

**Gender and Changing Transition to First Employment among Youth in Urban Africa:
Evidence from Ouagadougou**

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In a context of decreasing gender gap in education and feminization of the labor market in African cities, the research uses unique retrospective longitudinal data recently collected in Ouagadougou, the capital city of Burkina Faso, to explore gender differentials in contemporary dynamics of transition to first employment among youth. Results suggest a substantial economic activity of young urban females during adolescence, especially among the least educated, migrants, and those from poor socioeconomic background. Despite persistent gender inequality, especially in the estimated unemployment rate and type of activity performed, the presence of young women on the paid labor market is increasingly visible, including in the emerging private sector. Today, many young Ouagalese reconcile domestic and paid work, and although the birth of a first child slows down their transition to the job market, marital life is not incompatible with young women's transition to the labor market.

Context and Objectives

In Burkina Faso, the late 1980s and early 1990s were marked by a stagnation of the economy and a deterioration of the urban labor market [Diabré, 1998]. Throughout sub-Saharan Africa, the economic crisis and the structural adjustment reforms implemented over this period coupled with growing numbers of entrants onto the urban labor market, have particularly disadvantaged the new generation of jobseekers. The recent economic upturn of the year 2000 did not seem to enhance their situation and unemployment rates among young men and women in African cities today are still disproportionately high [Solignac-Lecomte, 2013]. Although contemporary African youth is significantly better educated than previous generations, it also has access to significantly less stable and less profitable jobs. With the formal sector unable to generate sufficient employment to absorb this rapidly growing segment of the labor force, new generations of young Africans are increasingly turning to the informal sector for economic activity [Antoine et al. 2001; Calvès and Schoumaker, 2004; Brilleau et al. 2005; Garcia and Fares, 2008].

Yet, today more than ever, the issue of youth's employment is at the heart of the debates on the economic future of sub-Saharan Africa; and more specifically on the ability of African countries to take advantage of the demographic dividend, and convert the forthcoming decline in number of dependents supported by the working age population into economic opportunity [Eastwood and Lipton 2011]. While enhancing the transition of youth onto the labor market is repetitively presented as a priority by African governments and international development organizations, so is the promotion of gender equality in employment. In Burkina Faso, for instance, one of the objectives of the national policy on gender equality adopted in 2009 is to « ensure men's and women's equal access to paid employment » [Ministère de la promotion de la femme, 2009 : 35]. In fact, in a context where girls and young women have still limited

access to education, apprenticeship and capital, and where social and cultural norms highly value female reproductive and domestic activities and make men the main economic providers within the family, young women are doubly disadvantaged. Although African women have always actively participated to economic activities, they are more likely than men to work without pay, to experience unemployment, and to be employed in the less stable and lucrative informal sector of the economy [Kolev et Sirven, 2010; Charmes, 2005].

Over the last two decades, however, African societies have undergone major social and economic transformations that are likely to affect the dynamics of transition to first employment among young women and gender inequality on the job market. In fact, since the 1990s, school participation of girls is increasing and gender gaps in schooling are diminishing [Grant et Behrman, 2010]. Today, female city-dwellers in Burkina Faso are as likely to be enrolled in primary and secondary schools than their male counterparts [Kobiané, 2009]. At the same time, in cities, increasing cost of living, male unemployment and decreasing real income of household heads have forced wives and daughters to multiply their economic activities within the informal sector. This feminization of the labor force coupled with a postponement of the age at first marriage and first birth, transform the traditional sexual division of labor and the perception of female employment [Dijkman et Van Dijk 1993, Nanitelamio, 1995; Locoh, 1996 ; Adjamagbo et al. 2004; Antoine et al. 2005; Kobiané et al. 2012].

These recent trends call upon a reexamination of gender differentials in the transition of urban youth to the labor market today. Using retrospective longitudinal data collected in 2010 in Ouagadougou, the capital city of Burkina Faso, the objective of the present study is to contrast the work experience and dynamics of transition to first employment of young men and women. The retrospective nature of the data also provides a unique opportunity to analyze gender differentials in the factors affecting the timing and type of first job obtained and evaluate

notably how important aspects of youth's individual life trajectories such as educational, occupational, residential, family formation history affect differently the transition to the labor market of young men and women.

Data and Methods

To do so, this paper uses primary data from a unique representative retrospective survey entitled “Becoming a Parent in Ouagadougou” (BPO Survey), conducted between November 2009 and February 2010 in the Burkinabe capital city among 2,036 young adults. Since the primary purpose of the survey was to study transition to parenthood we needed to account for gender differentials in age at first marriage and first birth, and the survey therefore targeted young men aged 25 to 34 and young women aged 20 to 29. The sample is a two-stage stratified random sample, representative of the city of Ouagadougou¹, comprising 927 young men and 1,109 young women.

Although the initial purpose of the survey was to collect information on transition to parenthood, the data is well-suited to analyze gender differentials in transition to first employment. Besides information on social and residential origins (such as ethnic group, religion, birth place, and parents' occupation) and retrospective longitudinal information on residences, relationships, marriages, and childbearing, the survey collected detailed occupational histories. More specifically, for each respondent the section of the questionnaire devoted to occupations collected information on all periods of schooling, apprenticeships,

¹ The first stage consisted of randomly selecting census enumeration areas (EAs) in each of the five administrative strata (“arrondissements”) of the city. Ten EAs were selected in each arrondissement. The EAs were selected from the 2006 census database using probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling technique. In a second stage, based on the census database, 46 households were randomly selected in each of the selected EAs. In each selected household one eligible young man aged 25-34 or young woman aged 20-29 was interviewed.

economic activity (paid and unpaid employment), and inactivity (unemployed, “housewife”, retired or sick), which lasted more than six months, since the respondent’s sixth birthday. For each period of economic activity, additional information was collected including the type of activity (open question) and whether the respondent received or gave a pay slip (“fiches de salaire”) for the work performed.

To examine transition to first employment among youth in Ouagadougou, our analysis focuses on respondents who were socialized in the capital city (females and males who lived there when they were 12 years-old), and in order to compare men and women, the observation period stops at age 30. The first section of the analysis provides descriptive statistics on youth’s working experience and transition to first paid employment by sex. Using Kaplan Meir estimates [Allison, 1984], we first compare the risk distribution of getting a paid job overtime for young males and females. We then contrast the main activities of young Ouagalese (in school, apprentice, unemployed, at home, employed with or without pay) at ages 20 and 25, by sex and marital status. We also present selected characteristics of young men’s and women’s professional trajectories such as number of employment periods, median time spent in paid and unpaid employment, and average duration of first and subsequent paid work periods. Gender differentials in sector of activity for the first paid job are also presented. While there is no universally accepted definition of what constitutes the informal sector in urban Africa, there is agreement that the informal economy mainly operates outside the sphere of government regulation. Self-employed workers or employees in the informal sector are generally not registered, nor are small-scale informal enterprises. Thus, for practical purposes, we treat public sector employees as well as all those receiving a pay slip as workers in the formal, or wage sector. The formal sector is divided into public and private spheres of activity and activities in the informal sector are classified into three categories: agricultural/craft, petty trade and

services. Despite the heterogeneity of informal sector activities, the distinction between wage and informal jobs is a good indicator of job quality and earnings. As noted by Kuepie et al. (2009), in most West African cities, including Ouagadougou, there is a “bipolar configuration” of the labour market, with high earnings in the public and private sector and considerably lower incomes in the informal sector.

To analyze gender differentials in factors affecting youth professional insertion, we first perform a multivariate analysis of the transition to the first paid employment by sex using Cox proportional hazards models (Allison, 1984). In these models the dependent variable is the instantaneous risk of entering the paid labor market of Ouagadougou for the first time. Each individual is observed until he (she) finds a paid job or is censored by the survey date of his (her) 29th birthday, whichever comes first. One of the strengths of the Cox model is its ability to encompass covariates that change overtime, and such as respondents’ educational attainment, marital status, parity and residential poverty index. Second, the analysis mobilizes logistics regression models to analyze gender differentials in factors affecting the type of first job obtained (formal vs informal). The retrospective nature of the data allows to evaluate the relationship between the sector of activity of first employment and the characteristics of respondents at the time they get their first job.

Lower educational attainment of women is believed to be a key factor in explaining their disadvantaged position on the labor market compared to men, and especially their difficult access to the formal sector of the economy. BPO survey data show, that despite the progress made during the 1990s, important gender discrimination in access to education still prevail in the capital city: more young women (26%) than young men (15%) never attended school and fewer of them (48%) have a secondary level education or higher compared to the male respondents (59%). Based on respondent’s occupational history, a time-varying variable

reflecting youth educational attainment over the observation period can be included in the multivariate models. Gender differences on the job market are also often attributed to the women's difficulties to reconcile employment with domestic and familial roles and duties [Antoine & Dial, 2005]. To take into account the potential interference between professional and familial life, two time-varying variables reflecting respondent's marital status (single or in union) and parity (childless, one child or more) are included in the models. Besides educational attainment and family formation variables, other co-variates that are likely to affect transition to first employment were included in the models as control variables. As in other parts of the world, labor recruitment in urban Africa is believed to heavily rely on social ties and family networks. While the impact of social and family networks is hardly ever measured when modeling transition to the labor force in sub-Saharan Africa, it is usually indirectly captured through the effect of ethnic group membership. In fact, in most analytical models of employment in urban West Africa, ethnic group is included as a covariate, based on the implicit assumption that ethnic ties can be used to secure jobs or that some ethnic groups may have a privileged access to public sector jobs [Pasquier-Doumer, 2012]. To account for this potential effect of ethnic affiliation, a variable measuring the ethnic group of respondents was included in the models. Given the predominance of youth in the sample identifying themselves as mossi (83% of them), the main ethnic group in the city of Ouagadougou, ethnic affiliation is coded in two categories: mossi and non-mossi. The impact of social and family networks on transition to urban labor market is also often indirectly measured by the migration status of job seekers. Young rural migrants are often assumed to be at a disadvantage on the urban market not only because they are less educated than their counterparts who grew up in the cities, but also because they lack the necessary social network and family support when arriving in the city (Lange & Martin, 1993). Research on several francophone West African countries, however,

challenge this hypothesis and show that, on the contrary, rural migrants tend to exhibit a lower rate of unemployment than non-migrants and that, with equivalent level of education, they are in fact more likely to access to wage employment [Beauchemin & Bocquier 2004; Pasquier-Doumer, 2012]. Since a non-negligible proportion of youth in the sample (23% of females and 14% of males), were not born in Ouagadougou and were living outside the city before age 12, data permit to evaluate the impact of migration status on youth's professional insertion. Besides ethnicity and migration status, social origin also affects human and social capital and, in turn, access to the urban labor market. A study conducted in seven West African capitals explored the association between individuals' labor market positions and their fathers' occupational status and reported lower rate of social mobility in the three capital cities of the poorer landlocked countries of the sample (Ouagadougou, Niamey and Bamako) compared to the wealthier coastal cities of Dakar, Cotonou, Lomé and Abidjan (Pasquier-Doumer, 2012). Controlling for educational attainment, in Ouagadougou, as in Niamey and Bamako, having a father who works in the public sector as opposed to the informal sector significantly increases an individual's chances of getting a job in the public sector. Socioeconomic origin can also affect the timing of the first employment. Faced with the obligation to get a job "at all cost" to survive, poorer youth have indeed less leeway to postpone entry into the labor force [Antoine et al. 2001]. To take into account the potential effect of social origin on transition to first employment, we include a covariate reflecting the occupation of the respondent's father (wage employment versus informal/agricultural work). In addition, based on information collected on housing quality (type of wall materials, main source of drinking water and lighting fuel) a time-varying residence wealth index was constructed to distinguish between poor, average and rich residences.

Results

Marked Gender Differences in Employment Trajectories

The analysis of BPO data reveal a slightly earlier access to first paid employment among young men (median age of 23.4) than among young women (24,4 years old on average). Although median ages at first paid job among men and women are fairly close, Kaplan-Meir survival curves (Figure 1) show marked gender differences in labor force participation by age.

[Figure 1 about here]

In fact, before age 23, young women are proportionally more numerous than their male counterparts to have entered the labor market. By age 15, 17% of female adolescents have already had a first paid job compared to only 5% of their mal counterparts. While female adolescents are still more likely to have a first paid job experience at age 19 (at this age 32% of them have already worked for pay compared to only 16% of their male counterparts), around age 23, on the other hand, the opposite trend is observed and the proportion of youth who already had a paid working experience is greater among men than women. At age 24, for instance, only 46% of men never had a paid job compared to 51% of women. At age 29, the proportion of young males who has not yet entered the Ouagalese labor market is around 24% compared to 36% of young women. To further explore these gender differentials in the timing of first job, Table 1 contrasts the main activity of young men and women living in the capital city at ages 20 and 25.

[Table 1 about here]

As shown in Table 1, the lessened involvement of young men on the labor market in Ouagadougou before age 20 is mainly due to girl's unequal access to education and training. In fact, at this age the majority of young men (51%) are still in school or in school and apprenticeship compared to only 36% of young women. Most of young women are actually already pursuing an economic activity (43%), for which they are generally paid for (33%). Since efforts were made during the survey to obtain complete activity histories and to record all activities of respondents including unpaid ones, the unemployment category actually refers to an absence of activity and declared unemployment among young people in Ouagadougou is low: around 10% among both young men and women. Despite this low declared unemployment rate, the proportion of young men and women who are not in school and are outside the paid labor force at age 20 (the estimated unemployment rate) is very high among both men and women (around 50% in both cases). Results further suggest that union formation is not incompatible with young women's participation to the labor market. In fact, although 34% of young Ouagalese women aged 20 are already married or living in consensual union, as shown in Table 1 only 16% of them declared staying home taking care of their household. In fact, at age 20 the estimated unemployment rates among single women (47%) and those in union (51%) do not differ significantly.

By age 25, gender differences in activity profiles have changed. At this age, the majority of young men (67%) and women (59%) are working but proportion of paid employment is higher among young men (60%) than among women (53%). By age 25, most young men in Ouagadougou have left school or apprenticeship (only 22% are still students and less than 7% still apprentices). The proportion of young men working without pay for the family is also less common and the estimated male unemployment rate is considerably lower (16% only) than at

age 20. The trend is the same among women who are less likely to be out of the pay job market. At age 25, only a minority of women are still students (11%) and female workforce participation seems more to conflict with domestic duties (the main activities of 20% of female respondents at this age). By age 25, the large majority of women (76%) are already in union and the differential in unemployment rate of single and women in union are more notable than at age 20.

These gender differentials in labor force participation by age are also reflected in the overall employment trajectory. At the time of the survey, female respondents would have spent 3,8 years in paid employment compared to 5.2 years for their male counterparts. This gender gap is explained by the fact that there are twice as many young women (40%) as men (20%) who never had a paid job. The analysis of overall employment trajectories further reveals that unpaid labor force participation is more common among young women than among men in Ouagadougou today. Overall, young women spent more time involved in unpaid familial work (31% of all working periods) compared to men (16% only). Among youth who ever worked for pay, the total time spent employed is about the same among young women and men : 7.7 et 7.3 years, respectively.

The Centrality of the Informal Sector, Especially for Young women

Gender differentials in the type of first job obtained are also striking (Figure 2).

[Figure 2 about here]

Results confirm that the informal sector is a significant first employment location for youth, especially young women in Ouagadougou. In fact, the majority of young men (67%) and women (77%) obtained their first paid job outside the formal sector. The public formal sector especially has clearly become a very marginal source of first employment for both young men (6%) and women (3%) in the capital city. These rare government employees are teachers, policemen, or nurses while female civil servants are school-teachers, mid-wives or secretaries. The private formal sector of the economy, on the opposite, provides far more first jobs than the government: 27% of young men and 20% of young women found their first job in this sector. Young female employees from the private sector are generally working as secretaries, teachers, cashiers, or manager “téléboutique” when their male counterparts are drivers, accountants, security guards, or construction workers. While the informal sector represents the most common first employment location for both young women and men, there are gender differences in the type of informal activity performed. Economic activities performed by young women are often an extension of their domestic tasks. They are mostly involved in petty trade of food items: peanuts, fruits, vegetables and spices or processed food such as cakes, doughnuts or millet porridge. Several young women also find their first paid job in the informal service sector (22%) working as domestic servants hairdressers, cooks or waitresses. Few of them are involved in agricultural (3%) or craft (3%) activities (mostly sewing). Informal craft activities are more common among young men (20%) and include bricklaying, tailoring, shoemaking or woodworking. Like their female counterparts a non-negligible proportion of young men (18 %) also find their first paid job in the service sub-sector of the informal economy, often as mechanics, taxi drivers, or welders. While they are clearly less involved in petty trading than young women, about a quarter of young men start working in the informal sector as street vendors selling of non-food items such as phone cards, cell phones, cigarettes or clothes.

Factors Affecting the Timing and Type of Transition to the Labor Market by Gender

To analyze gender differences in the timing of first pay job, three Cox proportional hazards models were estimated (Table 2): Model I evaluates the effects of socio-economic factors, including gender, affecting on the relative risk of getting a first paid job among all respondents and Model II and III present the differential effect of socioeconomic covariates on transition to first job among young men (Model II) and women (Model III).

[Table 2 about here]

The analyses confirm that schooling postpones entry into the labor market: the more educated the young people are, the later they get their first paid job (Model I). Differences are less pronounced between youth who never attended school and those who attended primary school and the gap is widening as educational increases. Results regarding the impact of family formation variables are more surprising: more than the union formation, it is the birth of a first child that slows down young women entry into the labor force (Model I). In fact, being in union does affect significantly the instantaneous risk of getting a first paid job but the birth of a first child reduces it by half. Social origin and poverty index significantly affect the timing of transition to the paid labor force: better off youth (those whose father were employed in the formal sector of the economy and living in richer households are clearly less forced to work early than under-privileged youth.

Cox models by sex (Models II et III) reveal marked differences in factors affecting youth's transition to first employment in Ouagadougou. Among men, the timing of entry into labor market primarily depends on time spent in school. Besides education, household socioeconomic status also affects male access to first employment, but to a lesser extent, and

youth from more advantaged socio-economic backgrounds remain longer outside the labor market than their poorer counterparts. There are more sources of heterogeneity in the timing of first job among young women. Like for their male counterparts, young women's schooling postpones their first entry into the labor market, but for them the effect of educational attainment is already statistically significant at the primary level, which is coherent with the higher participation of females to the labor market during adolescence. As expected, family formation variables also affect significantly the timing of female entry into the paid labor force. The birth of a first child more than entry into union slows down women's transition to first paid employment and young mothers have only half the risk of entering the labor market compared to childless young women. Besides educational attainment and parity, the migration status and socioeconomic origin of young women significantly affect the time to obtain a first paid job. Female migrants make faster transition to the labor market of Ouagadougou than natives and so do young women from disadvantaged backgrounds (those whose father worked in the informal sector of the economy and those who live in poorer households).

[Table 3 about here]

The multivariate analysis also explores gender differentials in the sector of first paid job (formal versus informal). Three models were estimated: Model IV was estimated among all youth and Models V and VI among male and female respondents separately. The analysis shows that gender differential in the type of first job obtained is mainly explained by unequal access to education. In fact, while young women have almost half the chance to get a first job in the formal sector of the economy compared to men, these differentials disappear when we

control for respondents' characteristics at the time of first job, and notably educational attainment (model IV). Determinants of type of first job obtained are overall the same among young men and women: educational attainment, migration status and social origin (models V et VI). The impact of educational attainment is striking, especially among young women: female and male youth who attended secondary school are respectively 18 and 8 times more likely to start working in the formal sector than their less educated counterparts. Other thing between equal, female and male migrants are more than twice as likely than natives from Ouagadougou to work in the formal sector. Growing up in a wealthy environment also favors insertion into the formal sector of the economy. Daughters of formal sector workers are 3.5 times more likely to also work in the formal sector compared to young women whose father was working in the agricultural or informal sector. The same advantage can be observed among young men.

Discussion and Conclusions

Several important results emerge from the present study. First, despite relatively similar median age at first job (between 23-24 years old), age pattern of access to first employment are very different among women and men and the distinction between adolescents (10-20 years old) and young adults (21-30) becomes crucial. Well into their 20s, female adolescents are less likely to be in school or apprenticeship and clearly more likely to work for pay compared to their male counterparts. Female participation to the job market in Ouagadougou declines with age, however. And as young men finish school and complete their apprenticeship, they enter the labor force while young women are more and more numerous to stay home taking care of their household. At age 25, female inactivity rate are in fact double as those of young men. Although these gender differences are in line with the traditional division of labor, the results also suggest that gender norms and roles are changing in the capital city. First, the analysis underlines the

important economic contribution of adolescents and young women to households' income in Ouagadougou today. In fact, although women experience higher rate of unpaid employment than men, especially during adolescence, the large majority of the work they performed on the job market is paid for. This result provides support for the idea that commercial activities that urban girls and young women used to do for free in the past have turned into paid employment [Dijkman and Van Dijk 1993; Jacquemin, 2009].

The necessity to contribute to the household income does not apply to the same extent to all young women in the capital city, however and adolescents from a modest background and those living in poorer environment seem to face more quickly the obligation to make a living. In line with previous findings on growing economic migration of female youth to African cities [Findley, 1997; Lesclingand, 2011], the analysis also shows that young migrants enter the labor force more quickly than their young native from in Ouagadougou. As for men, although living in a wealthier residence seems to offer some of them the « luxury » to postpone entry into the labor force, the timing of male transition to work is mostly dictated by the time spent in school and neither social origin nor migration status significantly affect it.

In West-African cities, gender differences in labor force participation are often believed to result from the conflict between employment and the union and family formation process among young women [Antoine and Dial, 2005]. Our data has allowed to measure this interaction and our analyses reveal that although the birth of child significantly postpone women's entry into the labor force, marital life, on the other hand, is not incompatible with female employment. These results are coherent with those from a recent qualitative study conducted in Ouagadougou [Kobiané et al. 2012] that underlines how the perception of female labor force participation have evolved in the capital city. Today, in Ouagadougou, women's contribution is perceived by city dwellers, especially younger generations, not only as a

necessity («every man wants a working wife») but as a factor of «stability in the households». Women who manage to reconcile employment with their domestic roles are highly valued and perceived as “courageous”, “responsible” and “resilient” [Kobiané et al. 2012: p.79].

Regarding the conditions of youth’s professional insertion, our analyses confirm the central role played by the informal sector, especially for women but also provides support for the idea that the private formal sector in Ouagadougou offers to both male and female youth more job opportunities than in the past (Delaunay, 2009). Overall, however, despite declining gender gap in education, gender inequality in the type of activity performed remains pronounced: young women have not only a more limited access to waged employment but they also tend to be confined to informal economic activities that constitute an extension of their domestic duties, such as petty trade of food items or domestic services. Our analyses show that these differences essentially reflect educational inequality, which suggests that better access to school for girls will undeniably be needed to improve female transition to the labor market. In fact, although they have been affected by the economic crisis on the 1990s, educated youth are still advantaged on the labor market compared to their less educated counterparts [Calvès and Schoumaker, 2004; Garcia and Fares, 2008; Kuepié et al., 2009]. Our study confirms that first jobs in the more stable and lucrative sector of the economic are still disproportionately devoted to them, and that this advantage of educated youth is particularly manifest among young women. In sum, our results suggest that despite persistent gender inequality on the urban job market, dynamics of professional insertion of female adolescents and young adults are changing and are likely to continue changing in the future considering the consistent progress in female schooling reported in West Africa since the 1990s.

Importantly, some of the study results also call for further investigation. First, in a context where clearly young women will increasingly be asked to combine domestic and economic activities, the question of “work-family” reconciliation becomes central. It would be interesting, for instance, to examine the strategies that these young workers develop to handle their “double schedule”. To juggle with these employment and family constraints are new forms of compromises and negotiations between spouses emerging within young households? The answer to these questions are likely to vary greatly depending on the social group studied. In fact, the analysis has clearly documented the heterogeneity in the female access to employment depending on educational attainment, social origin, poverty and migration status. Thus, these results also call for further investigation of the inequalities among young urban women. Studies on the differences by social origin in female strategies to reconcile work and family, as well as on the differentials in motivations underlying labor force participation and potential effects of this economic activity for women’s empowerment would be particularly useful.

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Table 1. Labor force participation at ages 20 and 25 and selected characteristics of employment trajectories, by sex

| | Men | | Women |
|---|------|--------------------|-------|
| Labor force participation at age 20 | | | |
| Main activity | | | |
| Employed | 38.8 | *** ⁽¹⁾ | 43.5 |
| <i>Paid</i> | 24.8 | | 32.8 |
| <i>Unpaid</i> | 14.0 | | 10.7 |
| Student | 35.8 | | 31.4 |
| Apprentice | 14.9 | | 04.7 |
| Unemployed | 10.5 | | 10.0 |
| Housewife | 00.0 | | 10.4 |
| N=1146 | 436 | | 710 |
| Estimated unemployment rate | | | |
| (% who have left school and are outside the paid labor force) | 49.8 | n.s | 48.7 |
| Estimated unemployment by marital status | | | |
| Among single | 52.7 | | 52.0 |
| Among respondents in union | --- | | 51.5 |
| N= 669 | 215 | | 454 |
| Labor force participation at age 25 | | | |
| Main activity | | | |
| Employed | 67.0 | *** | 59.2 |
| <i>Paid</i> | 59.6 | | 52.8 |
| <i>Unpaid</i> | 07.4 | | 06.4 |
| Student | 22.0 | | 10.7 |
| Apprentice | 06.9 | | 02.1 |
| Unemployed | 04.1 | | 07.8 |
| Housewife | 00.0 | | 20.2 |
| N=718 | 436 | | 282 |
| Estimated unemployment rate | | | |
| (% who have left school and are outside the paid labor force) | 16.1 | *** | 39.4 |
| Estimated unemployment rate by marital status | | | |
| Among single | 19.4 | *** | 31.7 |
| Among respondents in union | 05.5 | | 41.0 |
| N=556 | 310 | | 246 |

Table 1. (continued)

| | | | |
|---|------|--------------------|------|
| Employment trajectory | | | |
| Average years spent in employment | | | |
| Paid employment | 5.2 | *** ⁽²⁾ | 3.8 |
| Unpaid employment | 1.8 | * | 2.4 |
| Proportion of unpaid employment (%) | 16.8 | | 31.1 |
| Total number of periods of paid employment | | | |
| None | 19.7 | *** | 39.7 |
| 1 | 55.8 | | 45.9 |
| 2+ | 24.5 | | 14.4 |
| N=1146 | | | |
| Average duration of paid employment (in years) | | | |
| 1 st paid employment | 6.5 | ns | 6.8 |
| Total time spent in paid employment | 7.3 | | 7.7 |
| N=646 | | | |

⁽¹⁾ Chi square test ⁽²⁾ t-Test for equal means ***p<0.001 ** p <0.01 * p <0.05

Source: 2010 BPO survey

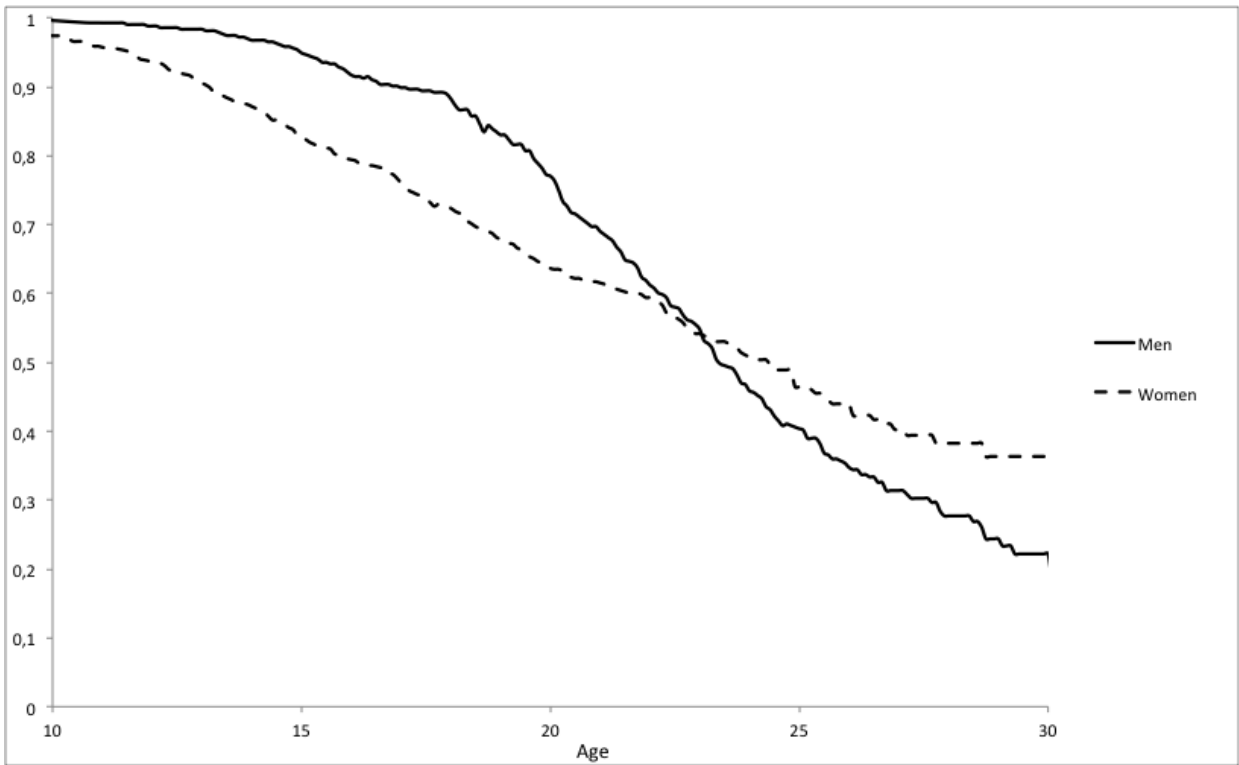


Figure 1. First paid job: Kaplan-Meier survival functions, by sex

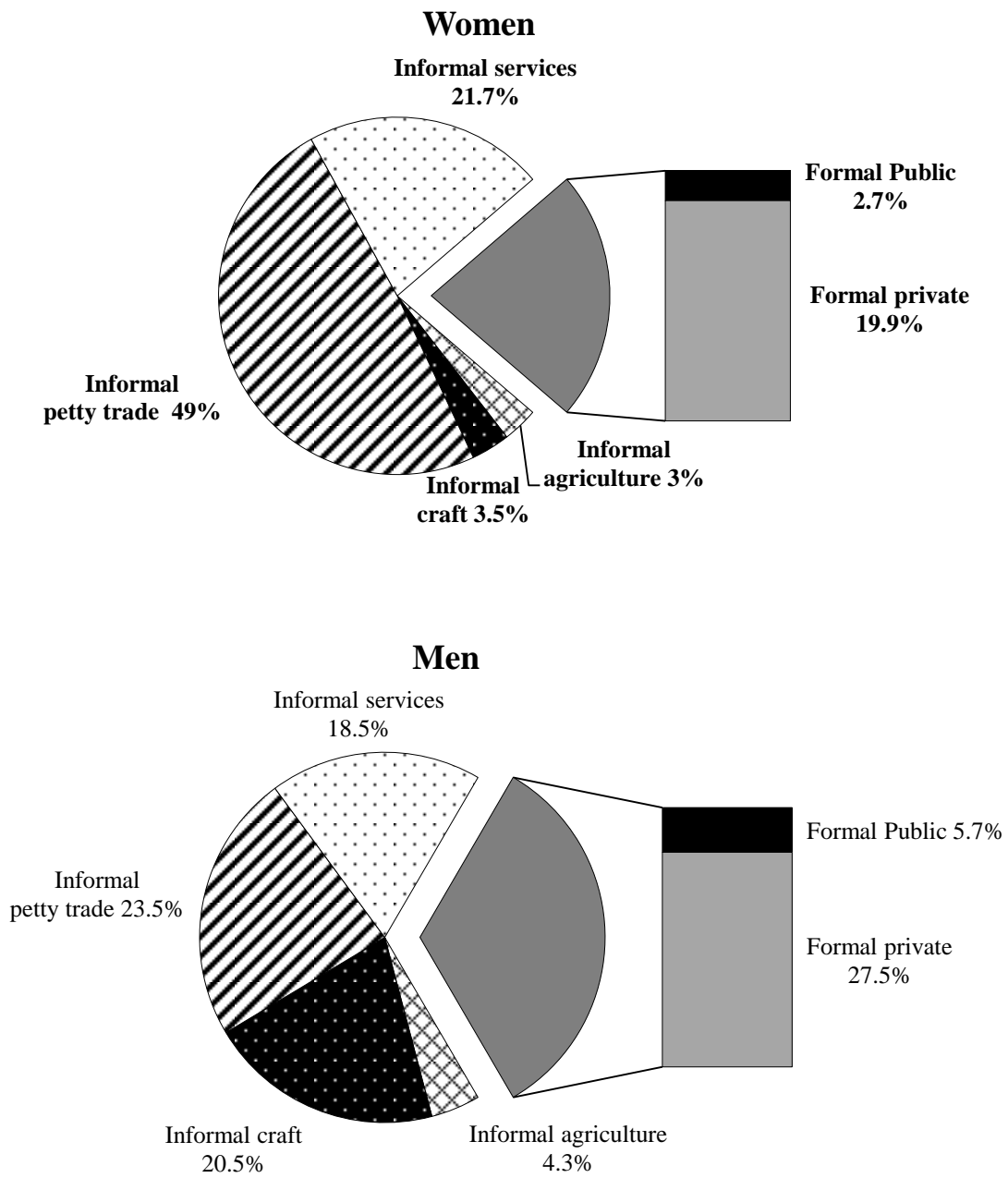


Figure 2. Sector of activity for first paid job, by sex

Table 2. Transition to first paid job, by sex: Cox proportional hazards models (Hazard ratios)

| | Model I | Model II | Model III |
|--|---------|----------|-----------|
| | All | Men | Women |
| Gender | | --- | --- |
| (Men) | | --- | --- |
| Women | 1.07 | | |
| Educational attainment ^(vt) | | | |
| (None) | | | |
| Primary | 0.74*** | 0.81 | 0.76* |
| Secondary 1 st cycle | 0.50*** | 0.60*** | 0.41*** |
| Secondary 2 ^{sd} cycle /Superior | 0.29*** | 0.27*** | 0.37*** |
| Marital status ^(vt) | | | |
| (Single) | | | |
| In union | 0.98 | 1.46 | 1.31 |
| Parity ^(vt) | | | |
| (No child) | | | |
| 1 child or more | 0.51*** | 0.88 | 0.53*** |
| Ethnic group | | | |
| (Mossi) | | | |
| Other | 0.86 | 0.81 | 0.93 |
| Migration status | | | |
| (Native from Ouagadougou) | | | |
| Migrant | 1.20* | 1.01 | 1.25* |
| Father's occupation | | | |
| (Agricultural/ informal work) | | | |
| Employee in the formal sector | 0.79** | 0.94 | 0.72** |
| Residential poverty index ^(vt) | | | |
| (Poor) | | | |
| Intermediary | 0.76** | 0.90 | 0.72** |
| Rich | 0.70*** | 0.75* | 0.71** |
| N (person-month) | 3837 | 1414 | 2423 |
| Prob> chi2 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

***p<0.01 ** p <0.05 *p <0.10 ^(vt) time-varying variables

Source: 2010 BPO survey

Table 3. Sector of first paid employment : factors affecting the probability to obtain a formal sector job versus an informal sector job, by sex (odd ratios)

| Characteristics at the time of 1st job | All | | Men | Women |
|--|---------|----------|---------|----------|
| | | Model IV | Model V | Model VI |
| Gender | | | | |
| (Men) | | | --- | --- |
| Women | 0.59*** | 1.24 | --- | --- |
| Age | | | | |
| (≤ 20 years old) | | | | |
| >20 years old | | 1.94** | 1.60 | 2.59** |
| Educational attainment | | | | |
| (None/Primary) | | | | |
| Secondary/Superior | | 11.41*** | 7.69*** | 18.34*** |
| Marital status | | | | |
| (Single) | | | | |
| In Union | | 0.73 | 1.57 | 0.55 |
| Parity | | | | |
| (No child) | | | | |
| 1 child or more | | 1.06 | 0.81 | 0.92 |
| Ethnic group | | | | |
| (Mossi) | | | | |
| Other | | 1.67 | 1.97 | 1.53 |
| Migration status | | | | |
| (Native from Ouagadougou) | | | | |
| Migrant | | 2.46** | 2.90** | 2.78** |
| Father's occupation | | | | |
| (Agricultural/ informal work) | | | | |
| Employee in the formal sector | | 2.63*** | 2.25*** | 3.64*** |
| Residential poverty index ^(vt) | | | | |
| (Poor) | | | | |
| Intermediary | | 0.70 | 0.40 | 0.85 |
| Rich | | 0.89 | 1.19 | 0.54 |
| N | 646 | 646 | 305 | 341 |
| | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

***p<0.01 ** p <0.05 *p <0.10

Source: 2010 BPO survey