 4}$
0



[^40]Figure 6.3. Distribution of Lifetime Fertifity,
by Age of Mother




Percent


Soe footnotes to table 6.4.

## Table 6.1. Crude'Birth Reie, Total Fertility Rate, Gross Reproduction Rate, and Net Reproduction Rate



## NORAH AFRICA.

| Algeria ${ }^{\text {a }}$. | 1980 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Egypt. | 1981 |
| Morocco | 1972 |
| Tunisia | 1980 |



WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


| (NA) | (NA) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 89 | 7.34 |
| 934 | 95.54 . |
| 1046 | 107.47 |
| (NA) | $\because(N A)$ |

(NA)
(NA)
${ }^{11} 3.68$
(NA)

Non-Arabi countries
Cyprus
Turkey
MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA
Afghanistaq ${ }^{14}$.................. .. . ${ }^{1978-79}$
Iran

- Refers to the resident Algerian population only.

2 Refers to 1978.
${ }^{3}$ Refers to 1976.
4 Refers to 1975.
$\therefore$ Recent data not available.. Adjustiny, births, for 5-percent-underregistration, $V a l l i n(1981$ ). estimated a TFR of 6.10. for 1968.

- ${ }^{\circ}$ Benchmark data not available. Based on' results from a 1974 fertilihty survey, a CBR of 43 and and TFR of 7.13 are reported (UNECWA, 1980;' pp. 5-10).
? Excludes East Jerusalem.
d-Refers to 1974 and includes West Bank.
Y Refers to the lqwer limit of an estimated, ranye; the upper. limit figures are 38 for CBR, and 6:17 for. TFR.
it) Refers to the lower limit of an estimated range. The upper. 1 imit, figures are 47 for CBR and 7.62 for TFR ( $f$ or 1976-78) .
* Refers to 1970.
1.2 Complete data not available. Based on 1972 adjusted survey data for Sanaa City, a CBR of 45 , a TFR of 6.94, and a GRR of. 3.3 can be estimated.
13 Refors to 1980.

14. Based on 1979 census data for the settled, population

## Table 6.2. Crude Birth Rate and Total Fertility Rate, by Rural/Urban Residence



Table 6.3. Age-Specific Fertility Rates, by Rural/Urban Residence (Rates pier: 1.000 women)


[^41]
## Table 6.3. : Age-Specific Fertility Rates, by Rural/Urban' Residence-Continued (Rates per 1,000 women)



WESTERN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries


Urban
WESTEKN SOUTH ASIA
Arab countries

| Jordan | 1975-76 | 59 | 259 | 330 | 302 | 206 | 100 | 34 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Syria².............. | 1977-78 | 119 | 285 | 314 | 247 | 166 | 77 | 11 |
| Non-Arab countries |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkey.. | 1974.75 | 120 | 287 | 210 | 137 | 82 | 24 | 10 |
| MIDDLE SOUTH ASIA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |
| Afyhanistan ${ }^{3}$. | 1978-79 | 118 | 255 | 267 | 235 | ${ }^{\text {r }} 171$ | 75 | 40 |
| Iran. | 1973-76. | 111 | 252 | 217 | 147 | 100 | 46 | 12 |

1 Refers to the resident Alyerian population only.
2 Refers to the lower limit of an estimated range.
3 Refers to the settled population only.
Note: Data for Algeria, Egypt, and Morocco in North Africa, and Cyprus and Lebanon in Western. Soutn Asia are not available by rural/urban residence.

Table 6.4. Percent Distribution of Lifetime Fertility; by Age of Mother and Rural/Urban Residence
(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)


See footnotes at end of table.

100.0
35.3
43.1

## Table 6.4. Percent Distribution of Lifetime Fertility, by Age of Mother and Rural/Urban Residence-Continued

(Figures may not add to totals due to rounding)


[^42]Note: Data for Alyeria, Egypt, and Morocco in North Africa, and Cyprus and Lebanon in Western South Asid are not available by rural/urban residence.

Table 6.5. Contraceptive Use Among Currently Married Women Age 15 to 49 Years (In percent)


## Table 6.6, Percent Distribution of Contraceptive Users Among Currently Married Women Age 15 to 49 Years, by Method <br> (Figures may not add to total due to rounding)



Clinic-and supply methods

-- Value is nil or negligible.
1 Refers to age 15 to 44 years.
4 figures do not add to 100 because women using a combination of methods are shown under each method.

Source:, United Nations, 1984, table 6.

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}

Life expectancy for both sexes varies widely across countries. Female life expectancy at birth in Afghanistan is estimated to be 40 years; in Cyprus, it is 76 years. The range for life expectancy at birth of men is from 42 years in Afghanistan to 72 years in Cyprus.

- Life expectancies are tower in rural than urban areas in Turkey. Iran, and Afghanistan, the itree countries with available data (see table 7.2). Rural females in Iran and Afghanistan had lower life expectancies than did their rural male counterparts. In Turkey, fentale life expectancies are higher then those for males in both rural and urban settings.

In general, however, in both rural and urban areas, the life expectancies of women and men are remarkably similar in this tegion. According to the United Nations (1982, p. 88): ,

National differences not withstanding, the weight of evidence yould seem to justify the conclusion that, throughout Northern Africe, female mortality has usually exceeded that of the males during part of the post-neonatal period and early childhood. The shiff from excess male to excess female mortality may öccur at different times during infancy in such a way as to make infant mortality rates for males alternate between slightly higher and, slightly lower than femate infant mortality rates. In addition, with the exception of Egypt, there would seem to be a similar tendency for female excess among the age-specific death rates during part of the reproductive ages from 15 through 1. 49 years. In general, males have higher death rates at other - ages in the region; the net resuit is unusually small sex differences in life expectancy at birth.

Age patterns of mertality. The typical $U$-shaped curve describes the overall pattern of the probability of dying at each age for countries having availäbte data (see tables 7.4 and 7.5). Aithough similarly $U$-shaped, there is a great deal of variation across the countries in the values for the probability of dying, in any age group. For example, the female death rate between birth and 1 year per 1,000 infants born alive ranges from 20 in Cyprus in 197677 to 173 in Afghanistan in 1979. For males, the range is from 26 in Cyprus to 186 in Afghanistan.

Even for ages 10 to 15 years, when the probability of dying is typically at its lowest, the variation across countries is quite remarkable. The number of female deaths per 1,000 females alive at age 10 ranges from 28 in Afghanistan to only 6 in Turkey and under 1 in Cyprus.

Tables 7.4 and 7.5 stiow that the probability of dying at any age is higher for males than for females, with several exceptions. In Iran in 197376 and in Syria in 1976, girls under age 5 years , have a higher probab!lity of dying than do boys of the same age, - suggesting the possible differential treatment of femaie and maie infants. The Synian pattern of higher probabilities of dying for females than males is quite prolonged, lasting from birth until age 20 vears (see table 7.4). In Morocco in 1972, Iran in 1973 76. and Afghanistan in 1979, the probability of dyith is migher for women than men in the reproductive ages, 15 to 49 fears, suggesting that maternal mortality is a primary health çare
issue for these countries (see table 7.4). In Algeria, Cyprus, and Turkey, the probability of dying is lower for females than males at almost every age (see table 7.4). In Afghanistan, with the exception of children under age 5 years, females have higher probabilities of dying at every age.

Life tables showing rural/urban differences in the probability - of dying are not avelilable for the Arab countries. Differences for Turkey, Afghanlstan, and Iran in the rural/urban age patterns of mortality are shown in table 7.5. Each of these countries shows higher rural than ifban mortality rates for all ages and for both sexes. Gender differences in age-specific probabilities of dying show lower age-specific female than male mortaity in both rural and urban Turkey in 1974-75. In Afghanistan in 1979, the findings are reversed; consistently higherprobabilities of dying are found for femates than males in both rural and urban areas except at the youngest ages. Female mortality rates for urban areas in Afghanistan do not drop below the rates found for males until age 55 years. In rural areas, the probability of dying remains higher for females than males even after age 55 years. Life table estimates for Iran in 1973-76 show higher probablities of dying for females in every age group under 50 years for rural areas. In urban areas, females also have higher probabilities of dying in every age group under 30 years with one exception. After age 30 years, urban males have higher probabilities of dying than urban females.

Higher rural and urban probabilities of dying are indicated for, women in Afghanistan when compared to rural and urban women in Turkey and Iran. In general, the extreme differences in the probability of dying, between rural and urban females for all three countries are found in the rates for young girls (urder age 5 years) and among elderly women (see table 7.5). Rural/urban differences in the mortality of middle-aged women are least pronounced, although stilliconsistently higher in rural than urban areas.

Infant mortality. Infant mortality rates range from a low of 16 deaths per 1.000 live births in Cyprus to a high of 182 deaths in Afghanistan. Intermediate rates are shown for Iran, Algeria, and Turkey (see table 7.3), Male infant mortality rates are higher than female rates in Algeria, Morocco, Cyprus, Turkey, and Atghanistan. Female infant mortality rates are similar but slightly higher than male rates in Jordan and iran. In general, the infant mortality rates for girls änd boys are similar for these countries. Strong preferential treatment of either sex is not readily apparent from these data.
Increased female educational attainment is strongly associated with the probability of surviving for young children (Brass, 1980). Abou-Gamran 11980), for example, showed that for Cairo, in 1976, the probability of surviving from birth to age .5 years strongly increased with mothers' educational attainment. A pregnancy follow-up study in Syria found that infant mortality was mpre than twice as high among children of illiterate women than among those whose mothers could read and write (Syria, 1984).

Abou-Garmrah (1980, p. 90) noted that, "... of course, education does not exert its influence-directity on fartility or on childhood mortality but rather thraugh some intervening
variables, which themselves are the immediate determinants of fertility or childhood mortality." Some of the intervening variables shat have been cited in the literature for their effects upon children's mortality levels are "... high fertility and its concomitant, the close spacing of births. This combination often results in premature deliveries and low-birth-weight infents, bothई; of which increase the risk of infant deaths's (United'Nations, 1982b, p. 140). The nutritional status of children, hygiene, and access to primary health and medical care contribute directly to child mortality and are linked to the educational attainment and socioeconomic status of mothers (United Nations, 1982b. p. 140; and Abou-Gamrah, 1980, p. 90).

The impact of mother's educational attainment on reductions in child mortality is slightly greater for girls than for boys. In Jordan. the average proportion of girls who die by age 2, 3, and 5 years is 12.4 percent for illiterate mothers, and 4.0 percent for mothers who have a secondary school education. For boys, the comparable rates are 11.9 percent and 5.4 percent, respectively.

Average Proportion of Children Who are Dead by Age 2, 3, and 5 Years, by Sex of Child and'Mother's Educational Attainment for Jordan: 1976

| Sex of child | Mother's educational attainment: |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Illiterate | Literate | Primary | Preparatory | Socondary |
| Feinale . | 0.1239 | 0.0999 | 0.0885 | 0.0764 | 0.0405 |
| Male | 0.1188 | 0.0885 | 0.0898 | 0.0609 | 0.0540 |

Source: Brass, 1980, table 8.
Another way to view survivorship of children is through the percent of children dying before their fifth birthday as estimated through life table techniques. The range in the proportion of childreh dying before age 5 years is from 2 to 28 percent for this region (see table' 7.6 and figure 7.3). Gender differences in the percent dying are quite small and, not in a consistent direction.
$\nabla$

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Figure 7.1. Life Expectancy at Birth for Women and Men



See foornotes to table 7.1." : ' 等

## Figure 7.2. Female/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates

F/M ratio (male $=1.0$ )

F/M ratio $($ male $=1.0)$


## Western South Asia

F/M ratio
(male $=1.0$ )




- Ferfale rate equals male rate.
${ }^{\prime}$ See footnotes to table 7.3.



## Table 7.1. Life Expectancy at_Birth and at Age 1 Xear for Women and Men, and Female/Male Ratio of Life Expesctancies



- Recentrofata not avatlable. Estimates of life expectancy at birth in 1968 are 53.0 years for women and $\$ 3,1$ years for men, and at age" 1 , year, 60.2 years for women and 60.3 , years for men.

2Data nqt ayailable by'sex: Life expectancy at birth in 1970 . for both sexes combined is estimated
at 66.2 years, and at age 1 year, 68.6 years.
${ }^{3}$ Refers to 1976-77:
"Refers, to the settied popuiation only. /

Table 7.2. Life Expectancy at Birth and at Age 1 Year for Women and Men, and Female/Male Ratio of Life Expectancies, by Rural/Urban Residence

${ }^{1}$ Refer's to the settled population only.

## Table 7.3. Infant Mortality Rates, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Infant Mortality Rates

| Regiom and country | Year or period | Total | Girls | Boys | $\begin{array}{r} F / M \text { ratio } \\ (\text { male }=1.00) \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| north africa. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alyeria.. | 1978 |  |  |  |  |
| Egypt... | 1979 | 177 | (NA) | (NA) | \& . $\quad \begin{aligned} & 0.97 \\ & \text { (NA) }\end{aligned}$ |
|  | 1972 | 162 | 152 | 171 | - $\begin{array}{r}\text { (NA) } \\ 0.89\end{array}$ |
| Tunisịa | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) | (NA) |  |

Westekin sumpl Asia
Arab countries.


Non-Arab countries

-


Table 7.4. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men
(Number of deaths occurring between ages $x$ and $x+n$ per 1,000 persons alive at exact age $x$ )


## Table 7.4. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men-Continued

(Number of deaths occurring between', ages $x$ and $x+n$ per 1,000 persons alive at exact age x )


Note: $x=$ Exact age at beginning of age interval, in years. $n=$ Length of age interval, in years.

Table 7.5. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Turkey, Afghanistan, and Iran
(Number of deaths occurring between ages $x$ and $x+n$ per 1,000 persons alive at exact age $\times$ )

- Turkey 1974-75



See note at end of table.

184

Table 7.5. Age Pattern of Mortality for Women and Men, by Rural/Urban Residence, for Turkey, Afghanistan, and İran-Continued
(Number of deaths occurring between ages $x$ and $x+n$ per 1,000 persons alive at exact
age $x$ )


Note: $x=$ Exact age at beginning of age interval, in years. $n=$ Length of age interval, in years.

Table 7.6. Percent of Children Dying Before Their Fifth Birthday, by Sex, and Female/Male Ratio of Percent Dying


[^43]

The use of statistical categories which traditionally reflect men's status in order to study wamen's status in the developing world is a relatively recent phenomenon. To a great extent, the normative way to measure the status of men wes through the recording of their occupations, educstional levels, and incomes, by age. The status of women, in contrast, was measured indirectly through their household and marital status, that is,

- Yáther's, brother's'; or husbarid's occupation, educational attainment, and income. Women's economic activities, which went largely unstudied, often revolved arouind household demande for chikdren, food, domestic praduction, household management, and the shifting requirements of household production, be it agricultural, political, or 'business and erade. Researchers' attempts to take the occupational and educational measures of men's status and apply'them to the messurement of women's status slowly led to the realization of the inadequacies inherent in this approach and the observation that the status of women - is closely linked to the'social attitudes and expectations of their own work.

Other elarly attempts to measúte the status of women focused upon women's reproductive behavior, distinguishing between different roles and expectations of women and men. Researchers again became uncomfortafie with this approach, as it became more and more obvious that while the status of women is undoubtedly reffected in a couple's fertility behavior, the social and cultural mifiey is a determining factor in whether large families and high fertility are viewed as reflecting high or low status of women.

Analytical problems also arose when researchers shifted to the study of women's work and educational attainmemt in order to measure wornen's sikatüs. The rich variation found in the occupationas and educational characteristics of women clearly - - -ted to be examind for the status associated with any par-..
ticular situation. For example, women in the Near East and North Africa can be found to have high status and little education (indigenous midwives and healers, successful traders, 'and managers of large and wealthy rural households), or womencen be found to have lower status and greater educational attainment (secretaries with high school or college diplomas who work' - iǹ lower echelon elerical positions). Government programs promoting feitility reduction might affect women's status through role incampatiblity. For example, a secretary who works a full day outside the home and does at least some domestic production of goods and services in the household may strive to reduce her fertility in order to manage both work situations. Under such conditions, the changing státus of women becomes difficult to evaluate or interpret.

From another perspective, researchers have also argued for the incorparation. of women's work, as it is traditionally conceived, into national dsta collection systems. This too has its difficulties. Problems in measurement abound when assessing women's work responsibilities as traders, buyers, farmers, weavers, tailors, indigenous physicians, cement carriers, and teachers. The sporadic seasonal farm work of women lin conjunction with the domestic production of foods and services when they are not working in the fieids), the private practices of indigenous healers and midwives, and the trading and bartering activities of women agriculturalists, cannot be as' readily meásured through traditional survey questions, even when women and men have similar occupations. This is due largely to the different cuttural perceptions and expressions of work used for women and men, and also to the compiexity and sophistication required.for measuring sporadic work which does not fit into the traditional nime-to-five work schedule of modern. or industrial occupations. Often, when such sporadic work is dene by men it is called an occupation; when it'is done by women, it is perceived as part of their domestic responsibility."

Part of the problem in the measurement of work has been the lack of understanding that, in many societies, both households and individuals are economically active and have occupations. Households and individuals have family sizes. Families manage farms apd coordinate taxi services and the movement of goods from one vilage to another. Households run street peddling businesses or run for political office. In these situations, women's status emerges from their occupational and household roles, just as minen's does. Women'sroles, however, are often incorporated into household production differently than men's are. Measuring the different contributions of women and men, and for that matter, measuring the joint contributions of both. sexes to household income and status, is not an easy task. The data for such an analysis are not completely satisfactory.

Within the framework of household status, the role of the unpaid family worker emerges in a new light. To a certain extent, the status of women who work as unpaid family workers is dependent upon the socioeconomic and occupational status of the household or industry where the work is conducted. Working hours, working conditions, she economic benefits that are equivalent to a salary, and the degree of independence in the work situation, vary from one situation to another. Womarr who manage large agricultural households or who run a busirfess jointly with a partner or family are not of the same status s? upationally as women who thrasti wheat or rice in family fie.g from dawn to dusk while carrying small children on their backs. - Similar to the issue of economic activity, the household status of women also needs further clarification. The presence or absence of a male head in a household does not, in itself, reflect the status of the women who reside there; additional analysis is necessary. The work of men who have migrated abroad and send home regular incornes to the household might actually increase women's domestic economic productivity in some households by releasing their time for home production (Basson, 1982). Greater household income, under such cirçumstances, might lead to increased househoid purchasing power, thereby improving domestic and househoid economic productivity. Such a household situation should be differentiated from households, having at least two adults who work outside the home in wageearnige positions, which leads to reduced domestic household economic productivity yet results in higher socioeconomic status for the household. The two-wage-earner household or multiple-wage-earner household contrasts with household's having one wage earner who is responsible for both domestic economic production and income, that is, the womari-headed household under conditions where the woman head works as a wage earner ousside of the household whilemanaging the domestic side as well. There is also the idealized situation of a wage-earning man and domestically oriented woman who neither earns a wage nor is involved in domestic economic productivity. In this case, a woman's status is perceived as emanating primarily from her husband's status. Yet even then, her contributión to household economic productivity may be substantial. Each of these household sifuations can be identified only through further, more complicated, and detailed cross tabulations of nationdl data sets.
The purpose of examining women's socioetonomic and demographti situations in light of these conceptual, methodological, and analytical problems, is not to argua that the endeavor is
futile. On the contrary, it is filled with challenge. There is little direct evidence from national data bases indicating the status of women, although the indirect evidence is plentiful.
This project reviewed some of the existing published census and national survey tabulations from the WID Data Base. Examples were offered from other research in "order to highlight alternatives available for a more comprehensive analysis of the problem. Findings from the data available for 14 selected countries of the Near East and North Africa revealed various dimensions to the study of women's status in this region which have implications for policy formulation and implementation.

## Policy Implications and Future Research

Demographic characteristics and population change. The analysis of the demographic situation of the various countries revealed gender differences in their composition and growth. Labor-importing countries were found to hatve a smaller number. of women than men, while the opposite was found for laborexporting countries. Fertility was found to be generally high, with moderate levels of contraceptive use. Mortality patterns suggested that gender differences in mortality were provalent during the reproductive ages for several countries, but that in generit, mortality differences between women and men were not large. Migration, both internal and international, was found to be the most dynamic aspect of demographic change within the region.
Governments and experts concluded at the Post-Worid Popula-: tion Conference Consultations that population giowit rates, although relatively high in most of the Asian Arab countries, do not generaly constifute a barrier to regional davglopment. They concluded instead, that the economic and political future of some countries, in fact, is more affected by international and internal migration than by natural increase (Tabbarah, of al., 1978). Some aconcern was expressed about high fertility, primarily as it relates to the health, welfare, and status of women. Lebanon; Syria, and Jordan have expressed the most concern about the effects of high fërtility upon the status of women, as have Egypt and Tunisia. Tabbarah noted that Kuwait and Yemen (Sanaa) are also movinglin this direction (Tabbarsh, et al., 1978, p: 91.
The implications.of international migration of men to the Gulf from such ciountries as Kemen (Sanaa) need furtior consideration for their effects upon women. Youssef and Hetler (1982) noted:

The relationship between male migration and the formation of woman-headed households revolves around shrse central issues: the period of absence; the consequences of male absence on household patterns; and the nature of the economic relationship between temporarily absent men and remaining household members (1982, p."78).

High sex ratios found insome countries and the strong evidence indicating that migration is a significant factor in determining population growth and composition in the Near East and North Africa suggest that further scientific study of effects of migration upon women is required,

Athough data were not readily available to study the ethnic. linguistic, or religjous composition of the countries, aspects of ethnic composition that would be important in understanding the status of women include: (1) linguistic patterns that'are based upon ethnic background and educational attainment of women; (2) heavy international or internal migration of one sex in a particular ethnic group; (3) policies and behavior with respect to intemarriage; and (4) regional patterns of ethnic, religious, or linguistic groups that are influenced by gender.

When planning community development activities such as adult literacy programs or agricultural extension educatian, for example, it is important to know the languages utilized by both fiterate and illiterate women in order to form adequate lines of communication. It dannot always be assumed thiat classical Arabic is understood equally by women and men. To a certain extent, their comprehension of the classical language used for news reportage and tetevision and radio programs is dependent upon the years of schooting they have had. Also, languages used in school may not match those used at home when there are large ethnic enclaves within the population.
Reportedly low rates of intermarriage among ethnic groups in this part of the world, the degree of opportunity offered new immigrants according to their ethnic and religious background, and the extent to which the social welfare system incorporates new imm'grants, all need to be carefuliy examined. If intermarriage is rare and marriage across religious lines is not supported by a civil system, then the unequal distribution of population among ethnoreligious groups might cause tension and frustration.

Lherncy and education. Although school enrollment for girls and boys in the Near East and North Africa has improved significantly from 20 years ago, the improvements in school attendance, literacy, and educational attainment have been selectively gchiéved. 'it gppesars that ürban men have benefited the most from educational reform, and rurai women the least.

Data available from censuses, national surveys, and school registration systems, although inadequate in many respects, do reveal the stratification that is operating in many educational systems. Policy formulation directed toward improvement in female eduçtional attainment must distinguish between the kinds af reforms required in high, moderate, and low enrollment countries; for highly illiterate older populations of women; and for younger rural women who continue to remain 'outside the educational system. Why is it that the system fails to reach young rural girls? Much "̈more research needs to be done in this specific area using additional measufes of educational opporiunity. for example, estimates of distance to upper primary schools that allow giris to attend; an analysis of school types (lower primary, upper primaty, and sex-segregated schools) available to eligible female, of male populations; the proportion of women teachers available especially for sex-ségregated school systems: seasonal fluctuations in the ability of girls and boys
to attend schoo;; gender differences in work petterns of children; and so forth (Chamie, 1983b). Perhaps the inadequate educational system in many rural areas, especially when it comes to serving girls, explains some of the migration of women age 15 to 19 years to urban centers tha was noted in chapter 2. It is likely that a significant proportion of young women who migrate to cities does so for educetional and vocational opportunities that are simply not available in rural areas.

Economic activity. Ocrupations most readily available to women in the modern sector are those of teacher, nurse, and secretary. Women who work in these occupations, on the whole, are less educated than their male counterparts. Indirect evidence of their occupational status is reflected in the proportion of women who work as unpaid family helpers.
With the exception of teaching and nursing, and perhaps some managerial agricultural and government extension work, there a, lew modern sector occupations for women in rural areas: For this reason, cerisus reporting of women's work inirural areas is most apt to reflect the definitions used for agricultural workers. The more careful the estimates of unpaid family workers in agricultural areas, the more likely it is that wonen's work is accurately reflected in the census. In urben areas, on the other hand, women who are unpaid family workers are more likely to go unreported when they work in small family shops or in family businesses, especially when their work can be performed in the home. The likelihood of finding a womah working in a modern sector jab is, however, higher in urban areas because of the opportunity to work in corporations and large bureaucracies as a clerk, secretary, teacher, nurse, fanitoress, or domestic servant. Beceuse of this, the analysis of women's economic activities would be enhanced if census tabulations for rural and urban apeas were provided by detailed occupational categories in both the modern and traditional sectors and by employment status, age, and sex. These iypes of census tabulations are currently rare, even though the data are often collected. Policy analysts and planners should be encouraged to request further breakdowns of existing census data in order to clarify the factors that are currently blurred when presenting the total economic activity rates of rural and urban women.

Although the overall employment trends, which indicate an increasing number of women viorking in a professional capacity and greater numbers working in the industial and service sectors rather than as agricultural laborers, might lead one to be optimistic about the sfatus of women in the Near East and North Africa, these findings must be interpreted carefully. Some of the findings undoubtedly reflect changing methodologies and data collection procedures, especially in ragard to the reporting (or lack of reporting) of unpaid famil workers and agricultural laborers. In addition, among womer sector, average wage earnings and hevels of educational attaith ment within occupations, as well as the lack of occupational diversity regardess of educational' attainment, lead one to surmise that the integration of women into the modern sector is not without its problems. The findings for the Near East and North Africa subgest that there should be careful reassessment of how women should be, and are, integrated inṭo the modern; $\tilde{:}_{;}$189

It does not appear to be sufficient to have policies directed only toward increasing women's labor force participation. The characteristics of women whowerk, the quality of the work they do. the kind of opportunities open to working women for further a specialization and promotion, the degrep of attention paid by goverimponts and professional associations for upgrading occupations dominated by women, and attempts to diversify their occupations, all are important aspects of policy development needing statistical assessment.

The findings presented in this study indicate the need to explain why women, even highly educated women, remain confined to lower echelon positions even when integrated into the modern sector. What are the forces leading to their limited number of occupations? As improvements are made in the collection of work data, researchers will be able to praceed beyond an anatysis of broad social trends and will be able to conduct more thorough multivariate analyses of such factors as occuṕational diversity; status within occupational sectors; educational attainment of workers within occupations; comparative incomes; the status of rural and urban workers by sex, marital status. occupation, and employment status;' and the role of part-time employment, underemployment, and seasonal employment in explaining women's economic activities.
A further question arises especially in the case of the laborimporting countries. To what extent coluld their labor needs be met by beiter education, training, and utilization of women in the countries themselves instead of by the importation of foreign, skilled workers? Policy decisions are clearty needed in this area' as well.

Marital status and living arrangements. The intricacies of marriage in the Near Esst and North Africa are fascinating, given the'subtle cultural differences which occur in their patterns. The sensitivity of the methodology and data collection processes used to measure marriage and living arrangements varies con.suderably in quality and quantity.

The basic categories of marital status; by themselves, offer some interesting contrasts between the sexes. Young women enter into marriage at an earlier age than young men, even though virtually all women and men eventually marry. Rural women enter into marriage at earlier ages than most urban women. Married women whe are subsequently divorced or widowed have less opportunity for remarriage than do men who are widowed or divorced. Divorced women are more likgely than. widowed women to remarry, even atter contrơlling for age differences (Chamie fand Nsuly, 1981 ).

Young women show higher rates of household headship than - do mudde aged women. The problems of maintaining hauseholds at very young ages, that is, under age 20 years, require particular atterition to the social welfare and economic conditions of the -, , household. Women-headed households are likely to be disadvantaged in many respects because of the types of social sitúa-- tions that lead to the reporting of women as heads of households. Tho problems of older and younger women who carry the burdens of maintaining a household are probably quite different thom the problems of middle aged womentn the same situation. ERIC ?olicy formation pertaining to these various types of househoflas
requires knowledge about the age and marital status of women who head households and the socioeconomic status of women heads and their families. Refinements in the conceptualization and measurement of household headship, as well as in data collection procedures, are needed to improve the ability of censuses to identify women-headed households. Until this can be done, further cross-tabulations which indicate pasic socioeconomic, occupational, and demographic characteristics of women-headed households already identified in censuses could readily be made without any additional data collection.

## Conclusions

The tables presented in, this handbook introduce the reader to some of the topics covered by censuses and large-scale surveys that can be used to analyze the status of women. There is much that remains to be analyzed through the use of existing published census tabulatias. For meny decades, governments have collected data relewant to the stetus of women; however, with the exception of their fertility behavior, the socioeconomic characteristics of women have not peen extensively analyzed. Topics not covered in this handbook that could be analyzed with existing census tlata include: (1) the degree of diversity in the educational and gecupational attainment of women who work in either the traditional or the modern economic sectors; (2) the, underemployment of women as reflected by the cross-tabulation of educational attainment with current occupation; (3) the cort: parative socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of special types of women and men, such as the unemployed, disabled, elderly, or widowed; (4) the situation of women residing in different types af dwellings. (tent dwellers, those in permanent homes, and nomadic groups); and (5) the differential sacioeconomic situation of women by bousehold type.

These are but a fow of the kinds of analyses that are currently possible for many countries in the region which still need to be completed. In addition to the potential for analysis of the existing published cross-tabulations, there is a potential for preparing special tabulation's for further analysis. For exampla; special country projects could be designed to andlyze the, socioeconomic ańd demograpilic characteristics of women-headed households, such as educational attainment of the woman head, her marital status, age, occupation, family size, type of dwalling, and so on. In addition, projects could be designed that use existing census tapes to analyze the age, sex, marital status, and educational attainment of women and men in specific occupations. the greater the utilization of existing published data and census and survay data tapes for the sfudy of the situation of women in the Near East and North Aftica, the more powerful and knowledgeable future survey research on this subject ctan be. If currently existing statistics are not successfully utilized to point out the strengths and weaknesses of these data for the analysis of the situation of women in this region, future research projects will be implemented without the full benefit of previous experience. In 'addition. given the immediate requirement of policymakers and planners to have data for the preparation of relevant programs and policies Which'affect women, it is impera--tiverthst existing data bases not be overlooked. Greater
understanding of the problems of studying women (be they problems in conceptualization, data collection, or analysis) will evolve from researchers' increased experience with these early data bases for purposes of policy development and program planning.
The Near East and North Africa region varies widely in its socioeconomic and demographic situation of women. It is rich in complexities and in data. With respect to the changing situation of women and its effect upon their status, a great deal of *. data remain unanalyzed, and a number of conceptual and meth' odological problems remain unresolved. The number of governments and researchers interested in working with census data for the study of the status of women in this region has increased rapidly over the last several decades. This handbook is meant
to encourage the further utilization of census and national surveys for this purpose:

The investigation of the differences between women and men in their sociosconomic and demographic situations is both difficult and challenging and should not be ignored simply because improved data bases are required. Much of the future improvement in research on women will, no doubt, evolve becsuse' of the difficulties confronted by date anaiysts using existing data bases. There is a continual struggle between what is theoretically desired and what is realistically possible. Salutions to the measurement problem will evolve from both the clarification of theory and the development of mora adequate methods of analysis.

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The primary source of the statistical data analyzed in this handbook is the WID Data Base created by the Center for International Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census, under the auspices of USAID. The data file, including statistics from national censuses and surveys for 120 countries worldwide, is contained on a computer tape. The capability also exists for selecting änd printing tables in a standardized format. A list of table tities for which data were compiled, by sex and rural/urban residence, may. be found in appendix \(\mathbf{C}\).

\section*{Salaction and Quality of Data .}

As is well known, there are vast differences in both the quantity and the quality of statistics reported by the various countries. Furthermore, in spite of international reconameindations, such as those provided by the United Nations, for the standardization of concepts and definitions pertaining to data collected in censuses and surveys, there continue to be wide discrepancies in data collection practices because of legitimate differences of what is appropriate in the varying cultural contexts. As a result, any attempt to compile standard data across countries, such'as those in the WID Data Base, requires some decisions about whether and how the reperted data should be manipulated so as to provide comparability. Certainly there is not a single right solution to this problem, but it is essentlal to set rules from the start so that consistent decisions are made wheņever similar data situations are encounterad among countries.
Thintandards used in selecting and evaluating the data for inclusion in the data base depend to some extept on the type of dajotring considered. For the demographic stubjects, only dpha of benchmark quality are inciuded. The concept of benchmark data refers to statistics las reported by the country, as adjusteḍ by rgsearchers, or as derived by applying demographic techniques to incomplete datal which have been evaluated by the Censug Bureau analysts ald have been judged to be as representalive as possible of the true situation. These data are internally consistent for a givgif countrifor example, birth rates, death rates, international migration rates, populatiad browth \(\mathrm{o}^{\circ}\) /s, and age/sex complosition all fit together in a logical
demographic pattem) and are consistent with other facts that are known about the country (for example, fofility lovels are consistent with family planning practices and goals, and mortality levels are consistent with knowg health indexes).
These data also have been checked for external consistency. They have been compared to data for other countries In the same region or subregion, and to those elsewhere at approximately the same level of economic and social development, to ensure that they are not out of line. Benchmark data refer to.the date on which the census or survey was. taken, that is, no projections beyond thr reference date are included amiong them.

Demographic data that do not conform to these rigid benchmark requiremants are generally rot included in the data base. The source and method of derivation of the estimates are explained in the notes accompanying each table.
For sociosconomic variables (data on households, marital status, education, and aconomic activity) less rigid requirements were piaced on the accuracy of the data. No techniques have been applied to evaluate the quality of the data in the secloeconomic tables, and most of these statistics are presented as they appear in the original sources. Nevertheless, the same care has been taken to annotate the sources and to explain any discrepancies in totals.or deviations from standard international practices.

\section*{Concepts and Definitions}

Concepts and dafinitions usually are not standardized among couritries beyond what has already been done by the.countries themsolves for two reasons: firsit, the information is usually not available to manipulate the data to conform to standard concepts; and second, the differing concegts or definitions are often deliberately developed fof éech country's particular situation. For example, a country with only e few small urban centers needs a different definition of urban than a country that is already predominantly urban. On the other hand, neariy all countries define literacy as the ability to read and write, although some countries include additional requirements such as the ability to write a simple statement about everyday life, or the ability to read and write a spescific language.

Although in the Wit Data Base no attempt has been made to standardize the definitions of concepts such as urban, literacy, or economic activity, and such data are presented as reported by the countw, all tables are nevertheless annotated, specifying the definition used by the country for these concepts and others such as nationality, household, and schood enrollment. Thus, in all cases, the user has the opportunity to examine a faidy substantial eet of notes that may help to explain any apparent díscrepancies in the statistics from one country to another.

\section*{Time Period}

For the basic distribution of the population by age and sex, data are included in the data base for the latest 2 census years. Most of the tables present-data for the latest year available at the time of compilation. For countries whose data were compiled at an early stage of the project, updated tables presenting later statistics have been added to the file.
Some tables, for which a measure of change is most relevant and most readily available, present a time series of data. This is done for the various measures of mortality and fertility, where.' all available benchmark data since 1970 are presented; in a fow. cases where no post-1970 data are available, the latest post 1960 estimate is given for these measures.

Most often, the 1970 round of population censuses serves as the major source of the data presented. However, 1980 raund data are given whenever these are available. Reliable surveys are used to supplement census data whenever possible.

\section*{Auxiliary Measures}

Users may choose to manipulate the data to derive additional rates and ratios to measure the status of-women in the various subject areas covered in the data base, and this has sometimies been done in the"analytical portions of this handbook. These measures may be designed to compare the position of women versus men with respect to a particular topic, or they may relate women'in a particular category to all persons in the same category.

For example, the percent literate is shown in the data base for women and man; another measure may be derjued to present the female/male ratio of the percent literate. As similar ratio can be devised for other topics such as the female/male ratio of the percent urban', the female/male ratio of the labor force participation rate, and so on.
In the other instance, spanalyze women's share in a particular category or activity, the data can be used to calculate the percent of all persons with a given characteristic who are women. For example, it may bef useful to calculate the female share of the rural labor force in a developing country. This measure would be derived using the number of economically active rural women as the dumerator and the number of economically active rural
persons of both sexes as the denominator. Such a measure might also pe derived separately for various age groups or for any ather. charactaristic.
Of course, more conventional percent distributions are uspful: also in many instances, such as a parcent distribution of womeñ by marital status. Sometimes, just-ohe percentage is a useful measure across counities, such as the percent single among women ages 20 to 24 years. Many of these lend themselves. easily to graphic prosentation as well.

\section*{Data Availability}

Given the criteria established for the selection of statistics for the WID Data Base, it is not surprising that not all data were available for all countries. In many cases; even when data of appropriate quality were available, they often did not fit the establistied categories exactiy. In order to provide a summary of the amount and standardized, nature of the statistics in the data base, a taliy was made of the number of rows and columns of deta in each table, and these results" were compared to thef. numbar of rows and columns in each standard table-outline. The tally for Near Easterp and North African countries is summarized . in table B. 1.

Ordinarily, each countiy has 31 tebles 'df data (h' apperidix - C there are \(4 \dot{9}\) table numbers, but several tables have parts \(A\), B, and C. totaling 31 tables). If updated information has been added, certain table numbers appear more than once, giving some countries more than 31 tables. A standard table is one whose number of rows and columns conforms to the outine. An actual table may be nonstandard for trivial reasans, for axample, because a single age category was different from the outline; or it may be nonstandard in significant ways, for example, because data for 'onlya total row were avallable when considerably more detail was intended. A frequent reasog for a classification as nonstandard is the lack of a rural/urban breakdown of the data.
- Sometimes no data at all were found on a'particular topic for a given country, as represented by the number of blank fables indicated on table 2.1. In șome instances, data were found on most topics for which a search was made (oniy five or six. blank tables for Jordan, Turkey and Iran, for example), while for Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen (Sanaa) over half the tables are blank for lack of published data.'
In this handbook, all tables and charts were derived from statistics in the WID Data Base unless stated otherwise. Countries are omitted from tables and shown in the charts as "NA" if no data were avaifable on the topic being presented. Each chapter discusses the quality and availability of data on its particular subject matter: \(\leqslant\). . . .
Further information on the WID Data Basefincluding how to access the computer file or pbtain hard copy printouts, may be obtained by addrgssing the Ehief, Center for International Research. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 20233.

Table B.1. Number of Tables in WID Data Base, by Country and Category


\section*{Appendix © \\ Tables in the Women in \\ Development Data Base}

The Women in Devalopment Data Bese (sed discussion in appendix B) contains the following tables for esch of 120 countries worldwide. For most trbles, statistics for eact country refort to the latest available year. Exceptions are tables i and 2, which are presented for the latest two census years, and tabtes 8, 14A, and 148, for which data are presented for a series ofyears. For some countries, updated tables are included if new informiation became available after the initial datp were compiled. For, further information on the WUD Data Bese, write the Chief, Center for Intemational Research, U.S. Buresu of the Census; Washington, D.C. 20233.

\section*{Tables}
1. Unadjusted Population by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) (earier census)
2. Unadjusted Population by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) (latest census):
3. Adjusted Population by Age and Sex,"19 \(\qquad\) (earlier census).
4. Adjusted Population by Age and Sex, 19, , (latest
census)

Province, Sex, and Urban/Rural 5. 'iopulation by Prov

6A. Population by Ethnic Group, Sext and Urban/Rural Residence. \(\qquad\) \(-\)

6B. Appulation 'by Religion, Seẍ, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\)
6C. Population by Nationality, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\)

10A. Total Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19 \(\qquad\) . \(\qquad\)
10B. Urban Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19 \(\qquad\) - 1

10C. Rural Population 10 Years Old and Over, by Marital Status, Age, and Sex, 19 \(\qquad\) -.
11. Minimum Legal Age at. Marriage and Age at which Specified Percent Are Ever Married, by Sex and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) -
12. Number of Households by Size, Mean Size, and Median Size, by Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) 1
1.3. Heads of Household 10 Years Old and Ovel', by Age, -Sex, and Urban/Raral Residefice. 19 \(\qquad\) _.

14A. Age-Sṕecific Fertility Rates (per 1000 womęn), by Utban/Rural Residence
e, 19 \(\qquad\) to'19 \(\qquad\) -
148. "Selected Fertility Measures, by Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) to 19 \(\qquad\)

15A. Number of Literate Persons 10 Years Old and Over. by - Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence. 19

15B. Population Bases for Percentages in Table 15C, 19

15C. Percentage Literate 10. Years Old and Over, by Age, Sax, and Urban/Rural Residence, \(\qquad\)

16A. © Number of Persons -Enrolled in School 5 to 24 Years Old; by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) -.

19 \(\qquad\) .

Bases for Percentages in Table 16C,
66. Percentage Enrolled in School 5 to 24 Years Old, by \({ }^{*}\) Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\) .

17A. Number of Economically Active Persons 10 Years Old and Quer, by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\)
:
178. Population Bases for Percentages in Table 17C, 19 \(\qquad\)
17C. Percentage Economically Active 10 Years Old and Over,' by Age, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence. 19 \(\qquad\) .
18. Economically Active Population by Status in Employmont, Sex, and Urban/Rural Residence,
19. Income Distribution and Median Income, by Sex' and Urban/Rural Residence, 19 \(\qquad\)

\title{
Appendix \\ D- \\ -Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence
}

Many of the tables and figures in this report present rates and ratios for the population in particular age groups. This appendix provides the populations upon which such rates and ratios are based.

\section*{Population by Age, Sex; and Rural/Urban Residence}
Country, year,
and aye

\section*{North Africa}

ALSERIA: \(1977^{1}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline All ages............ot. & 8,107,116 & 8,153,375 & & & \\
\hline Under 1 year. & 327,217 & 343,370 & & & \\
\hline 1. to 4 years... & 1,154,914 & 1,147,109 & & ) & \\
\hline 5 to 9 years........... & 1,247,499 & 1,299,584 & & & \\
\hline 10 to 14 years
15 to 19 ypars. & 1,049,455 & (1,101,474 & & & - \\
\hline 15 to 19 ypar
20 to 24 year & 826,6,327 & 852,863 & \(\cdots\) & & \\
\hline 25 to 29. years & 713,255
528,713 & -698,147
535,989 & & - & \(\checkmark\) \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 374,956 & \(340 \times 81\) & & & \\
\hline 36 to 39 years. & 381,715 & , 336,583 & & & '. \\
\hline 40 to 44 years. & 346,648 & - 320,323 & & & \\
\hline \(4 b\) to 49 years... & , 285,775 & 266,895 & & & \\
\hline 50 to 54 years... & 214,653 & 211,288 & - & & \\
\hline 55 to 59 years. & 189,931 & 183,436 & * & & , \\
\hline 60 to. 64 years........ & 151),784 & 143,885 & & & \\
\hline 63 years and over..... & 318,274 & 321,468 & & & \\
\hline Unknown dye............ & & , - & & & \(\therefore\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See footnotes at end of table.

Population by Age, Sex; and Rural/Urban Residence-Continued
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Total country} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Rural} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Urban} \\
\hline Country, year, and aye & , & "Female & Male & Female & Male & female & Male \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

EGYPT: 1976


MUROCCO: 1971
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline All ages............... & 7,651,253 \\
\hline Under 1 year.......... & 169,161 \\
\hline 1 to 4 years & 1,062,289 \\
\hline 5.to 9 years:.......... & 1,210,252 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years........ & 987,560 \\
\hline \$15 to 19 years:........ & 710,937 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years......... & 553,798 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years......... & 508,207 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years......... & 503,895 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 429,262 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years........ & 397,414 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years......... & 231,906 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years........ & 246,478 \\
\hline 55 to 59 year's........ & 101,799 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years........ & 197,554 \\
\hline 65 years and over & 340,641 \\
\hline Unknown agewo.......... & \\
\hline & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{rrr}
\(5,042,039\) & \(2,740,046\) & \(2,627,918\) \\
112,978 & 62,526 & 64,206 \\
730,569 & 338,950 & 346,857 \\
838,135 & 413,958 & 410,107 \\
731,440 & 384,643 & 369,061 \\
433,167 & 297,348 & 281,589 \\
317,865 & 210,764 & \(-187,089\) \\
269,430 & 172,499 & \(-14,756\) \\
25,557 & 178,654 & 140,971 \\
24,547 & 163,894 & 148,730 \\
224,730 & 139,485 & 136,590 \\
164,449 & 90,843 & 10,154 \\
174,391 & 82,249 & 92,024 \\
9,238 & 40,739 & 55,033 \\
126,266 & 60,148 & 52,073 \\
\(-278,577\) & 103,436 & 94,678
\end{tabular}

\section*{Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Résidence-Continued}
 TUNISIA: 1975
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline All ayes & 2,749,710 \\
\hline 0 to 4 years & 436,370 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 398,590 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 356,210 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years. & 307,400 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years. & 244,010 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years.) & 168,800 \\
\hline 30 to. 34 years. & 136,600 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years. & 151:910 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years. & 135,830 \\
\hline '45 to 49, years. & 113,030 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years. & 86,250 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years... \(\therefore\) a.. & 67,400 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years......... & 55,590 \\
\hline 65 years and over..... & 87,910 \\
\hline Unknown aye............ & 3,760 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Western South Asia}

\section*{Arab Countries}

IRAQ: 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Alf age & 5,817,599 & 6,182,898 & 2,151,094 & 2,203,349 & 3,666,505 & 3,979,549 \\
\hline Under 1 year & 240,028 & 261,744 & 88.50 & & & \\
\hline 1 to 4 years. & 868,642 & 912,314 & 344,076 & 102,042 & 151,078
524,566 & 159,702
\(-551,979\) \\
\hline 5 to 9 years. & 981,387 & 1,063,572 - & 381,037 & 427,657 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 524,566 \\
& 500,350
\end{aligned}
\] & 551,919
635,915 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years. & 725,755 & 814,204 & 251,513 & 289,365 & 474,242 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 635,915 \\
& 524,839
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 15 to 19 years 20 & 521,955 & 488,306 & 168,685 & 119,968 & \(\therefore 353,270\) & 368,338 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years. & 514,014 & 602,362 & 180,832 & 191,769 & 333,182 & 410,593. \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 388,146
286,041 & 422,793
318,043 & 141,689
100,162 & 135,237 & 246,457 & 287,556 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 237,443 & 318,043
257,707 & 100,162
81,267 & 90,770
73.879 & .185,879 & 227,273 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years. & 192,590 & \(-186,447\) & 81,267
73,540 & 73,879 & 156,176 & 183,828 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years. & 204,161 & 214,064 & 77,403. & 59,660
81,510 & 119,050
126,758 & 126,787. \\
\hline 50 to 54 years & 167,720 & 153;403 & 67,19? & 61,689 & 126,758
100,528 & 132,554
91,714 \\
\hline 56 to 59 years. & 122,776 & - 121,602 & 50,554 & 51,789, & 72,222 & 91,714
69,813 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years. & 1188,374 & 113,053* & 43,175 & 48,252 & 65,199 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 69,813 \\
& 64,801
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 66 years and over. & 246,208 & 230,847 & 96,977 & 48,272 & 149,231 & 132,575 \\
\hline Unknqun age. & 12,359 & 22,437 & 4,042 & 11,095 & 8,317 & 11,342 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Population by Age, 'Sex, and Rural/Urbạn Residencé,-Continued}


JORDAN: \(1979^{1}{ }^{\circ}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Al & 1,013,428 & 1,086,591 \\
\hline Under 1 year. & 41,834 & 43,912 \\
\hline 1 'to 4 years. & 150,741 & 160,550 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 173,963 & 186,029 \\
\hline 10 to 14 year & 147,130 & 159,809 \\
\hline 15 to 19' years & 111,802 & 121,234 \\
\hline 20 to. 24 years & 74,943 & , 79,367 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 55,400 & 59;970 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 53,007 & 52,497 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years. & 47,041 & 51,665 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years. & 41,881 & 44,686 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years. & 32,360 & 35,286 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years,..... & 24,285 & 27,972 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years'f...... & 17,667 & 18,877 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years........ & 13,647 & 14,451 \\
\hline 65 years and over..... & 27,727 & 30,286 \\
\hline Unknown age... & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

LEBANON: 1970.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline All ages............... & 1,046,160 \\
\hline Under 1 year & 29,610 \\
\hline 1 to 4 years. & 117,750 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 161,235 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 134,445 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years & 105,240 \\
\hline 20 to 24 year & 79,020 \\
\hline 25 to 29 yea & 65,580 \\
\hline 30 to 34 year & 63,345 \\
\hline 35 to 39 yea & 59,700 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years & 54,030 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 34,075 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years & 29,445 \\
\hline 55 to 59 yedrs & 25,770 \\
\hline 60 to'64 years & 27,990 \\
\hline 65 years and ov & 52,605 \\
\hline Unknown age. & 1,320 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See footnotes at end of table.

\section*{Population by Age, 'Sex, and Rurà̀ UUrban Residence-Continued}


SAUDI ARABIA: 1974 \({ }^{11}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Alt ages............... & 3,149,713 & 3,576,753 \\
\hline Under 1 year & 92,051 & \\
\hline 1 to 4 years & 481,205 & \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 560,989 & \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 408,337 & 445,656 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years. & 306,561 & 363,246 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 213,852 & - 288,840 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 201,537 & 236,399 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 178,458 & 203,077 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 155,391 & 187:794 \\
\hline 40 to 44 yẻars & 138,506 & 160,429 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 87,034 & 122,227 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years & 96,525 & 114,340 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years & 41,920 & 66,946 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years & 71,928 & 97.096 \\
\hline 65 years and 'over & T15,106 & . 139,831 \\
\hline Unknown aye. & 313 & 1,072 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SYRIA: 1970
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline All ages:........i..... & 3,071,575. & 3,233,110 & 1,748,267 & 1,815,247 & 1,323,308 & 1,417,863 \\
\hline Under 1 year. & 110,789 & \(\cdot 119,713\) & 63,908 & 69,974 & & \\
\hline 1 to 4 years........... & 464,635 & 494,402 & 276,033 & 29,974
292,926 & 188,602 & 49,739
201,476 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years. & 516,660 & -559,024 & 296,086 & 322,811 & 188,602
220,574 & 201,476 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 397,834 & 443,063 & 220,545 & 250,104 & 177,289 & 236,213 \\
\hline 15 to 19 year & 295,263 & 307,075 & 165,877. & 167,201 & 129,386 & 139,874 \\
\hline 20 to 24 year & 221,873 & 239,095 & 117,819 & 129,706 & & 109,389 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 183,013 & 168,577 & 99,226 & -82,282 & 104,054
83,787 & 109,389
86,295 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years. & 166,779 & 155,908. & 92,562 & - 75,386 & 83, 7417 & 86,295
80,522 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years. & 158,970 & 158,350 & 91,483 & 81,620 & 67,487 & 80,522
76,730 \\
\hline 40 to 44 yedrs. & 125,143 & 138,402 & 70,818 & 73,721 & 54,325 & 76,730
64,681 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years. & 96,536 & 107,234 & 56,030 & 59;819 & 40,506 & 47,415 \\
\hline 55 tod 59 years & 745066
56,054 & 78,661
61,582 & 44,430 & 46,462 & 30,236 & 32,199 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years. & 55,917 & 63,461. & 31,530
38,545 & 34,343
39,352 & 24,524 & 27,239 \\
\hline 05 years and over \({ }^{4}\)..... & 137,194 & 138,176 & 38,245
83,209 & 39,352
89,267 & 27,372
53,985 & 24,109
48,909 \\
\hline Unknown age........... & 249. & / 387 & , 166 & - 273 & 53,985
83 & \(\begin{array}{r}48,909 \\ \hdashline \quad 114\end{array}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
See footnotes at end of table.
}

\section*{Population by Age, stx, and Rurral/Urban Residence-Continued}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline SYRIA: \(1976^{2}\). & \({ }^{\circ}\) & \\
\hline & 3,740,764 & 3,985,002 \\
\hline Under 1 y & 132,193 & 145,456 \\
\hline 1 to 4 year & 505,617 & 534,892 \\
\hline 5 to 9 yea & 584,071 & 636,9918 \\
\hline 10 to 14 , yea & 518;364. & 568,697 \\
\hline 15 to 19 year & 422,532 & 446,848 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 312,893 & 298,246 \\
\hline - 25 to 29 yea & 242,364 & 246,967 \\
\hline 30 to 34 year & 180,661 & 194,056 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 174,871 & 173,416 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years & 157,427 & 164,592 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 138,763 & 151,978
122,877 \\
\hline 50 to.' 54 years & 108,041 & 122,877 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years & 689,101
\(.64,762\) & 78,824
72,910 \\
\hline 60 to\% 64 years & 64,162
129,104 & 148,326 \\
\hline 65 years and Unknown age & 129,104 & 14,326 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

YEMEN (SANAA): \(1975^{1,2}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline All ages & 2,371,092 & 2,155,234 \\
\hline Under 1 & 66,699 & 72,018 \\
\hline 1 to 4 years & 317,905 & 314,547 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 388,327 & 417,214 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years.....o... & 251,351 & 285,750 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years & 184,849 & 157,945 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 160,403 & 104,676 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 183,870 & 121,541 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 164.306 & 112,286 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years. & 148,594 & 120,776 \\
\hline - 40 to 44 years & 124,133 & 103,625 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 87,260 & 76,343 \\
\hline 50 'to 54 years & 97,115
39,805 & 81,321
45,656 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years......... & 39,805 & 58,931 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years........ & 65,171 & 58,931
80,252 \\
\hline 65 years and over..... & 2,269
\(\mathbf{2 , 2}\) & 2,353 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See footnotes at end of table.

\section*{Population by Age, Sex, and Rúral/Urban Residencé-Continued}


\section*{Nón-Arab Countriea}
CYPRUS: \({ }^{1976^{1}}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline All åges............... & 707 & 44 \\
\hline 0 to 4 year & 23,064 & 24,179 \\
\hline 5 to 9 year & 24,031 & 25,095 \\
\hline 10 to 14 year & 28,656 & 30,790 \\
\hline 15 to 19 ymars & 32,321 & 33,597 \\
\hline 20 to: 24 years & 28,266 & 30,942 \\
\hline 25 40 29 years & 26,003 & 26,652 \\
\hline 30 to 3n years & 19,882 & 20.170 \\
\hline 35 to 39 year's & 18,895 & 18,570 \\
\hline \(40^{\text {c }}\) to 44 years & 16,491 & 15,737 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 15,325 & 14,064 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years & 14,589 & 14,099 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years & : 12,137 & 11,525 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years & 13,618 & 12,2ө1 \\
\hline 65 years adnd over. & 33,429 & 28,523 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

TURKEY: 1975
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline All ayes............. & 19,603,000 & 20,745,000 \({ }^{\circ}\) & 11,796,000 & 11,846,000 & 7,807,000 & 8,899,000 \\
\hline 0 to, 4 year & 2,629,000 & 2,810,000 & & & & \\
\hline 5 to 9 year & 2,642,000 & 2,840,000 & 1,682,000 & 1,870,000 & 859,000
960,000 & 967,000
\(1,070,000\) \\
\hline 10 to. 14 years & 2,473,000 & 2,772,000 & 1,542,000 & 1,716,000 & 931,000 & 1,056,000 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years & 2,141,000 & -2,351,000 & 1,208,000 & 1,198,000 & 933,000 & 1,153,000 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 1,699,000; & 1,863,000 & 1906;000 & -812,000 & 792,010 & 1,051,000 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 1,382,000 & 1,476,000 & 199,000 & 683,000 & 663,000 & -793,000 \\
\hline , 30 to 34 years & 1,089,000 & 1,110,000 & 631,000 & 584,000 & 458,000 & 526,000 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years. & 1,131,000 & 1,051,000 & 634,000 & 565,000 & 497,000 & 486,000 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years. & 1,056,000 & 1,113,000 & 631,000 & 614,000 & 425;,000. & 499,000 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years. & 819,000 & 918,000 & - 460,000 & 494,000 & 369,000 & 424,008 \\
\hline 50 to 54 year
55 to 59 year & 639,000 & .665,000 & 399,000 & 393,000 & 241,000 & 272,000 \\
\hline 55
60
to
59 54 years & 389,000 & 395,000 & 229,000 & 229;000 & 160,000 & - 166,000 \\
\hline 65 years and over. & 967,000 & 526,000
856,000 & - 348,000 & 348,000 & 199,000 & 177,000 \\
\hline Unknown age. & & & & 598,000 & 331,000. & 257,000 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See footnotes at end of table.

Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence-Continued


TURKEY: \(1980^{1}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline All iages & 22,695,362 & 22,041,595 \\
\hline Under ! year........... & & \\
\hline 1 to 4 years & 3,050,769 & 2,909,854 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 3,062,668 & 2,907,808 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 2,869,879 & 2,632,934 \\
\hline 15 to 19 years & 2,562,865 & 2,404,442 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years........ & 2,073,844 & 1,975,835 \\
\hline 25 to 29. years & 1,719,161 & 1,656,165 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 1,373,541 & 1,321,174 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 1,078,798 & 1,119,283 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years & 988,818 & 1,068,128 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years........ & 1,043,459. & 964,296 \\
\hline 50 to 54 years & 862,109 & 867,151 \\
\hline 55 to 59 years & 592,130 & - 558,498 \\
\hline 60 to 64 years & 375,309 & 41.7,352 \\
\hline 65 years and over. & 955,360 & 1,157,887 \\
\hline unknown aye. & 86,652 & 80,788 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Middle South Asia}

AFGHANISTAN: 197:-73
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline All d & 3,032,744 \\
\hline Under 1 ye & 162;369 \\
\hline 1 to 4 years & 669,110 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 782,446 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 571,806 \\
\hline . 15 to. 19 years & 410,149 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 380,765 \\
\hline 25 to 29 years & 341),948 \\
\hline 30 to 34 years & 300,133 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & ? 33,126 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years & 199,600 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years & 143,875 \\
\hline 50. to 54 years & 149,918 \\
\hline bs to 59 years & 80,048 \\
\hline 6u to 64 years. & 94,529 \\
\hline -6\% years and over..... & 116,763 \\
\hline Unknown aye & 11,09? \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{rrr} 
& \multicolumn{1}{l}{} \\
\(3,719,766\) & \(2,562,868\) \\
& & \\
169,929 & 138,593 \\
667,316 & & 572,074 \\
816,027 & \(-664,186\) \\
703,318 & \(\therefore 77,460\) \\
530,486 & 333,446 \\
446,264 & 317,288 \\
349,065 & 292,420 \\
324,964 & 257,835 \\
281,798 & 199,459 \\
242,695 & 170,610 \\
184,413 & 121,063 \\
180,218 & 131,226 \\
114,437 & 67,889 \\
131,697 & 82,903 \\
\(206,681\). & 101,529 \\
23,746 & 9,948
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{rr}
\(3,157,480\) & \multicolumn{1}{c}{469,876} \\
& 9 \\
145,230 & 23,776 \\
568,624 & 97,036 \\
694,962 & 118,260 \\
592,846 & 94,346 \\
443,420 & 76,703 \\
374,046 & 63,477 \\
295,357 & 48,528 \\
281,118 & 42,298 \\
242,497 & 33,667 \\
208,553 & 28,990 \\
155,977 & 22,812 \\
154,702 & 18,692 \\
97,990 & 12,359 \\
112,777 & 11,626 \\
178,771 & 15,234 \\
19,451 & 11,144
\end{tabular}
- 562,286

24,699
98,692
- 121,865

110,472
- 47,066

72,218.
53,708
43, 846
39,301
34,142
28,436
25,516
16,447
18,920
27,910

See footnotes at end of tabie.

\section*{Population by Age, Sex, and Rural/Urban Residence - Continued}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Count & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Total country} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Rural} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{Urban} \\
\hline and aye & female & Male & Female & - Malé & & Female & Male \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

AFGHANISTAN: 1979
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline All ages............... & 6,341,540 & 6,709,818 & 5,395,555 & 5,679,065 & 945,985 & 1,030,753 \\
\hline Under 1 year. & 251,095 & 267,164 & , 213,646 & 227,054 & 37,449 \({ }^{7}\) & \\
\hline 1 to 4 years.......... & 890,435 & 927,878 & - 757:567 & 789,973 & 132,868 & 40,110 \\
\hline 5 to 9 years & 924,542 & 951,065 & 786,344 & 811,171 & 138,198 & 137,905
139,894 \\
\hline 10 to 14 years & 784,612 & 819,178 & 667,972 & 697,919 & 116,640 & 139,894
121,259 \\
\hline . 15 to 19 years & 670,222 & 702,438 & -. 573,765 & 595,860 & -96,457. & 121,259
106,578 \\
\hline 20 to 24 years & 566,432 & 597,061. & 481,929 & 502,450 & 84,503 & \(\begin{array}{r}106,578 \\ \hline 94.611\end{array}\) \\
\hline . 25 to 29 years & 478,167 & 499,901 & 406,834 & 419,753 & 71,333 & 80,148 \\
\hline . 30 to 34 years & 399,104 & 419,930 & 339,575 & 351,923 & 59,529 & 68,007 \\
\hline 35 to 39 years & 330,330 & 350,478 & 281,059 & 290,289 & 49,27,1 & 60,189 \\
\hline 40 to 44 years & 269,614 & 290,516 & 227,719 & 242,288 & 41,895 & 48,228 \\
\hline 45 to 49 years
50 to. 54 years & 221,027 & 237,404 & 186,946 & 199,976 & 34,081 & 37,428 \\
\hline 50 to 59 & 177,718 & 191,865 & 150,343 & 163,285 & 27,375 & 28,580 \\
\hline 60 to 64 & 138,518 & 152,693 & 117,850 & 129,948 & 20,668 & 22,745 \\
\hline 65 years and ov & [13,509 & 15,571 & 3 & 98,356 & 15,296 & 17,215 \\
\hline , & -215 & 186,676 & 116,193 & 158,820 & 2U,422 & 27,856 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

IRAN: 1976


\$
\(\bullet\)

\section*{\(\cdot\)}

ASFR: Ago-specific fertility rate (the average annual number of births to women in a given age group during a spedified pariod. of time per 1,000 wontien in the same age greup, based on. midperiod population).

CAPMAS: Central Agency for Public Mobllisation and Statistics. \(\sim\) Egypt.

CRR: Crude birth rate (the average annual number of births during a specified period of time per 1,000 persons, based on midperiod population).
k
CIR: Center for Intepnational Research, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

DUALabs: Data Use and Access Laboratories, Arlington, Virginda.
ESDS: Economic and Social Data Services, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for Interntatonal Development.

FAO: Food and Agricultural Organization, United Nations'. Rome.
F/M retio: Ratic of the femaie value to the maie value for a given characteristic (for example; the ratio of the female percent literate to the male percent literate).

GRR: Gross reproduction rate (the average number of daughters born per woman in a group of women passing throf gh the childbearing years and experiencing a given set of ago-specific \({ }^{4}\) fertility rates. This rate implicitly assumes thet all the women live to the end of the chiddbearing years. See also NRRI,

RO: International Labour Office, United Nations, Geneva.
RUD: Intrauterine device (method of family planning).

NA: Data not available.
NRR: Net reproduction rate (s refinement of the grose reproduction rate that allows for mortality of women from birth to the end of thair reproductive years).

TFR: Total fertility rate (the average number of children that would be born per woman if all women lived to the end of their childbearing years and bore children according to a given set of age-specific fertility rates).

\section*{U.R. United Nations.}

\section*{UNDP: United Nations Development Program.}

\section*{UNECWA: United Nations Economic Commission for Western} Asia. Bagindad.

UNESA: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Orgenizẹtion. Paris.

USAID: United States Agency for International Davelopmênt. - 1

WID: Women in Development.

WTD Dats Base: Women In Development Data Base (a project of the U.S. Bureas of the Census).

WID Office: Office of Women In Development, Buresu for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for Internationsi Development.```


[^0]:    from the orfiginal document.
    $\star$

[^1]:    For sale by Data User Services Division, Customer Services (Publications). Bureau of the Census, Washington, D C: 20233. or any U.S Department of Commerce district office. Postage stamps not acceptable; currency submitted at sender's risk. Remittances from foreign countries must be by international money order or by a draft on a U.S. bank. $\$ 5.50$ ner copy.

[^2]:    'A census round refers to a decade during which the various countries conduct their censuses; 1960 round censuses were taken during the period 1955 to 1964,1970 round during 1985 to 1974. The 1980 round is just being completer, referring to censuses taken during 1975 to 1984.

[^3]:    Source: United Nations, 19828.

[^4]:    - Number of moles equals number of females.

[^5]:    - Number of men equals number of women.

[^6]:    lbased on unadjusted data.
    2 Refers to the settled population only.

[^7]:    lased on unadjusted data.
    ${ }^{2}$ Refers to the settled population only.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Based on unadjusted data.
    $2^{2}$ Refers to the settled population only.

[^9]:    'An example of how this methodology has been applied in the analysis of educational wastage among women and men in Saudi Arabia is available in Natto and Khan (1976). especially chapter 1.

[^10]:    'See footnotes to table 3.1 for nonstandard age groups.

[^11]:    - Female percent equals male percent.

    See table 3.3 for nonsfandard age groups.

[^12]:    - Female peircant aquals male percent.

[^13]:    ${ }_{2}$ Refers to aye 9 to 54 years.
    2 Refers to age 15 years and over.
    $3^{3}$.S Bureau of the Census, 1983.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ See table 3.3 for percent literate among women in selected age groups.
    2 Based on unadjusted 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ See table 3.7 for percent of literate population that is female, by selected age yrouns and rural/urban residence.

    2based on unadjusted 1472-73 survey data for the settled population only.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ Refers to dge 6 to 14 years s in
    2 Refers to the settied population only.
    ${ }^{3}$ Refers to age 6 to 9 yearsna

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Refars to aye 6 to. 14 years.
    ${ }^{2}$ Refers to the settled population ofly. 3 kefers to aye 6 to 9 years.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Accordiny to school administrative data (Central Statistical Organization of Iraq, n.d., tables $14 / 2$ and $14 / 4$ ), 34.0 percent of all enrollment in primary and secondary school is female. ${ }_{3}$ Refers to the settled population only.
    $3_{\text {Refers to }}$ age 6 to 9 years.

[^19]:    'Based upon a discussion with Mehyeddine Mamish. Syrian demographer, Beirut. Lebanon, July 1979. and cited in Chamie (1983a).

[^20]:    4

[^21]:    - See footnotes to latte 4.4 for nonstandard age groups.

[^22]:    Som formotes do tables 5.8 and 5.12 for nonstandard age groups.

[^23]:    Soutce ir S Bureal of the Census, 1983

[^24]:    - Female percent equals male percent

[^25]:    ketpers to the Eqyptian population only.
    2 Refers to age 1 ? years and over.
    3kefers to the Syrian Arah population only.
    4 kefers to aye 12 to 14 years.
    5 kefers to the settled population only.

[^26]:    iketers to the population age 15 years and over.
    $2_{\text {Refers to the population age } 12 \text { gears and over. }}$
    3kefers to Sxrian Arabs orily.
    dreters to the settled population only.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ Kefers to aye 12 to 14 years.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Refers to age 12 to 14 years.

[^29]:    1 Refers to age 12 to 14 years.

[^30]:    1 No one over the age of 14 was classified as an unda family worker, suggesting that adult women and men, by definition, were excluded from this category in the 1976 . census:
    2 Data from Jordan Department of tatistigs, 1982.

[^31]:    'For example, see United Nations ESA, 1969 and 1973, for ways that households are defined. These United Nations documents are reviewed in housoholds are defined

[^32]:    'Data are from civil registers which are incomplete of of unknown reipbility

[^33]:    - Fermaie percent equals male percent.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

[^35]:    1 Refers to age 20 years and over.
    ${ }^{2}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.
    Note: Percentages are based on, total figures excluding the "not stated" marital status category.

[^36]:    1 Refers to all ages of the population.
    2 Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.
    Note: Percentages are based on total figures excluding the "not stated" marital status category.

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ Refers to ages under 20 years.
    2 Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ Based on 1972-73 survey data for the settled population only.

[^40]:    'Séf footnotes to table 6.1.

[^41]:    in

[^42]:    Refers to the resident Algerian population only.
    ${ }^{2}$ Refers to the lower limit of an estimated range.
    kefires to the settled papulation only.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recent datd not available. Estimatés. of proportion dying before age 5 years in 1968-69. are' 20.8 percent for girls and-19.4 percent for boys, with a female/maler ratio of $1: 07$.

    Estimates reported in U.N., 1982, table IV.14.
    $\beta_{\text {Refers }}$ to the settleg population only.

