NGOLA KILUANJE:

REPORT ON MICRO-INDUSTRIES

Development Workshop – Angola

Luanda – September 1992
ABBREVIATIONS

ACETRO  Associacao dos Concessionarios de Equipamentos de Transporte Rodoviario (Association of Concessions of Highway Transport Equipment)

ACORD  Associacao de Cooperacao e Pesquisa para o Desenvolvimento (consortium of European and Canadian NGOs) 

activista  community development worker

ADB / BAD  African Development Bank / (Banco Africano para o Desenvolvimento)

AJEA  Associacao de Jovens Empresarios de Angola (Association of Young Entrepreneurs of Angola)

ASCANGOLA  Associacao Comercial de Angola (Commercial Association of Angola)

ASSOMEL  Associacao das Mulheres Empresarias da Provincia de Luanda (Association of Women Entrepreneurs in Luanda Province)

ATL  Associacao dos Taxistas de Luanda (Association of Taxi Drivers of Luanda)

bairro  district or ward

CAVOP  Construcao, Armaduras, Voladuras e Obras Publicas, Lda. (Spanish construction company)

curandeiro  traditional healer

DW  Development Workshop (Canadian NGO)

EEC  European Economic Community

GARE  Gabinete de Redimensionamento Empresarial (Ministry of Plan)

GARM  Gabinete de Renovacao e Rehabilitacao dos Musseques (Office for the Renovation and Rehabilitation of Musseques - now defunct)

GDP / PIB  Gross Domestic Product (Produto Interno Bruto) (GDP = total value of output of goods and services for
final use produced by a nation's economy by residents for a specified period of time)

**IADB**  Inter-American Development Bank

**ILO / OIT**  International Labour Organization
(Organizacao Internacional do Trabalho)

**IMEL**  Instituto Medio de Economia de Luanda
(Middle-level Economic Institute of Luanda)

**IMES**  Igreja do Messias em Espírito Santo
(Church of Messiahs in the Holy Spirit)

**IMF**  International Monetary Fund

**INAPEM**  Instituto Nacional de Apoio as Empresas de Pequena e Media Dimensão
(National Institute for Assistance to Small and Medium Enterprises, Ministry of Industry)

**INE**  Instituto Nacional de Estatistica
(National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning)

**JA**  Jornal de Angola
(national newspaper)

**kandongeiro**  unregistered vender on the parallel market

**kz**  kwanza, Angolan monetary unit
(USD 1.00 = kw 550 in June 1992 and 590 in August 1992)

**LHBNS**  Luanda Household Budget and Nutrition Survey
(1991/92 study produced by Ministry of Planning, UNICEF-Luanda and Oxford University Food Studies Group)

**musseque**  peri-urban areas usually without basic urban services and often without legal tenure

**NGO / ONG**  Non-Governmental Organization
(Organizacao Nao-Governamental)

**OECD**  Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

**OMA**  Organizacao da Mulher Angolana
(Angolan Women's Organization)
(formally linked with MPLA but now a voluntary NGO)

**PAG**  Programa de Acao do Governo
(Government Programme of Action)
PME Pequenas e Medias Empresas
(Small- and Medium-sized Enterprises)

"processo 500" local name for private taxi service, which costs kz 500 per ride

quarteirao block (administrative area)

quitandeiro registered market vender in municipal market

SEAS Secretariado de Estado dos Assuntos Sociais
(Secretariat of State for Social Affairs)

SEF Saneamento Economico e Financeiro
(Economic and Financial Restructuring)

SEPDM Secretaria de Estado para a Promocao e Desenvolvimento da Mulher
(State Secretariat for Women´s Promotion and Development (SEPDM))

SIDA Swedish International Development Agency
(Agencia Sueca para o Desenvolvimento Internacional)

ASDI (Agencia Sueca para o Desenvolvimento Internacional)

SSE small-scale enterprise (micro-industry)

TA Terra Angolana
(Unita newspaper)

TCUL Transportes Colectivos Urbanos de Luanda
(Luanda Urban Public Transport, a state enterprise)

UN United Nations

UNDP / PNUD United Nations Development Programme
(Programa das Nações Unidas para o Desenvolvimento)

UNICEF United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
(Fundo das Nações Unidas para a Infância)

UNIDO United Nations Industrial Development Organization

USAID US Agency for International Development
FOREWORD

This informal sector and micro-industry survey was carried out as part of the Sambizanga Project by aktivistas working with this project. The survey was done in the commune of Ngola Kiluange which consists of four sectors: Central, Sao Jose, Sao Pedro da Barra and Val Saroca. The coordinator of the Sambizanga Project is Orquidea Saraiva.

The preliminary micro-industry inventory was made from July-September 1991. The coordinator of this survey was Clara Marilia Lopes who worked with a team consisting of the following aktivistas (the sectors they each covered are indicated in parentheses): Carlos Cardoso Domingos (Central), Xavier Januario (Sao Pedro da Barra) and Sandra Sady Guilherme. All these aktivistas live in Ngola Kiluanje and are involved in their community.

Mapping and updating of the list of micro-industries was carried out during April and July 1992 by aktivistas Carlos Cardoso Domingos (Central), Xavier Januario (Sao Pedro da Barra) and Adao Augusto (Sao Jose and Val Saroca).

Computer treatment of the data (using Lotus 123 and 4-PRO programmes) and participation in data analysis was done by Ndola Prata Menezes, consultant in social statistics.

Technical assistance to the survey, preparation of the data spreadsheet (questionnaire), initial data entry into the computer (using Lotus 123), consolidation of the four sector SSE maps into a single map for the entire commune and writing of the final report was done by Susan Hurlich, anthropologist and Development Workshop consultant.
1. INTRODUCTION

Ngola Kiluanje, one of the administrative areas in the municipality of Sambizanga, is 8 km from the centre of Luanda on the main road north of the city. Before independence the area was primarily an industrial zone with a low density population. One long-time resident says that between 1972-73 there were small cultivated fields located in the area now known as Ngola Kiluanje. After the war intensified, peoples displaced from the north and south of the country began to arrive and today, population density is high with no developed infrastructure. (JA 17.05.92)

As is the case throughout Angola, the informal sector in Ngola Kiluanje is an important, indeed key, part of community life. Everything from day-to-day purchases of basic consumer goods to shoe shines to car maintenance to health care and education is available in the informal sector. And yet, there is little information available on the range of socio-economic activities within this sector. This report, based on a preliminary inventory conducted on the informal sector in Ngola Kiluanje, is a first attempt to provide a more informed insight into the functioning of this sector as well as some of its problems and potential.

1.1 Survey Objectives

* Overall Objectives

The overall objective of this survey is to provide baseline data and a preliminary analysis on the informal economy, in particular micro-industries, within four sectors of Ngola Kiluanje: Central, Sao Jose, Sao Pedro da Barra and Val Saroca.

There is a lot of information still lacking, e.g., sex-disaggregated statistics are missing as is complete information on the labour force and wages, there is insufficient information on informal training systems such as apprenticeship, data on sales and monthly profits is incomplete, etc. The report is written in such a way as to indicate where these holes are and the most appropriate way to "plug" them.

Preliminary data was obtained on micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje in the latter half of 1991 and to some extent updated during mid 1992. It has not been the intention of this study to carry out additional fieldwork, but to pull together what information is presently available in such a way that it is useful for planning, including planning of future necessary studies.

* Written Report

The mandate for this study involves the preparation of a written report which addresses the following areas:

- a narrative discussion on micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje covering issues such as women's role, child labour, capability for on-the-job training, etc. Where possible, comparisons are made with other similar studies on micro-industries in Luanda as well as from elsewhere in Africa.
- a variety of tables, charts and maps present baseline data on micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje

- an assessment of the range and capacity of micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje, including an identification of the potentials for involving this sector in the activities of the Sambizanga Project

- suggestions of further useful studies on micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje

1.2 Methodology

  * Fieldwork: Inventory and Mapping

    The original inventory of micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje was carried out during the period July-September 1991, with actual field work done during August 1991. Four sectors of Ngola Kiluanje were visited: Central, Sao Jose, Sao Pedro da Barra and Val Saroca. The objective of this preliminary inventory was to obtain information on the number and type of existing micro-industries, their location, the size of the labour force, what they produce and the extent of sales, profits and services.

    The 1991 inventory and field work were carried out by a team consisting of a survey coordinator and three activistas from the Sambizanga Project.

    In conducting the survey, activistas explained to micro-entrepreneurs that they were simply carrying out an inventory and that it was not the intent of the Sambizanga Project to provide material and supplies to these small-scale industries, although one activista said he told people that the project might be able to help micro-entrepreneurs contact sources from whom they themselves could arrange to buy materials.

    During April and July 1992, follow-up visits were made to the four sectors with two objectives: First, to update the inventory through identifying which micro-industries from the earlier survey were still functioning as well as new micro-industries which had appeared since that time. Only the name, location and type of activity were obtained for new SSEs. Second, the physical location of each micro-industry was mapped for each of the four sectors.

    Finally, in-depth interviews were conducted by the consultant anthropologist in November 1991 with the former survey coordinator and in April 1992 with two of the activistas. The objective of these interviews was to obtain personal opinions and perspectives which were not included in the original data obtained.

  * Data Analysis

    Data analysis was done using mainly the Lotus 123 computer programme. First, a Model Questionnaire was prepared to serve both as a spreadsheet for entering raw data into the computer, as well as a guide identifying information which still needs to be collected. (See Annex I)

    To facilitate both analysis of the data and reproduction for inclusion in this report, the spreadsheet has been divided into five thematic categories.
1. **Identity of SSE**: location (block, street and house number), name of owner, principal and secondary economic activity, name of SSE, status of SSE (state, private Angolan or private foreign), date created and whether registered

2. **Work force and wages**: number and sex of skilled, unskilled and apprentice workers as well as management and average salaries for each group

3. **Product or service provided**: who are the customers, average prices and source of raw materials, including whether from client, parallel market or state or private company

4. **Capital equipment and/or physical installation**: whether owned or rented (from or to others), value and from where obtained

5. **Prices and profits**: monthly production rates and average earnings

Using these five themes, printouts have been made of all raw data divided into two global units and three groups. The two global units are **micro-industries** and **social services** (health and education) and the three groups are:

1. **Group 1**: each of the four sectors of Ngola Kiluanje (Central, Sao Jose, Sao Pedro da Barra and Val Saroca)

2. **Group 2**: overall work categories (construction, production, services, commerce and other)

3. **Group 3**: divisions within each overall work category (carpenters, tailors, vehicle maintenance and repair, retail stores, etc.)

Separate printouts have been produced for health and education, divided only into Groups 1 and 3.

Annexes VII, VIII, IX and X consist of printouts of all raw data.

Another mandate in the analysis of data was to get a copy of the raw data on the informal sector included in the 1990 Luanda Household Budget and Nutrition Survey (LHBNS), and in particular of the 41 micro-industries from Ngola Kiluanje which were included in the LHBNS survey of 820 SSEs. The objective in getting this information was to be able to make quantitative and qualitative comparisons with some of the information collected in the present inventory.

Contacts were made with UNICEF-Angola, one of the participants in the LHBNS survey, and official permission to get diskette copies of all the raw data was obtained from the Ministry of Planning. Once obtained by the consultant anthropologist, these diskettes were then turned over to the consultant social statistician with guidelines of which information would be of most use to the present study.

1.3 **Limitations**

Several limitations were encountered in carrying out this survey. First, a standardized questionnaire was not used by the activistas in carrying out the 1991 inventory, although this had been strongly recommended (and a draft provided by the consultant anthropologist) as the only
way to ensure that all activists obtained the same preliminary data from each of micro-industries contacted. (After field work was completed, the activists themselves realized the importance of using such a questionnaire.)

As a result, data collected from the different sectors of Ngola Kiluanje is uneven, inconsistent and may even have some errors depending on the background and previous experience of the particular activist. Some of these inconsistencies are the following:

- not all sectors include information on which micro-industries had closed between September 1991 and April/July 1992
- not all sectors include information on which micro-industries own or rent their capital equipment or installation
- not all informal health or educational services have been identified, e.g., information on traditional midwives is missing and information on curandeiros was obtained only for Sector Central
- sex-disaggregated statistics were not obtained

There is some unevenness in the information obtained on average monthly earnings. Perhaps the one exception is the data obtained for Sector Central, as the activist who worked in this area has a background in accounting. Another factor is that a number of micro-entrepreneurs expressed difficulty in calculating "in their heads" what their average earnings are, as there is often a large variation from one month to the next depending on available materials and supplies and extent of sales.

Even the LHBNS has observed that some data, such as informal sector wages and profits, are likely to be difficult to collect because of both the tremendous variation within the same enterprise and the "informality". (LHBNS 1991/6)

Several informal sector activities were not included in the inventory as they fall outside the scope of the Sambizanga Project. These activities include the following:

- street vendors (young boys and women selling as they walk about or in groups of two or three on the sides of the road)
- private transportation services (taxis and trucks) provided almost entirely by men. Because of the importance of this sector, some general comments are provided in Section 4.3.3
- local residents selling water from their own taps or water storage tanks or from clandestine (illegal) connections with main water lines (information about this area could, if desired, be integrated into the Sambizanga Project study on privately owned water storage facilities in Ngola Kiluanje)
- services such as washing women, domestic worker or women who provide childcare either in their own homes or in the homes of others

There were also some problems encountered in obtaining information from informal sector participants. For example, the former survey coordinator noted that in Sao Jose, it was difficult to
work because people did not speak openly about what they were doing. On the other hand, it was also noted that the survey in Val Saroca was done with more accuracy and precision than in some of the other sectors because it was the last area to be visited and, as a result, benefitted from experience gained in other areas of the commune.

The Sambizanga Project coordinator elaborated on the first point above: "As for conducting surveys, this is a time when there is a lot of resistance from people to give information, mainly because of the tension around the peace process and elections. In many cases, people want to know why they are being asked to provide specific information, and exactly what the result will be for them of giving it."

It was hoped that this study would be able to make comparisons with the information obtained on the 41 micro-industries from Ngola Kiluanje which were included in the LHBNS survey. But to date, it has been difficult to "get access" to this data due to unfamiliarity with the particular computer programme used by LHBNS. As a result, only that data already existing in written LHBNS reports has been used to make more general comparisons. This data, which covers Luanda as a whole, includes such things as the overall composition of the informal sector, micro-entrepreneurs (gender, literacy and numeracy rates, years of schooling and training), type of customers, etc. Data is sex-disaggregated.

1.4 Understanding "Locations" of SSEs in Luanda

Walking through the musseques of Luanda, one is struck (and often confused) by the array of numbers and letters appearing on many of the houses, as well as used as the names for many of the streets. There is actually a logic to these systems, although part of the confusion is due to the frequent juxtaposition of pre- and post-independence numbering systems. A partial explanation, which will help in understanding the raw data on "location" in Annexes VII, VIII, IX and X, is offered below:

* **Pre-Independence**

"BV" after a street number (for example, Rua 4-BV) refers to Boa Vista, indicating in which part of the city a street is located

"KC" after a street number refers to "kilometre Cacuaco", the old reference for the road going from the city to Cacuaco

"PF" after the house number refers to the Petro Fina area

Some houses in the same area show the same number followed by consecutive letters of the alphabet (for example, Casa 4-BV-132-D, Casa 4-BV-132-E, Casa 4-BV-132-F, etc.). This system uses the same numbers and distinguishes the houses by attaching different letters of the alphabet. In this case, the houses are located in the area of Boa Vista.

* **Post-Independence**

During the 1983 census in Luanda, all houses then existing were enumerated using a system which identifies both the municipality and the commune in which a house is located.
For the municipality of Sambizanga, all houses enumerated at the time were assigned the letter "S", followed by a letter for the commune. "K" is the letter which was assigned for the commune of Ngola Kiluanje.

All houses in Ngola Kiluanje which have the letters "SK" after their numbers were enumerated during the 1983 census, "SK" being the reference for “Sambizanga-Kiluanje.”

* Observations

Luanda's population, particularly in the musseque areas, has rapidly grown during the past fifteen years because of the dramatic influx of people from rural to urban areas caused by the war. The majority of people coming into Luanda build their houses wherever they find available space. As a result, "roads" appear spontaneously; those dating after 1983 have no official designation. Likewise, new houses appear in open spaces on roads which have formerly been designated with names and/or letter/number combinations. Consequently, houses appear to have no "logical" numbering system. For example, along Rua 35-SK in Val Saroca, there are lapses in the house numbering system as one ascends the road. These lapses indicate houses which have been constructed since 1983.

1.5 Other Comments

During the past several years, an increasing number of multilateral and bilateral aid agencies and international NGOs have been carrying out studies and providing support to the informal sector in different parts of the world. Although providing information on these agencies was not part of the mandate of this study, Annex II provides a list of some of the more important of these agencies; this information is condensed from that provided in various readings included in the Reference Bibliography (Annex VI).

Similarly, Annex III provides information on some international conferences which have taken place during the past two years and which have focussed on the role of women in the informal sector.

Finally, Annex V provides an Annotated Bibliography of some of the more relevant readings encountered during the writing of this report.
2. ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS AND POPULATION DATA

2.1 Administrative Divisions

2.1.1 Municipalities and Communes

The municipality of Sambizanga, with a total area of 14.5 sq. km, is divided administratively into three communes: Bairro Operario, Sambizanga and Ngola Kiluanje. Each commune has an appointed governor.

2.1.2 Sectors

Communes are divided into sectors. Ngola Kiluanje, located in the industrial zone of Petrangol, has four sectors: Central, Sao Jose, Sao Pedro da Barra and Val Saroca. Normally the number of houses in a sector varies between 150 and 900. Each sector has an elected coordinator who works under the jurisdiction of the communal governor of Ngola Kiluanje.

2.1.3 Blocks (Quarteiros)

Each sector is divided into blocks (quarteiros), each of which has 100-300 households (families). Normally a sector has between 10-15 blocks, although the number may vary. The block coordinator, who is elected, is responsible for knowing each house in his/her block as well as visitors in the area, and to work jointly with other local structures. Regular meetings are usually held in each block at which residents may present their priorities for improving their community.

Sector coordinators meet regularly with block coordinators coming under their jurisdiction.

2.2 General Demographic Information

Sambizanga municipality has some 250,000 residents. Ngola Kiluanje is estimated to have about 60,000 people, based on 1983 census figures and using an 8% population growth rate. This high growth rate is justified on the fact that Ngola Kiluanje, a relatively newer commune which formerly had a lower population density, has received a higher number of migrants in recent years than other older-established and more populated parts of the musseques.

The actual population, however, is not known. The communal government's office estimates there are up to 75,000 inhabitants in Ngola Kiluanje and the one health centre in the area has used the figure of 76,000 since the start of 1991 which is the number of people registered as residents plus their dependents. But it is generally recognized that there are other more recently arrived inhabitants who have still not registered. There has not been a detailed census since 1983 and although the central government has been mandated to carry out a national census, this has still not been done.

The population of Ngola Kiluanje is roughly divided between migrants of ten years standing or more and those who have arrived more recently. Language groups are mainly kimbundu, umbundu and kikongo. Adult illiteracy rates are high especially among women. The majority of the population does not have any official employment and of those who are regularly employed, the majority fall in the category of non-skilled manual labour.
2.3 The Household Level

In 1990, the Ministry of Planning, UNICEF-Luanda and the Oxford University Food Studies Group carried out a comprehensive study and analysis on the socio-economic impact of structural adjustment in 16 bairros of Luanda. Known as the Luanda Household Budget and Nutrition Survey (LHBNS), the report contains information on gender relations at the household level. The following (from LHBNS 1992) is a summary of data obtained for the bairro of Ngola Kiluanje (compared, where possible, with the municipality of Sambizanga and with Luanda as a whole):

Average size of households (often includes unrelated members)

- Ngola Kiluanje 8.21 members
- Sambizanga 8.25 members
- Luanda 8.32 members

Dependency ratio (proportion of youngsters 10-14 years old and elders 65+ years old who are unable to make a significant contribution to household economy, either in domestic work or out-of-household work). When 10 years is the break off point, there is about a one-third dependency ratio; when 14 years is the break off point, there is about a one-half dependency ratio. Given that many youngsters are already working (sometimes as apprentices in micro-industries), it is not clear which ratio best reflects the on-the-ground situation.

- Ngola Kiluanje 0.377 (10 yrs) and 0.535 (14 yrs)
- Sambizanga 0.358 (10 yrs) and 0.520 (14 yrs)
Informal sector activities are estimated to employ from 30-70% of the labour force in the developing world. Percentages vary depending on the country and the definition of what constitutes informal-sector activity. (See Section 3.1) In recent decades, massive migration from rural to urban areas has increased the number of informal urban enterprises in developing countries, both in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the overall labour force. (ACCIÓN:2-3)

In Angola, few studies or statistical data exist on the informal sector in general, or on the role of women and men within this sector - what they do, how long it takes them to do it, who controls the output of their labour and how they are organized. There has also not, to date, been a clear definition of what is meant by the informal sector. In this respect, the informal sector remains an "invisible" part of the national economy.

In Angola, as in much of the developing world, the informal sector is expanding rapidly and there is a growing awareness of its importance and potential contribution to the economic and social reconstruction of the country. (JA 5.08.92)

3.1 Definition

"An informal sector enterprise is like a giraffe; it's hard to describe but you know one when you see one."

Hans Singer (in Lubell 1991:19)

The first problem to be overcome in talking about micro-industries and the informal sector is that of definition. The second problem is the lack of reliable information on the nature and extent of small businesses.

There is no universally accepted definition of the informal sector either in Africa or elsewhere. The term is often used to encompass all economic activities which are not part of the formal sector. This definition, however, is too broad to be really useful for analytic purposes as it includes the very poorest people scratching a meagre living from cleaning shoes or selling single cigarettes to productive enterprises employing several people. (Westlake 1990:13)

It is beyond the mandate of this report to propose a definitive definition of the informal sector for Angola. What this report does, however, is to provide an overview of the range of definitions used internationally and to indicate some of the basic issues which must be considered when deciding what definition is most appropriate for the Angolan reality.

The concept of the informal sector was first introduced into international usage in 1972 when an ILO Employment Mission to Kenya defined it as having seven characteristics: ease of entry, reliance on local resources, family ownership of resources, small scale of operation, labour-intensive and adapted technology, skills acquired outside the formal school system and
unregulated and competitive markets. In the past thirty years, most subsequent definitions appear to be only variants of this definition. (Lubell 1991:17)

It should be noted that the ILO definition can be applied to both informal non-agricultural activities as well as to informal small-scale agricultural activities. This report, however, focuses only on the former, which in urban areas includes the broad categories of construction, production, services and commerce.

A further observation of the 1972 ILO report is that although the majority of informal sector activities are small in scale and have limited technology, capital and links with the formal sector, they are still often profitable and offer a full range of basic goods and services to a large and often poor section of the population. (Lubell 1991:22)

One study which reviews two decades of informal sector definitions, surveys, policies and programmes concludes that after many years of controversy concerning the nature of informality, two characteristics have emerged as operational criteria for identifying informal sector enterprises. These are the small size of micro-industries and the extent to which such enterprises avoid official regulations and taxes. (Lubell 1991:11)

Within the two criteria mentioned above, exact definitions vary. Following is a summary overview of some of the more commonly used definitions and criteria, derived from a variety of sources:

* **Size of Labour Force**

  Around the world, most people studying micro-industries use the number of workers as an indication of whether an enterprise is small-scale or not.

  But how small is small? This seems to vary. Some surveys have defined micro-enterprises as enterprises sometimes having less than five workers, sometimes less than ten and sometimes less than twenty. Some surveys define the labour force of micro-industries to consist of the enterprise head and paid employees but not unpaid family workers and apprentices. (Lubell 1991:11, 19) Other definitions include unpaid family members (ACCION:2)

  Some surveys also make a distinction between small-scale and medium-scale enterprises, the former considered to be those employing between 1-29 persons and the latter between 30-200 persons. (Courier 1989:75-77)

  A 1983 guide to preparing upgrading and development projects accessible to low income groups also uses the size of the work force to classify industrial activities. Workshops and cottage industries employ up to nine full-time workers and are usually owner operated with some assistance from friends or relatives. Smaller scale enterprises employ between 10-100 people and larger scale enterprises employ 100+ workers on individual sites and depend on uninterrupted supplies of utilities and raw materials. (Davisdon and Payne 1983:30)

* **Status of Labour Force**

  Studies on the informal sector, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean, define micro-industries by the status of the work force, including domestic servants, casual workers, own-account workers and persons working in enterprises of less than five persons (enterprise heads, white-collar employees, blue-collar workers and family members). (Lubell 1991:17)
INSTRAW, a Dominican Republic NGO involved in a UN-funded project on women's role in the informal sector, found that the most operational definition of the informal sector from the point of view of existing statistics should be limited to own-account workers, their unpaid family workers and apprentices. (INSTRAW:18)

Some studies say that the status of participants in the informal sector can be identified by the fact that they are not covered by social security or other labour regulations. (Lubell 1991:19) And still other studies define the informal sector as that sector in which people are working because of the lack of employment opportunities in the formal sector. This is one variation of an "excess labour supply" approach. (INSTRAW:18)

Another aspect of informality which has only recently begun to be highlighted in defining what constitutes this sector is the status of employment in terms of time input, i.e., the need to take into account both long-term and short-term employment arrangements within the informal sector. This is particularly the case in Africa, where many women are seasonally or intermittently active in the informal sector, especially in agriculture. (INSTRAW:7)

* **Income, Finances and Accounting Mechanisms**

Although some studies define informal micro-industries as having generally lower-paid labour (INSTRAW:7), other studies show that average earnings of some informal sector enterprise heads are higher than the official minimum wage or than the average wage in the formal sector. (Lubell 1991:12)

But for workers within the informal sector, wages may often be low. Following from this, one definition of this sector includes an income criterion based on persons earning less than a certain minimum, usually the legal minimum wage, and assuming low-productivity within the informal sector. (Lubell 1991:18)

Other definitions say that informal sector activities are activities which may or may not use local fixed capital. (JA 4.08.91) Further, that informal enterprises may be said to be small or medium-sized in terms of the amount of capital they have at their disposal. (Courier 1989:75)

Some investigators of the informal sector define this sector as including all those economic activities done as independent (own-account) work not directly assessed by national accounting and economic statistics. (INSTRAW:7)

* **Operating Characteristics and Production Unit**

One criteria used in defining the informal sector is based on the division of labour and and the extent of specialization. (INSTRAW:18) With so few workers, there is little or no division of labour. Production is labour-intensive, often manual and equipment simple and hand-made. (ACCION:2-3)

Another criterion used in defining this sector is related to how the productive unit is organized; as small-scale units engaged in the production and distribution of goods and services whose primary objective is generating employment for informal sector participants rather than maximizing profits. (Lubell 1991:17) Some surveys have also used the physical size or even the number of production units involved in a particular informal sector activity as one of the ways to identify such
activities. (Courier 1989:77)

Other surveys define informal micro-industries as characterized by relatively low productivity and a lack of organization. (INSTRAW:7)

* Physical Establishment

The nature of the physical establishment in which informal sector activities are carried out is sometimes used in defining such activities. Informal sector activities may or may not have a fixed location (JA 4.08.91), and the physical appearance of the enterprise and/or location and the kind of structure (or non-structure) in which it operates is another frequently used indicator. Some micro-industries are found in temporary-looking structures or structures made of scrap or nonpermanent materials. Others are found in the backyard or in front of a dwelling - often the owner's - or in a basement or even in the open under a tree or by the roadside or on the street. (Lubell 1991:19)

* Market

Another frequently encountered criterion of informal sector enterprises is the extent of sales turnover and the size and nature of the market they serve. (Courier 1989:77)

Informal sector businesses are specifically oriented to the local market. They serve customers in poor neighbourhoods (and also middle and upper classes who may choose to frequent them) by providing many goods (clothing, shoes, food, etc.) and services - often but not always provided in formal sector establishments - at lower prices. (ACCION:2-3)

Some surveys base their definition of the informal sector on the notion of the "black market" as an underground economy resulting from the pressures of increased competition from the international market leading to the increasing development of manufacturing based on micro-industries. (INSTRAW:18)

* Legal Status

Informal micro-industries are often defined as operating largely outside the purview of government regulations or assistance. (INSTRAW:7) This definition equates such activities with marginality (such as street hawking, garbage picking or casual labour) and illegality or non-compliance with regulations on fiscal, employment, health and other matters. Such non-compliance may be the result of flaws in the tax and legal system. (Lubell 1991:18)

This absence of legal documentation or requirements such as registration licences, minimum wage regulations and social security payments may have two consequences. On the one hand, workers in the informal sector have no regulating mechanism concerned with such issues as health and occupational safety in the work place. On the other hand, unenforced regulations may leave the informal sector open to harassment and racketeering by the police. In this sense, informal sector activities are those defined as "unprotected" by company policy, government regulations or trade union action. (INSTRAW:18 and Lubell 1991:18)

* Concluding Remarks

Regardless of the variation in size, type of activity and degree of sophistication of micro-
enterprises, most surveys use the same general characteristics in defining such activities. These are:
- small-scale
- labour intensive
- minimal capital inputs
- local market

Initially, some experts studying the informal sector anticipated that it would eventually be absorbed into the formal sector. But this point of view has changed to the realization that the informal sector is not only here to stay, but that it seems to be growing. (Lubell 1991:9)

3.2 Economic and Social Function of SSEs

The informal sector has two important economic and social functions. First, it produces goods and services that meet a good part of the consumption needs of poorer consumers in developing countries. Second, it absorbs a good proportion of the urban labour force in developing countries. (Lubell 1991:9)

Surveys also show that the informal sector serves as a major entry point into urban life and work for a large number of rural migrants to cities. (Lubell 1991:9)

3.3 Impact of SSEs on the National Economy

Accurate statistics on the impact of SSEs on employment and gross domestic product of developing countries are not easy to establish. In some developing countries, SSEs are estimated to account for well over 50% of total industrial employment, with about 10% of rural employment provided by manufacturing and 20-30% of all rural employment provided by activities other than farming (probably mainly SSEs). There is also a strong tendency for the number of SSEs to increase as urban growth increases and for the service sector to absorb a high proportion of labour leaving agriculture as part of the rural-urban drift. (Courier 1989:77)

The ILO estimates that the informal sector accounts for 60% of sub-Saharan Africa's urban labour force, contributing an average 20% of annual output (or USD 15 billion) to a group of 17 African nations recently studied. (Westlake 1990:13)

In Angola, there are no available statistics on the extent of informal micro-industries. What statistics do exist for private enterprises cover only formal enterprises, consisting mainly of companies which were not nationalized at independence. Official date from 1987 shows a total of 1,260 registered private companies, 17 mixed companies (government/private) and 36 others (including cooperatives), of which 48.9% were in commerce, 25.6% in industry and 17.3% in transport. For the same year, the formal private sector employed 27,000 workers. (JA 4.08.91)

In 1987, the Ministry of Planning estimated that the value of goods circulating in Angola's parallel markets was 2.5 times greater than the GDP that same year. (Morel 1990:19) The parallel economy is so important in Angola that the population devotes at least one-third of its productive time to it on an everyday basis. (dos Santos 1989:162) In Luanda, up to 90% of family income is
consumed in the parallel market (World Bank 1988:61), and in 1990 it was found that both food secure and insecure households spend more than 74% of their budget on food. (LHBNS 1991/1:42)

3.4 Legal Framework

* Background

The ILO has identified the informal sector as "one of the most difficult policy questions currently facing the world of labour". (INSTRAW)

Although there is general agreement that policy and legislation greatly affect the functioning of the informal sector, there are many different points of view on which aspects of policy and law are most important. (Lubell 1991:13)

If a micro-industry is registered, it is within the formal rather than the informal sector, even if it is small in terms of numbers of workers. Similarly, a larger enterprise with fifty or more workers may be part of the informal economic sector, if it is not registered. Many surveys have noted that the avoidance of regulation often goes with small-scale. But while this "official invisibility" enhances the ability of micro-businesses to avoid expense-incurred regulations, it also has its costs (Lubell 1991:11)

Although the extent of legislation regulating small scale economic activity varies from country to country, as does the extent to which such legislation is enforced (Lubell 1991:105-6), most surveys indicate that informal sector enterprises are generally ignored by law, rarely helped, frequently monitored and sometimes discouraged by government. Informal micro-enterprises are often constrained by regulatory restrictions, cumbersome administrative procedures, harassment and corruption, and while they often escape direct taxation, studies indicate they may indirectly pay equal or higher taxes than formal sector enterprises. (LHBNS 1991/2:22)

* Angola

In Angola, there is a law specifying that no productive activity can be done without prior authorization, registration and the payment of duties and taxes. However, most informal sector activities in Angola are not registered. (Morel 1990:5,25)

From its survey of micro-industries in Luanda, the LHBNS concludes: "Informal sector enterprises often appear to operate on the margins of legality, appear not to meet standards of hygiene or appearance, and typically are located in unplanned areas. As a result, regulations are often enacted and enforced in an attempt to constrain and control this sector. Several statements within the 1991 Plan of Action suggest that this approach is still prevalent within Angola. These attempts are not successful in eliminating the informal sector, but they are successful in increasing product price levels, and decreasing employment within the sector." (LHBNS 1991/2:19)

Although detailed information on whether particular micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje are registered or not was not obtained by this survey, activists who worked on this survey believe that the majority are not registered. In the words of one activist: "Most micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje are not registered. Since January of this year (1992), the office of the commune
governor has been going around the commune finding out which micro-industries are registered and which are not. Those that are not registered are being fined."

* Observations

While there is an ongoing assumption in many informal sector surveys that participants in this sector want support from the state, there is a lingering doubt as to whether these participants may not prefer official invisibility to possible assistance. (Lubell 1991:11)

More recently, there has been a move in a number of countries to develop and apply positive policies in support of informal sector activity and to reduce risks and uncertainties to which informal sector operators are subject. One reason for this change has been the growing awareness of the importance of the informal sector in economic recovery and development and its potential for employment creation. (Lubell 1991:9, 11, 114)

But the issue is a complex one and has several components. First, among the more common elements contained in a typical regulatory system are such things as:

- legal access to property
- licensing to function as a business in a given location
- minimum standards of hygiene
- quality control of the product
- minimum wages
- minimum standards for the physical infrastructure
- local and national taxes on property, etc.

Decisions need to be made about which regulations are economically and socially justified for the informal sector and which are unjustified, as well as about which desirable regulations could be suspended as part of an effort to encourage informal sector economic activity. (Lubell 1991:117)

Another option which has come out of informal sector studies in Latin America is to completely remove government restrictions on this sector including licensing requirements. That is, the government should completely remove itself from the market place and leave informal sector participants free to use their talents and energies to create the goods and services the economy demands. (Lubell 1991:73)

3.5 Gender Patterns

Two interlinked problems with most available statistics in Angola is the lack of sex-disaggregated data and the bias in official interpretations of what constitutes "real" work. Because the state "stops" where the "informal" begins, available data on employment gives a distorted picture of the national economic and of what women and men actually do within this economy. As a result, national development planning is not really national.

One of the few studies done on the informal sector in Angola estimates that, in 1990, three-quarters of the total economically active population (3.13 million out of 4.09 million) are involved in informal sector activities. Out of this group, 88% (2.76 million or 67% of the total economically active population) are involved in agricultural activities including fishing. About 10% of those working in the informal sector are involved in the parallel market, and 1.3% work in informal industrial activities and handicrafts. (Morel 1990:6-7)
3.5.1 Role of Women

* Overview

In sub-Saharan Africa, women are estimated to constitute 40% of the total work force. Almost 60% of all economically active women are self-employed mainly in the informal sector (subsistence agriculture, markets, domestic servants or factory outworkers). In services, women represent two-thirds of all informal sector producers. (INSTRAW:3) Women in the African informal sector tend to be concentrated in petty retail trade, food processing, dressmaking, grain milling, hairdressing and services. They also tend to be illiterate, migrants, unskilled and the poorest among informal sector participants. (Lubell 1991:13)

Since 1991, the UN has been funding a three-year research and training project on women's role in the informal sector in Asia, Latin America and Africa. The project concentrates on policy, statistics and training. Case studies have been carried out in four African countries by INSTRAW. Results of these studies show several general patterns: first, the proliferation of informal sector activities caused by economic constraints; second, a dominance of women in the sector, especially in trade; and third, a high contribution by women to informal sector GDP (ranging from 25% in The Gambia to 39.3% in the Congo). (INSTRAW:2,5-6)

* Angola

In 1990, it was estimated that women represent 20% of those employed nationally in the formal sector (147,000 out of 715,000) and 55% of those active in the informal sector (1.73 million out of 3.13 million). Women are especially active in agricultural activities (including urban green belts) and services (including the parallel market), where they represent 55% and 60% respectively of those active in these two sectors. In fishing activities, men predominate, representing 88% of the 28,000 people active in this sector. Small-scale industrial and handicraft activities in the informal sector tend to be traditionally male activities, although there is a noticeable involvement of women. In 1990, out of 41,000 individuals active in these sectors, some 8,000 (20%) were women. (Morel 1990:6-7,10-11)

In 1990, out of 427,630 employed in Luanda, it was estimated that 35.7% (152,750) were self-employed in informal micro-enterprises. (LHBNS 1991/2) For the same year, available statistics show that in Luanda, almost twice as many women than men (35.4% compared to 18.7%) were self-employed. (LHBNS 1992:40) Table I shows the breakdown, by work category and sex, of the participation of women and men in the micro-enterprise sector in Luanda.
TABLE I

SELF-EMPLOYMENT AND OWN BUSINESS
ACCORDING TO SECTOR AND SEX
LUANDA 1990

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sector</th>
<th>women (%)</th>
<th>men (%)</th>
<th>total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>commerce, food</td>
<td>82.7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commerce, non-food</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restaurant</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brickyard</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>building</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transport</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothing</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: LHBNS 1992:41

Table I shows that commerce and restaurant activities concentrate 94.4% of self-employed women and 49.2% of self-employed men. Women are practically absent in other activities with the exception of clothing. (LHBNS 1992/40)

In 1990, some 302,000 people were working in the parallel markets throughout the country, of whom 181,000 (60%) were women and 121,000 (40%) were men. In addition to retail and other commercial activities, women are also involved in SSEs ranging from baking and drugstores to hotel keeping, hairstyling and photography, although to a much lesser extent. (Morel 1990:8,22)

Few women are involved with SSEs dealing with vehicle, motor-cycle or bicycle repair, panel beating or teaching driving. Statistics from the Ministry of Transport and Communications show that for 1990, out of a total of 252 registered industries in this sector in Luanda Province, 97% are owned by men and only 3% are owned by women. (Morel 1990:23)

Another characteristic of women's involvement in the informal sector was found in a survey carried out by ACORD - a consortium of European and Canadian NGOs - and SEAS. Viana II, located near the city of Viana 20 km east of Luanda, is a zone which has been targetted for the reinstallation of dislocated persons and war refugees. By mid-1990, 3,370 people were already living there. A survey carried out in this community found that many women turn to informal sector activities (marketing, selling coal or cultivating small fields with manioc) to supplement family income. These activities are more often occasional and irregular. (ACORD 1990)

* Ngola Kiluanje

The inventory of micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje identified very few owned by women. Several observations were made on this fact by those who participated in the study. The former coordinator of the survey said: "It is difficult to know why women are so little involved in small-scale enterprises in Ngola Kiluanje. Usually, women do not work with micro-industries. They may be home owners, or they may work in the state structure, but men usually do not want their wives
to make more money than they do. In the peripheral urban zones and in the rural areas, women are seldom owners of micro-industries. It is also rare to find women doing work which is usually done by men."

One activista said: "Few women work in small-scale enterprises and few women own small-scale enterprises. The reason for their low involvement is that they generally do not like to do the kind of work which is done by most micro-industries; they prefer to buy manufactured products instead."

* Observation

Some observers of the informal sector consider that the key to strengthening women's position in the sector is diversification rather than such things as increased access to credit. But Henri Bazin, Chief of Division for Regional Programmes and Senior Economic Adviser at UNDP's Regional Bureau for Africa, considers that the possibilities of diversification are limited, and that "...in the informal sector itself, there is almost an unspoken division of labour between men and women...There are certain things that men are doing that it would be difficult to imagine a woman doing, like being a locksmith or having an auto repair shop, which is very much part of the informal sector...(T)he social traditions are very important." (INSTRAW:3-4)

3.5.2 Problems Confronting Women Entrepreneurs

Women's operational efficiency in SSEs is often hindered by any or all of the following, with the first two often cited as the most serious problems:
- lack of education and training
- lack of access to bank credit
- non-involvement in decision-making process
- lack of effective organization and coordination of women's economic activities

Women often lack knowledge of basic principles of management and bookkeeping, finance and credit facilities, raw materials, appropriate technology and markets for their products. The problem of marketing has two aspects: the inability of most micro-producers to reach consumers due to lack of transportation, and the inability of producers to sell their goods in the market place due to generally low income levels and low quality of products. (Courier 1989:76)

Often, women involved in the informal sector do not speak out. They are illiterate, reluctant with authorities and have unpredictable work schedules. They work on a less advanced technological level than men within the same sector. They often have no support and they have hard lives with lots of responsibilities.

These problems are most noticeable in the informal market places, where the majority of urban working women who work in informal sector occupations are found in developing countries. Women most commonly sell produce, fish, prepared-food or beverages. A few market women are well off but the majority live on the border-line of survival, supplementing family incomes if married and providing family incomes if unmarried, divorced or widowed heads of households. In most countries they suffer handicaps such as the lack of child-care in or outside the work place, sex-discriminatory laws, the cumulative burden of income-earning and unpaid household tasks, etc. (Lubell 1991:100)
3.6 Characteristics of Micro-Industries

Most of the field surveys done on the informal sector have been carried out in Africa and most of the theorizing has been done in Latin America. The approach taken in studying micro-industries in Asia has been largely pragmatic. One general observation emerging from these studies is that the differences among country cases stems mainly from differences in the general levels of technology and industrialization. (Lubell 1991:64)

3.6.1 Micro-Entrepreneurs

Informal sector studies in the early 1970's in Africa began with a labour force approach (size of labour force) to examining micro-industries as production units. (Lubell 1991:21) Some of the characteristics of micro-entrepreneurs (owners of SSEs) coming out of these studies are the following:

* Illiteracy

Out of thirteen studies carried out in Africa from 1975 to 1987 that talk about illiteracy rates of SSE participants, heads of micro-industries are seen to have illiteracy rates ranging from 25% in Lome (Togo, 1977) to 76% in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso, 1977). (Lubell 1991)

* Formal Education

Out of the same group of studies, the percentage of micro-entrepreneurs who have had no formal education or training ranges from 11% in Lagos (Nigeria, 1976)) to 44% in Djibouti (1982) and 80% in Bangul (The Gambia, 1980). Micro-entrepreneurs who have had some primary level education range from 12% in Kano (Nigeria, 1976) to about 75% in Lusaka and Kitwe (Zambia, 1982). Kumasi (Ghana, 1975) seems to be the exception, with 60% of micro-entrepreneurs having ten years of schooling (middle-level) or more. (Lubell 1991)

* Luanda

It is instructive to compare the results obtained from studies elsewhere in Africa, and those obtained by the LHBNS survey on SSEs in Luanda. Questions included in the LHBNS survey cover such things as gender, age, literacy and numeracy rates and schooling of the micro-entrepreneurs. Information on sales patterns was also obtained. The highlights of this survey are summarized below.

Literacy and educational levels are roughly the same in Angola as exist elsewhere in Africa.

- almost one-half (43%) of micro-entrepreneurs can neither read, write nor keep accounts
- one-third of micro-entrepreneurs have never gone to school and over one-third (about 39%) have four years of education or less
- almost two-thirds (63%) of the 820 micro-entrepreneurs are women
- about three-quarters (73%) of micro-entrepreneurs are either heads of households or married to heads of households (divided almost evenly between these two groups)
- over one-third (38%) of the 820 micro-entrepreneurs are between 20-34 years old and about two-thirds are between 20-44 years old; less than one-tenth are either younger than 14 or older than 59 years old

3.6.2 Average Size

Informal micro-industries are small, not just in Angola but throughout Africa. Two decades of micro-industry surveys from around Africa show that a large number of micro-entrepreneurs work alone (own-account), ranging from 15% in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975) to over 50% in Lagos and Kano (Nigeria, 1976) and 74% in Freetown (Sierre Leone, 1976). Of the rest, about half have between two and four persons (including the owner or manager). The largest number of workers was found in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975), where 31% of micro-industries have between five and nine persons and 7% ten or more persons. (Lubell 1991)

The average size of micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje is presented in Tables II and III. (Section 3.6.3). Eleven of the nineteen activities for which information is available on the average size of the labour force have four workers or fewer. Table III provides a comparison between the different global categories of work: micro-industries involved in the productive sphere have the smallest average number of workers (3.6) per unit, followed by commerce (4.5), construction (5.0) and services (5.7).

3.6.3 Labour Force and Wages

* Overview

For workers within the informal sector, and especially for apprentices, wages are generally lower than for formal sector workers. Studies show, however, that there is not only a wide range of earnings within the sector, but that the gap between average earnings in the formal and informal sectors has narrowed since the 1980’s when large businesses began to be hit by the recession. (Westlake 1990:15) Although sometimes wages of hired workers in the informal sector may be higher than in the formal sector, informal sector participants usually constitute the bulk of the urban working poor. (Lubell 1991:12)

It has generally been anticipated that in the short term of structural adjustment measures being implemented in various countries, the nominal value and purchasing power of informal sector wages is likely to decrease. It is often difficult, however, to collect data on informal sector wages and employment because of the rapid changes and flexibility of this sector. (LHBNS 1991/2:6-7)

* Ngola Kiluanje

Although the Ngola Kiluanje survey did not obtain much information on working conditions for participants in small-scale enterprises, it did obtain some basic information on wages paid to all categories of labourers: apprentices, unskilled and skilled. Tables II and III on the following pages contain this information. Although the salaries reflect payment levels for August 1991, they are still relevant for the insights they provide into the different levels of payment within the same kind of micro-industry, as well as between different global categories of work.

Table II shows that wages paid to apprentices are consistently low, and only for those apprentices working in vehicle repair do their wages begin to approximate the wages paid to unskilled
workers. Skilled workers involved in services receive some of the highest wages paid to this category of worker, higher than that received by management, although the income of management involved in commercial activities is significantly higher than the income of management involved in the service sector. Skilled workers in commerce receive less than skilled workers in any other category.

Table III provides a consolidated overview of average wages paid in each global category, as well as average profit. There is a large difference among average wages paid to apprentices, with those in construction and commerce receiving significantly less than those in productive and services. Rather than being an accurate presentation of the on-the-ground situation, however, this may only reflect samples which are too small: information on apprentices’ wages in construction and services were only collected for two and one cases respectively, while for production and services there is information for five and seven cases respectively. More indepth study is needed in this area.

Average wages paid to unskilled workers are generally consistent from one global category to the next, with construction being only slightly higher. It is difficult, however, to make observations about the income of management-level personnel, as too few samples were collected.

One aspect of wages in small-scale industries which does not come out in the tables is the variability. Some SSEs pay wages which are dependent on the amount of work done by the employee, a method of payment mentioned by one tailor in Sao Jose and by a metal workshop owner in Sao Pedro da Barra. This area also needs further study.
### TABLE II

**AVERAGE LABOUR FORCE AND WAGES: NGOLA KILUANJE**  
**AUGUST 1991**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>category</th>
<th>ave.no</th>
<th>average monthly wages (kz)+</th>
<th>workers appren++</th>
<th>unskilled</th>
<th>skilled</th>
<th>management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONSTRUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carpentry</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metal working</td>
<td>6.6*</td>
<td>2,375</td>
<td>9,375</td>
<td>16,937</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tailoring</td>
<td>4.2**</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>12,600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoemaking</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,250</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cabinet making</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>6,833</td>
<td>8,333</td>
<td>16,666</td>
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<td>handicrafts</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>8,000+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERVICES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vehicle repair</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>5,600</td>
<td>22,000</td>
<td>18,000+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tire repair</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5,000+</td>
<td>9,000+</td>
<td>10,000+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>bike repair</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,000+</td>
<td>10,000+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuel sales</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>17,000+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>misc.repairs</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5,000+</td>
<td>8,500+</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grinding mill</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,000+</td>
<td>10,000+</td>
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<tr>
<td>barber</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,000+</td>
<td>8,000+</td>
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<td>photography</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,875</td>
<td>17,500</td>
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<td>dancing/films</td>
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<td>misc. services</td>
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<td>7,000+</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>COMMERCE</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stores</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,500+</td>
<td>10,000+</td>
<td>15,000+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restaurant/bar</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,845</td>
<td>11,150</td>
<td>34,190</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tobac/bookstore</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>6,000+</td>
<td>15,000+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warehouses</td>
<td>10.5***</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,000+</td>
<td>19,300+</td>
<td>22,000+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+ indicates data comes from one case only; all others two or more cases  
++ information not always obtained about what other things (e.g., food and/or lodging) apprentices receive  
* includes one workshop with 20 workers. If this is excluded, average work force is 3.3  
** includes one tailoring factory with 30 workers. If this is excluded, average work force is 1.6  
# wagon-producing factory with 64 workers, average monthly wage kz 33,000
### TABLE III

**CONSOLIDATED AVERAGE LABOUR FORCE AND WAGES**

**NGOLA KILUANJE, AUGUST 1991**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>category</th>
<th>ave.no</th>
<th>average monthly wages (kz)+</th>
<th>month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>workers appren++ unskilled</td>
<td>skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>construction</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2,375</td>
<td>8,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>production</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>5,700</td>
<td>7,750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services**</td>
<td>5.7*</td>
<td>5,714</td>
<td>7,764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commerce</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1,750</td>
<td>7,922</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* includes one factory with 64 workers; when this is excluded, average work force is 4.3, average monthly wage is: appren (5,333), unskilled (7,250), skilled (16,941), average monthly profit is 52,906

** out of 17 cases listing profit, four have profits ranging between 85,000 and 300,000 per month

* Observations

"Small-scale industries in Ngola Kluange are the basis of life for many residents," says the former coordinator of the Ngola Kiluanje micro-industry study. "Even for those who work in the formal economy, they often need alternative sources of income to support their families. Although some SSEs have closed due to the lack of materials, capital and/or energy and water, many household economies are still based on the existence of these SSEs."

What the future holds for those households which depend on informal sector activities for their basic subsistence is not clear. The LHBNS found that within the informal sector, about one-half of all households (47.2%) still have access to state stores (through friendships or former work within the formal sector). Among those people who are self-employed in the informal sector, one-quarter have access to state store supply cards, although this access is unevenly distributed between the sexes: 15% women and 43% men have cards. As a result of the phasing out of state stores (and hence access to subsidized food) plus the additional decline in real incomes from rising food prices, these households will become more vulnerable, especially given that food expenditure represents about 70% of Luanda's monthly household expenditure. Self-employed women will be particularly hard hit, as they are even less protected than men against shortages and market distortions. (LHBNS 1991/3:ii, 1991/4: 18-9 and 1992:41)

### 3.6.4 Family and Child Labour

* Overview

The use of unpaid family labour and child labour (sometimes as young as ten years old) is fairly common among informal SSEs throughout Africa. In a review of eight different studies of SSEs in Africa covering the period 1975 to 1988, it was found that the use of unpaid family labour ranges from a low of 6% of the SSE work force in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975) and Banjul (The Gambia, 1980) to a high of 57% in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania, 1981). A 1982 study from Lusaka and Kitwe (Zambia) notes that few micro-entrepreneurs take on apprentices (only 15% of the work..."
force are apprentices), preferring instead unpaid family workers. Similarly in Juba (Sudan, 1982-83), labour is recruited mostly through direct ethnic and kinship contacts. (Lubell 1991)

In Dakar (Senegal, 1988), 30% of apprentices are family relations of the head of the micro-industry. Considering that 80% of the total number of 558 micro-industries surveyed in Dakar use apprentices, this means there is a high number of family members working in this sector. In the cities of Conakry, Kankan, Labe and Mamou in Guinee (1987), 11% of the labour force in small-scale industries are family workers, although there is no indication if they are paid or not. The only study which mentions paid family workers is that from Yaounde (Cameroun, 1978), although the number is small (less than 3%).

* Luanda

Luanda’s population is extremely young. Over one-half (53%) is under 15 years of age and almost three-quarters (73%) is under 25 years of age. The LHBNS found that less than 2% of children under the age of 15 years old are working. Because of this, the study concludes that child labour is not a serious problem in Luanda. (LHBNS 1992/30, 37, 51)

While this conclusion may be accurate for the involvement of youngsters in the formal sector, it may not be accurate for their involvement in the informal sector. In Angola, the formal educational system can accommodate only 46% of the total number of 2.7 million schoolage children between 5-14 years of age. This means that almost 1.5 million children are not in school! (JA 28.07.91) There is a high possibility that more than 2% of these children between the ages of 10-14 years old are involved in various informal sector activities, as apprentices, street vendors and so forth. This is an area requiring further study.

* Ngola Kiluanje

Although detailed information on the extent of child labour was not obtained during for Ngola Kiluanje, there are many examples of the use of child labour in this sector.

One of the activists who carried out the survey said the following:

"There are many children between the ages of ten and sixteen years old who work in small-scale enterprises. In many cases they receive a stimulus for their work, for example, soap, a bit of food, a bit of pocket money, etc. It is not uncommon to find this situation existing among carpenters, metal workers, mechanics, panel beaters, and locksmiths. Children who work in tailoring shops may get some money from what they are able to sell."

"The majority of child labour in micro-industries is provided by young boys. It is rare to find girls working in this sector; they are usually involved in the parallel market learning how to buy and sell. Some children working in micro-industries study in the morning or afternoon, and then work the other half day."

The former coordinator of the Ngola Kiluanje inventory made the following observations:

"Many SSEs use child labour. In Sao Pedro da Barra, we noticed that almost all micro-industries have children working on their premises. Often these children are related to the owners - they may be cousins or brothers - and their ages range from ten years old up. One carpenter in Sector Central works with his five sons."
3.6.5 Training and Apprenticeship

* Overview

A significant feature of the informal sector is the key role played by the traditional apprenticeship system in transmitting skills to new entrants to the labour force, many of whom receive no other education or training. For example, in Dakar (Senegal, 1988), where four-fifths of micro-industries use apprentices, only 21% have some primary school education. None have attended formal technical training institution. (Lubell 1991:13,33)

The apprenticeship system also serves the important social function of preparing teen-age (and older) youths for work life, whether they later become involved in self-employment or in the formal sector. (Lubell 1991:105)

Although there is a need for more information on the extent and nature of apprenticeship arrangements and their impact on the informal sector, enough information already exists from a wide range of studies to provide an insight into how this system works. In examining eighteen different SSE studies carried out in Africa during the 1974-88 period, the following generalizations can be made (Lubell 1991):

* Extent of Apprenticeship System

- the number of SSEs that use apprentices varies from over half in Lagos (Nigeria, 1976) to 80% in Dakar (Senegal, 1988)
- many participants (including SSE heads) in the work force of SSEs are apprentices, ranging from 10% in Djibouti (1982) to 34% in Nairobi (Kenya, 1977) and 65% in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975)
- in some countries, such as Banjul (The Gambia, 1980), most apprentices are newly arrived migrants from rural areas
- apprenticeship is more important in some activities than in others, e.g., woodworking in Kigali (Rwanda, 1977)

* Conditions

- apprentices are often young. In Kano (Nigeria, 1976), most are below 14 years old.
- although working conditions of apprentices vary from country to country, payment is usually low (sometimes just pocket money) and often in kind (meals, shelter and training). Some apprentices are unpaid, as is the case with 75% of those in Lagos (Nigeria 1976). Few apprentices receive full wages; Lagos (Nigeria, 1976) is one exception where 10% of apprentices are paid in full.
- in some countries, apprentices pay the enterprise head or master artisan an apprenticeship fee for the food, shelter, training and pocket money they receive. This is the case in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975), Yaounde (Cameroun, 1978) and Banjul (The Gambia, 1980).
- some heads of micro-industries spend a lot of their work time training apprentices, e.g., 10% in Bamako (Mali, 1978)
The above studies also show the following patterns of training received by micro-entrepreneurs:

- most SSE heads got their skills and technical training as former apprentices in the informal sector, ranging from 54% in Freetown (Sierra Leone, 1976) to 96% in Lome (Togo, 1977).

- very few micro-entrepreneurs got their skills as apprentices in the formal sector (10% in Banjul, The Gambia, 1980)

- many micro-entrepreneurs got their skills on-the-job, ranging from 13% in Lagos (Nigeria, 1976) to 40% in Freetown (Sierra Leone 1974). A smaller number are self-taught (5% in Freetown, Sierra Leone 1974).

- few micro-entrepreneurs got their skills in training institutions, ranging from 1% in Freetown (Sierra Leone, 1974) to 4% in Banjul (The Gambia, 1980). In Dakar (Senegal, 1974), 12% of micro-entrepreneurs were trained in technical schools, the army, state organizations or large foreign enterprises based in Dakar.

* Ngola Kiluanje

Virtually no information exists on the extent and nature of the apprenticeship system in small-scale industries in Angola, although it is clear from the inventory carried out in Ngola Kiluanje that apprentices are frequently used.

The Ngola Kiluanje survey enumerated 201 activities. If one excludes parallel markets (7) and the informal sector social services - private medical posts (14), curandeiros (5) and private schools (11) - one is left with 164 SSEs.

Of these 164 SSEs, twenty-three (14%) indicated they use apprentices. Of these twenty-three, eleven said "yes" without specifying number. Twelve indicated the number, which totals 32 or an average of 2.7 apprentices per SSE. Tables II and III (Section 3.6.3) provide an overview of wages paid to apprentices compared to wages paid to both unskilled and skilled workers.

Although the Ngola Kiluanje survey did not obtain much information on the working conditions of apprentices, what information was obtained provides at least a preliminary insight into the variation of conditions which exist. For example, in Sao Jose, one tailor has two apprentices who receive no salary but get paid relative to what they make, and a carpentry workshop has one apprentice who receives no salary because he is a nephew of the owner. In Sao Pedro da Barra, there is a metal workshop which has three children apprentices learning the profession; they receive nothing for their work.

There are also examples of better working conditions for apprentices in Ngola Kiluanje. In Sao Pedro da Barra, one auto repair workshop uses schoollage children as apprentices and they receive kZ 5,000 and some food as a stimulus to learn. A cabinet maker in the same community has six boys who work as apprentices who receive generous amounts of food on the weekend as a stimulus to learn.

One of the exceptional examples of a micro-industry which provides good working conditions and learning opportunities to the children they employ is the Artistica C.Gika metal workshop in Sao
Pedra da Barra. In August 1991, this workshop had eight children apprentices working during their free time. For their work, they get a stimulus of KZ 3,000 per month plus some rice, sugar and a bit of other food items for their households. Because of this encouragement, the children stay and learn and acquire an employable skill. Later, they may continue working at this same micro-industry or elsewhere. Some of the 20 workers now employed by Artistica were formerly apprentices trained by the owner. Unlike many micro-industries in Angola, this metal workshop has been established for a long time and the owner is well known by state companies from whom he buys some of the materials he needs for his work; other materials he buys on the parallel market.

The coordinator of the SSE inventory said the following about child labour:

"Unfortunately, most of the children involved with micro-industries work in poor or minimal conditions and receive little incentive to learn. Some get paid a bit of money, maybe about KZ 1,000 per month, and others get nothing. For example, there's one carpentry at which a child has been working for many years. This youth gets no money although he gets breakfast and lunch and sleeps in the house of his employer. The owner justifies the lack of pay by saying that since the youngster gets food and a place to sleep, he does not need money for anything else. It is because of conditions such as these that many children do not last long at most micro-industries."

3.6.6 Working Conditions and Environmental Impact

Conditions are frequently poor for both adult and children workers in the informal sector. In addition to low wages and lack of security of employment, there are problems of inadequate sanitation and severe environmental degradation. (LHBNS 1991/2:19) Often, there is a lack of energy, a lack of water (a serious problem especially for private health care, restaurants, grinding mills, markets, etc.) and a general lack of capital for investing in upgrading either the physical structure or the provision of water and electricity.

There are also health and environmental hazards associated with the locations of many SSEs. Often, these depend on what the owner has available - one's own living premises, a yard, a veranda, an unused room, a garage, etc. In many cases, available space is inadequate for the activity being carried out.

3.7 Products and Services Provided

It is more difficult to say what products and services are not provided by the informal sector than to list those which are. As mentioned in Section 3.1, the informal sector includes everything from young boys cleaning shoes or selling cigarettes or magazines on the street to laundries, bakeries, shops, restaurants and manufacturing and repair establishments which may employ several people.

The urban informal non-agricultural sector includes industry, manufacturing, construction, commerce and petty trade, transport, domestic tasks, food processing and services. In general, most of these economic activities are "population serving", that is, they offer services (everything from hair styling to vehicle repair) and retail. (Davidson and Payne 1983:30) These goods and services may be provided by all sorts of means ranging from individual street sellers to family units of 3-4 people, owner-operators, self-employed, mini-firms, local industries, companies, associations, cooperatives and informal sector industrial firms with 20+ employees.
As a result of severe shortages of goods and services at official prices, parallel markets - with prices determined by supply and demand - have developed as the only possibility for most consumers to have access to essential goods and services. (World Bank 1988:v)

3.7.1 Access to Raw Materials and Equipment

Sources of raw materials, equipment and supplies is a key concern for informal sector operators, most of whom do not have access to the formal sector. If SSEs were able to buy on the official market, they would probably be more developed than they presently are; many times what SSEs need is neither available nor affordable on the parallel market.

* Africa

Throughout Africa, most SSEs buy their raw materials and supplies on the parallel market, although many of these goods originate as imports and pass through formal sector supplies before reaching the parallel market. An overview of micro-industry studies carried out in five African countries from 1974 to 1988 (Lubell 1991) shows the following pattern:

- in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975), Freetown (Sierre Leone, 1976), Kano (Nigeria, 1976) and Yaounde (Cameroon, 1978) most production goods, raw materials, spare parts and other inputs come from retailers or originate in the formal sector but pass through retail traders as intermediaries

- except for shoemaking and some artistic handicrafts, most micro-industry producers in Dakar (Senegal, 1974) rely on goods originating directly or indirectly from outside the country, either imported for direct use or produced locally from imported spare parts and raw materials

- another major source of inputs in Dakar (1988) is recuperated waste products, such as cast-off remnants and discards of factories which informal sector metal workers and car mechanics salvage and rework

* Ngola Kiluanje

In Ngola Kiluanje, the parallel market is the primary source of raw materials used by the informal sector. This is often a problem because of high and speculative prices and frequent unavailability of goods. The secondary source for SSEs are formal sector retailers, either in the private or state sector.

Table IV on the following page provides an overview of the companies that provide materials and supplies to micro-industries in Ngola Kiluanje. Of the 20 companies about whom information was obtained on ownership, eight (40%) are state companies and twelve (60%) are private. The ownership of one company has not yet been ascertained. Of the 21 companies listed, 16 (76.2%) help the following four SSE activities: metalworking and panelbeating (five private, one state and one unidentified company), bars (five state and one private company) and shoemakers (three private companies). What this shows is that not only is the range of informal sector activities small that have access to the formal sector, but also that outside of providing food and drink, the state has not been very accessible to small-scale enterprises as a direct source of raw materials and supplies.

Access to equipment is also a problem for micro-industries. Few SSEs in Ngola Kiluanje have
their own equipment, although it is not clear if activistas always asked about this. (See Section 1.3) For construction, no information was obtained on which micro-industries own or rent equipment. For production, only tailors indicated that they have their own equipment. Out of twenty tailors, ten have sewing machines of which six own their own machine, three rent and one did not indicate whether the machine is owned or rented. All tailors have only one sewing machine except for a tailoring factory in Val Saroca which has 30 employees, twelve sewing machines and three cutting tables. Two of the three tailors who rent sewing machines pay an average of kz 7,250 per month.

In services, fifteen participants indicated that they either own or rent equipment. Five of these sell gasoline, and of this group, three rent transport. It is difficult to determine average rental for transport; the cost ranges from kz 4,500 to kz 60,000 per trip. Two fuel venders own vehicles, one of whom rents twenty-five 200-litre rubber drums for holding fuel at a cost of kz 50,000 per trip. Three photography SSEs own their own photographic equipment and three recreational SSEs own one TV and one video player each. The other four service SSEs which have equipment are a beauty salon (owns three hair dryers), a grinding mill (owns the mill), a tire repair workshop (rents the workshop for kz 15,000 per month) and a large wagon producer who employs 64 workers and owns sleeping quarters for them.

In commerce, only two micro-industries indicated the status of their equipment. One food supplying SSE owns a grinding mill, an ice cream maker and a store and one bar rents its premises for kz 50,000 per month.

* Observations

One activista made the following observation about where SSEs get their raw materials:

"When we did the first survey (August 1992), there was little material and supplies locally available for small-scale enterprises. Now (April 1992), many things are available. For example, in the Petrangol store there are now various office supplies, school books, domestic appliances - even water heating coils - and cloth. The latter, usually imported, costs a lot."

"One problem is that even though there is more material and supplies available at the community level, there are now fewer small businesses functioning well than previously. This is because prices for materials are higher and few can afford to buy them. It is a contradictory situation: more material and supplies available, but people less able to buy due to high prices."
### TABLE IV

**COMPANIES HELPING SSEs IN NGOLA KILUANJE**  
**AUGUST 1991**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>company</th>
<th>state-S</th>
<th>sector</th>
<th>product</th>
<th>for whom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa-Campos</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>food</td>
<td>bars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angases</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>CJP</td>
<td>oxygen/gas</td>
<td>metalworking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panelbeating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armazem Moreira</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>shoemakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armazem Nogueira</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>shoemakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cidurugia</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>metalworking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comercio</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>CV</td>
<td>goods/food</td>
<td>stores, bars warehouse</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>agri.society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cometa</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>PV</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>metalworking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construcao Civil</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>metalworking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuca</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>CJ</td>
<td>beer</td>
<td>bars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cunha e Irmao</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>metalworking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edimel</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>CJV</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>bookstores, stationers, tobac.stores</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>S</td>
<td>J</td>
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<td>bars</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frescangol</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>J</td>
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<td>bars</td>
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<tr>
<td>Metalica</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lusolanda</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>motorbikes</td>
</tr>
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<td>Mota e Companhia</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>panelbeating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mota Tavares</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>tailors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nocal</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>CJ</td>
<td>beer</td>
<td>bars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rocha Pinto</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>photography</td>
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<td>S</td>
<td>CV</td>
<td>fuel/gas</td>
<td>gas stations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vulcap</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>material</td>
<td>shoemakers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* C = Central  
  J = Sao Jose  
  P = Sao Pedro da Barra  
  V = Val Saroca
3.7.2 Access to Credit

Informal sector participants usually do not have access to formal credit from banks and other lending institutions. As a result, many are often dependent on traditional money lenders who may charge rates of 10-20% interest per day. (ACCION:3) Most informal sector enterprises are initially financed out of the personal savings of the entrepreneur or the entrepreneur’s family. Some informal sector participants also borrow from friends or they get short-term supplier credit from traders. (Lubell 1991:101,118)

Lack of credit is generally perceived by informal sector entrepreneurs as the major constraint on their productive activity. Yet evidence exists that large amounts of informal savings exist at the local community level in the hands of traditional moneylenders and money “keepers”, in rotating savings and loan groups and in individual cash hiding places. One example is the informal mutual saving and/or credit association in Cameroun. More needs to be known about these informal sources of saving and credit. (Lubell 1991:118)

Some say that easy access to credit is the missing link in the economic development of SSEs. (Westlake 1990:17)

Most donor support programmes for the informal sector have taken the form of credit programmes for micro-industries, often supplemented by management assistance, product and technical advice, and training. The most recent evaluations conclude that "minimalist" programmes limited to issuing small loans have been more efficient than more complex programmes. (Lubell 1991:13)

3.7.3 Sales and Commercialization

Prices of goods and services within the informal sector are usually free to fluctuate, thus being determined by supply and demand. (LHBNS 1991/2:20) Some economists, however, say it is unclear whether the formal and informal sectors have a synchronised cycle of growth and recession. If SSEs are locked into the formal sector by having to buy basic inputs from it and selling finished products back to it, then the two may follow the same ups and downs. If the informal sector is autonomous and caters for separate markets, it has the possibility of growing even when the formal market is depressed. (Westlake 1990:16)

* Africa

Out of eight surveys of micro-industries conducted in different African countries from 1975 to 1988, the following patterns were found in the sales of goods and services provided (Lubell 1991):

- in all cases over half up to almost 90% (Lagos, Nigeria, 1976) of sales are to either the poor, individuals or households

- in a few cases, micro-industries sell to other informal micro-industries, artisans and small traders. This is the case in Bamako (Mali, 1978), Lagos and Kano (Nigeria, 1976); in the later two cases, the percentage of sales to other SSEs are 9% and almost 11% respectively. In Freetown (Sierrre Leone, 1976), some of the larger micro-industries sell to other SSEs, but no statistics were given on the extent of such sales.
- there is little trade with the formal sector or with large enterprises; virtually none in Kumasi (Ghana, 1975), less than 1% in Khartoum (Sudan, 1976) and this mainly in the clothing sector, and 5% to both formal sector enterprises and state services in Yaounde (Cameroun, 1978). Bamaka (Mali, 1978) is the one exception, where 30% of sales from informal micro-industries are to government officials and 17% to formal sector commerce, modern sector enterprises and government.

* Angola

There are similarities between Angola and the rest of Africa on the sale and commercialization of goods within the informal sector. Data from LHBNS shows the following patterns (LHBNS 1992:40-1):

- for the self-employed or micro-industry sector, 84.8% of trade is done with individuals, with the participation rate between women and men being roughly equal

- trade with merchants or others is 13.3%

- there is a weak trading relationship between the micro-industry sector and either small or large firms: less than 2.0% of customers fall within this category

* Ngola Kiluanje: Sales and Profits

For many small-scale industries in Ngola Kiluanje, the prices they charge for the goods they make are variable and depend on such things as the cost of the raw materials they use. Several tailors say this as well as motorbike repair workshops. One carpenter says it is impossible for him to set fixed prices because of the constantly changing prices of materials such as nails and glue on the parallel market.

Similarly, profits are variable for small-scale industries, and depend on the availability of raw materials and the movement of customers, both of which are unpredictable in the informal sector. Because of this, it is hard for many micro-entrepreneurs to estimate the profits they make. Barbers, cabinet makers, carpenters and tailors all say that some months they make no profits because few customers come.

The response of micro-enterprise heads to unpredictable income is variable. One micro-entrepreneur who owns a grinding mill said that because he makes so little profit, he wants to expand into other areas such as food processing of agricultural products. Other micro-entrepreneurs find they cannot make a living at all with SSEs, such as one carpenter who is considering leaving carpentry and working in his agricultural field located just outside Luanda.

3.7.4 Subcontracting

Subcontracting by large (often formal sector) firms to smaller firms to basement workshops and finally to household workers is spreading in industrialized countries as well as in developing countries. This kind of subcontracting, which occurs more in Latin America and Asia than in Africa (although it is spreading in Africa), is done as a way to cut costs. In many cases, the final step in this process - the sweatshops - avoid labour, health and tax regulations. (Lubell 1991:13,113)
Some investigators of the informal sector have suggested that the increasing development of manufacturing based on subcontracting and piecework is happening because of pressures of increased competition on an international scale. (INSTRAW:18)

3.8 State Structures Assisting Micro-Industries

Until recently, many Angolan state structures did not consider the informal sector among its priorities for support and development. (Morel 1990:5) As a result, there are virtually no national structures or agencies which provide assistance to informal micro-industries, although during the past year this has been starting to change. Below is a brief summary of some of the more important developments which have been happening in this area.

* State Secretariat for Women’s Promotion and Development (SEPDM)

In March 1991, SEPDM (Secretaria de Estado para a Promocao e Desenvolvimento da Mulher) was created with the mandate to define, recommend, promote and execute government policy on women in the political, economic and social life of the country. Within its structure, SEPDM is creating a Studies and Planning Office to conduct research and studies on the situation of women in Angola. In addition to helping sectoral ministries ensure that future social and statistical data is disaggregated by sex, this office will also develop studies on women’s work in formal and informal sectors of the economy.

SEPDM is also concerned that women entrepreneurs receive training which strengthens their capacity to function in business. In August 1992, the first of a series of two-week training programmes for women entrepreneurs took place in Luanda on the theme of “developing your business”. Twenty-one women participated. SEPDM plans to create training centres for women entrepreneurs in six provinces. (JA 19.08.92)

* National Statistics Institute

The National Statistics Institute, located within the Ministry of Planning, carried out a country-wide inventory in 1986 of registered and unregistered enterprises in Angola. Over 5,000 SSEs were identified, some dating from the 40’s and 50’s up through the 80’s. Most are private. The list also includes agricultural cooperatives, the majority formed during the several years following independence. Results of this survey are published in a Registo Geral de Empresas (General Register of Enterprises).

* National Institute for Assistance to Small and Medium Enterprises (INAPEM)

In November 1991, the Ministers’ Council approved a project to create a state structure - INAPEM (Instituto Nacional de Apoio as Empresas de Pequena e Media Dimensao) - to help and promote small and medium enterprises in the production and service sectors with financial, organizational and management assistance from the Ministry of Industry. This structure was welcomed by national entrepreneurs, who have wanted a state structure which can represent their interests.

To date, however, INAPEM has not begun to function. In June 1992, the group responsible for
creating INAPEM told the Jornal de Angola that they are not satisfied with the slowness of the Ministry of Industry to identify management bodies for INAPEM. One group member said they lack financial resources, transport and personnel. (JA 26.06.92)

* Assistance Fund for National Entrepreneurs

In June 1992, a new fund known as the Assistance Fund for the Rehabilitation and Modernization of the National Productive Sector (Fundo de Apoio Reabilitacao e Modernizacao do Sector Produtivo Nacional) was officially created in Angola. The fund makes available kz 110,000 million (approximately USD 200 million at the June 1992 exchange rate of kz 550 per USD 1.00) from the general state budget. (JA 10.7.92)

The objectives of this fund are to help national entrepreneurs who are at least 18 years old make new investments, recuperate and modernize existing facilities and develop new enterprises which can help in the economic recuperation of the country. This includes agriculture and animal husbandry, industry, construction, fishing, commercial tourism and various services. Applications will be evaluated on the basis of job creation, geographic location, principal activity and use of the investment. Interest rates and repayment periods depend on the type of activity being developed and the location. (JA 10.07.92)

3.9 National Non-Governmental Structures Assisting Micro-Industries

Until recently, there have been almost no organizations representing private entrepreneurs. Since October 1990, however, when the Freedom of Associations Act was passed allowing for the formation of NGOs and special interest associations, a number of non-governmental structures have formed representing small- and medium-scale entrepreneurs. Some of these are briefly described below, although it is not clear if all are open to informal as well as formal sector entrepreneurs. Also described are several efforts to form associations representing private entrepreneurs working in particular areas.

* Association of Young Entrepreneurs of Angola (AJEA)

AJEA (Associacao de Jovens Empresarios de Angola) was formed in August 1992 as an initiative of over 300 young entrepreneurs who attended the First Seminar for Young Entrepreneurs held in Luanda. The objective of AJEA is to defend the interests of its associates and try to help their projects. In addition to Luanda, AJEA groups exist in ten other provinces.

* Commercial Association of Angola (ASCANGOLA)

Formed in Luanda in August 1992, ASCANGOLA (Associacao Comercial de Angola) has associate merchants in all 18 provinces of the country. One objective of ASCANGOLA is to try to pressure the government to grant merchants, who often lack adequate capital, easier access to credit.

* Association of Women Entrepreneurs in Luanda Province (ASSOMEL)

Few organizations exist in Angola for private women entrepreneurs. One such organization
is ASSOMEL (Associacao das Mulheres Empresarias da Provincia de Luanda). Formed in November 1990 as a joint effort involving women entrepreneurs in Luanda and OMA, ASSOMEL hopes to create a context in which women entrepreneurs can exchange viewpoints and experiences of how to solve problems such as transport of workers, supply of materials, etc. ASSOMEL represents, however, only a small group of women entrepreneurs; only 122 attended the founding meeting. SEPDM says that whereas ASSOMEL can benefit women entrepreneurs in Luanda, there is also the need to create a national association for women entrepreneurs throughout the country. (JA 19.08.92)

* Association of Taxi Drivers of Luanda (ATL)

Initially formed in 1991 with 3,000 informal sector taxi drivers signing up, by July 1992 there were fewer than 500, mainly because ATL (Associacao dos Taxistas de Luanda) has not received adequate support to improve conditions of service for its members. (See Section 4.3.3)

* Association of Fuel and Lubricant Retailers of Angola (SOREV)

Formed in June 1992 in Luanda, the objective of SOREV (Associacao de Revendedores de Combustiveis e Lubrificantes de Angola) is to defend the interests of its associates and work with Sonangol to solve problems relating to its concessions.

* Association of Concessions of Highway Transport Equipment (ACETRO)

ACETRO (Associacao dos Concessionarios de Equipamentos de Transporte Rodoviario), formed in August 1991, is a semi-professional and national organization. Its objective is to promote technical and professional training to its members which include national concessions and enterprises authorized to sell particular makes of vehicles, parts and services.

* Tailors' Association

Perhaps the first attempt to create a tailors' association occurred not in Luanda, but four years ago in Huambo. One participant said it was not effective because it lacked maturity. (JA 8.08.92)
4. MICRRO-INDUSTRIES IN NGOLA KILUANJE

The ILO, World Bank and USAID have done a lot of surveys and projects on the informal sector in Africa. Two observations coming out of this work are: First, the boundary between the formal and informal sectors has become somewhat fluid as survey information on the informal sector has accumulated. Second, each branch of informal sector activity has specific characteristics resulting from its local technological and social context. (Lubell 1991:12)

This Section provides information and, where appropriate, observations of informal sector activities surveyed in Ngola Kiluanje. These activities have been divided into five general categories: construction, production, services, commerce and other. Within each of these general categories, comments are made about the major characteristics of each kind of small-scale activity.

The following points should be kept in mind when reading the summaries of each kind of small-scale activity:

- "own-account" means owner-operated or self-employed
- average size of labour force does not include apprentices
- average monthly wages include unskilled and skilled workers but not apprentices or management. For average salaries of skilled, unskilled and apprentice workers, plus management, see Tables II and III in Section 3.6.3
- summaries indicate only whether particular SSEs use apprentices; little information was obtained on number
- information was not always obtained on whether or not workers or apprentices are family members of the SSE owner
- information on which formal sector companies (state and private) are used by SSEs as a source of raw materials is summarized below. See Section 3.7.1 for a more indepth analysis including names of companies.
- salaries, prices and profits reflect August 1991 rates. Present rates would appear higher due to devaluation of the kwanza, but the actual market value is probably less due to the rising cost of living. The earlier figures are nonetheless useful to analyze for what they show of general patterns and relationships between different kinds of SSE activities
- numbers in parentheses indicate the number of cases for which information was obtained
4.1 Construction

4.1.1 Carpentry

* Summary

**total number of cases:** 5

**average labour force** (3): 2.3 workers. One own-account. Two use only family labour, one of which pays no salary as worker is owner's nephew. Information on wages was not obtained for other carpentry using family labour.

**price per article** (2): kz 5,000-130,000, the latter for table with chairs

**customers** (4): public and clients (3), with clients providing materials for what they want built. Only public (1)

**source of raw materials** (4): parallel market and clients

**average monthly profit** (2): kz 30,000 (range kz 10-50,000)

* Observations

During a June 1988 "walkaround" of one part of Val Saroca, it was found that carpenters, cabinet makers and joiners buy wood on the parallel market as no wood is available through the state system. Some carpenters sell their products to private enterprises outside the commune, or finish or assemble furniture with pieces they buy from these enterprises. One woodworker bought pieces at the Sao Paulo parallel market and assembled furniture at home. (GARM 1988)

Because of the lack of electricity in the area, it is not possible for small-scale carpentries to own or use machines such as lathes. In the case of one woodworker, he uses the small space beside his house as a work area and one room of his house as a storage area. (GARM 1988)

One activista involved in the 1991 survey said:

"There are more carpentries now (April 1991) than there were last year. There is a lot of wood for sale in the area. This wood comes from Bengo Province. Carpenters also buy wood from the sawmill located near the medical supplies warehouse in the area. Nails, mineral pitch or putty, wooden slabs and glue are bought in the parallel markets."
4.1.2 Metal Working / Locksmith

* Summary

total number of cases: 8

average labour force (5): 6.6 workers. One workshop employs 20; if this case is excluded, average for other four is 3.3 workers.

average monthly wage (6): kz 11,270

use apprentices (3): 3

apprentice average monthly wage (2): kz 2,375

price per article (3): kz 10,000-2,850,000, the latter for boats and automobile bodies

customers (5): public

source of raw materials (6): parallel market (5), state and private companies (3)

* Observations

Activistas sat that between August 1991 and April 1992, there has been an increase in the number of locksmiths and metal workers, although they still have problems getting materials with which to work.

One activista says the following about metal workers in Sao Pedro da Barra:

"Locksmiths and metal workers are having a difficult time working, as there is little material available. The Artistica C.Gika metal workshop, formerly very productive, is now virtually closed as the high costs of material and supplies has made it prohibitive to remain open. They had to lay off some of their 20 workers and they no longer have apprentices. Some of their clients now bring their own material."

"Most metal workers get their materials and supplies from the parallel market in Kikolo and from the Ministry of Industry through requisitions. There are some companies which sell materials clandestinely at prices which are higher than the official prices, but still lower than on the parallel market."

"Cometa (state company) is doing something different. Many of their workers in Ngola Kiluanje have not received salaries for a while, and the company is giving materials (tanks, metal sheets, corner shelves or stands, angle bars or beams) to the workers in lieu of salaries. These workers then sell these materials to people in the community, including to small-scale enterprises. The prices are higher than official prices, but lower than parallel market prices. In this sense, workers at Cometa are operating as a kind of retailer. Daily, during the lunch hour, you can see these workers selling in front of Cometa to parallel market venders or others."
### 4.2 Production

#### 4.2.1 Tailoring

* **Summary**

**total number of cases:** 20

**average labour force** (11): 4.2 workers. Six own-account. One larger tailoring factory employs 30; if this case is excluded, average for other ten is 1.6. (Of other ten, six own-account and four average 4 workers each)

**average monthly wage** (4): kz 9,475

**use apprentices** (5): 5

**apprentice average monthly wage** (4): kz 4,000

**price per article** (13): kz 500-10,000

**customers** (14): clients (5), public (4), clients and public (5)

**source of raw materials** (15): clients (5), parallel market (4), clients and parallel market (5), private company (1)

**production level** (3): 10-12 articles/day

**average monthly profit** (7): kz 28,750/mo (2), kz 1,050/article (5)

* **Observations**

The main problem facing tailors is lack of materials: cloth, scissors, thread and sewing machines. They purchase these items on the parallel market where the increase in prices of goods sometimes make it difficult for them to cover their costs. In many cases, clients buy cloth with which tailors make "commissioned" clothing; they also sell clothing they make on the parallel market. Many tailors are turning to small routine work because of the problems obtaining supplies.

Although a June 1988 "walkaround" in Val Saroca noted at least four sites where women dye cloth (GARM 1988), none were found during the 1991-92 survey.

On women's involvement in the tailoring activity, one activist says: "Although there are some women dress makers and fashion designers, tailors are generally men."
4.2.2 Shoemaking

* Summary

total number of cases: 8

average labour force (6): 1.8 workers

average monthly wage (4): kz 9,542

price per article (5): kz 1,000-15,000

customers (4): public

source of raw materials (5): parallel market (4), private company (1)

average monthly profit (3): kz 23,333

* Observations

An August 1992 report on shoemakers in the city of Huambo notes that their economic survival is precipitous due to weak attention from the provincial government and the serious lack of raw material. One shoemaker also says that the increase in prices, particularly to buy US dollars, makes it even more difficult for shoemakers to buy necessary equipment and supplies, such as sewing machine, which are imported. (JA 8.08.92)

4.2.3 Cabinet Making

* Summary

total number of cases: 14

average labour force (10): 4.4 workers

average monthly wage (7): kz 11,303

use apprentices (5): 5

apprentice average monthly wage (5): kz 6,833 (3), food (1), nothing (1)

price per article (7): kz 3,500-170,000, the latter for table with chairs

customers (10): public (8), public and clients (2)

source of raw materials (10): parallel market (8), parallel market and clients (2)

average monthly profit (6): kz 38,750 (range kz 15,000-60,000)
4.2.4 Handicrafts and Miscellaneous Production

This SSE division includes two handicraft units, one tin worker and one producer of large wagons and carts.

* Summary

total number of cases: 4

average labour force (4): 4.0 workers (handicrafts). Tin worker is own-account and wagon producer has 64 workers.

average monthly wage (2): kz 10,170 (handicrafts). Wagon producer pays average monthly wage of kz 33,000, the highest encountered.

use apprentices (1): 1 (wagon producer)

apprentice average monthly wage (1): kz 8,000 (wagon producer), the highest encountered

price per article (3): kz 500-7,000 (2). Wagon producer gets kz 800,000-950,000 per article

customers (3): public (tin worker), client (handicrafts), public and client (handicrafts)

source of raw materials (4): client (2 handicraft), parallel market (1 handicraft and tin worker), state and private companies (1 wagon producer)

average monthly profit (3): kz 50,000 (1 handicraft), kz 17,500 (tin worker), kz 200,000 (wagon producer)

* Observations

The former survey coordinator made the following comment on handicrafts in Ngola Kiluanje:

"In one part of Val Saroca there are lots of piles of sun-dried and sun-bleached bones. This area is called Ossos (bones), and the bones were deposited there many years ago by an abattoir that operated in Viana. Some of the piles are two to three meters in height. Often, houses are built right next to them. Although these bones could provide a rich source of raw material for a small-scale enterprise involved in handicrafts, there is only one such enterprise working with bone. This is Casa Orion, located in Sao Jose, which makes women's jewellery and knick knacks out of bones, ivory and wood."
4.3 Services

4.3.1 Health

* Overview

Sambizanga municipality has three state health centres, one cholera pavillion, one health post and 16 medical posts in various factories and enterprises. (JA 26.10.91) One of these health centres is located in Ngola Kiluanje where it serves a population of roughly 60,000 people. There is also one state health post in Sao Pedro da Barra.

Although there are plans to eventually construct a municipal hospital and two additional state health posts in Ngola Kiluanje (JA 26.10.91), existing formal sector health care is not adequate for the need. In addition, there is a serious lack of transport and medicines throughout the municipality. (JA 26.10.91)

* Summary: Private Medical Post

total number of cases: 14

gender of owner (2): male

average labour force (2): 1.0 workers. One own-account and one has two workers

average monthly wage (1): kz 10,000

price per article (7): kz 250-7,000

customers (14): public

source of raw materials (5): parallel market

production level (2): 5.5 patients/day

average monthly profit (2): kz 50,000 (1), kz 500/consultation (1)

* Observations

Because of the lack of sufficient state health facilities, as well as the fact that many of the existing facilities are not working well and/or working conditions for employees are poor (low salaries, no materials and supplies, lack of transport, etc.), many professionally trained nurses have left formal sector employment to find work elsewhere, including in the informal sector as private health workers.

The number of private health posts seems to be growing noticeably. Activistas note there are now more private medical posts in the commune than there were last year. By August 1992, there were fourteen private health posts distributed throughout Ngola Kiluanje: Central (4), Sao Jose (1), Sao Pedro da Barra (4) and Val Saroca (5). Many of these medical posts are not registered.
Private health care is administered by both qualified and unqualified personnel. In some cases, qualified health workers continue working part time in the formal sector. During the survey, a number of informal sector health personnel produced documents showing they were qualified nurses. One male nurse in Sector Sao Jose had completed a four year training programme in nursing and had worked for two years in a hospital, but because he always got a low salary, he decided to leave state institutions and work in the informal sector. Two other male nurses, one in Sao Jose and the other in Val Saroca, have also done nursing courses, the second having received a certificate of competence. Other parallel nurses have not done any courses.

The primary source of medicines for private health care is the parallel market. There are many risks and dangers inherent in buying medicines from the market: many do not indicate expiry dates, are often old, are sold in unhygienic conditions and have frequently been sitting for long periods out in the sun. Some informal sector nurses are aware of these problems, but they do not have alternatives as the formal health sector itself has a critical shortage of medicines even for hospitals. Sometimes, medicines and materials are provided through an intermediary of a patient. (JA 25.06.92)

Yet even with the risks of parallel market medicines, many residents prefer to use local informal health posts rather than state institutions. In June 1992, one Sambizanga woman told the Jornal de Angola that when she had malaria, she did not go to the hospital because of the long wait to get treatment. Instead, she went to a private health post where she paid kz 3,000 for each injection of chloroquin she received. (JA 25.06.92)

Some private nurses carry out consultations inside their own houses. One nurse in Sao Jose works in a room which he rents for kz 7,000 per month (August 1991 rates). For the most part, these "work spaces" lack even the most basic conditions, such as running water and electricity, for delivering adequate health care.

In addition to providing general consultations, most informal nurses prescribe medication, give injections and perform circumcisions. Prices vary, and have also greatly increased during the past year. In August 1991, general consultations cost between kz 3,000-5,000, sometimes with different prices for adults (kz 3,500-5,000) and children (kz 2,500). In April 1992, a general consultation followed by three to four days of treatment cost kz 6,000. In August 1991, injections cost kz 250. By June 1992, one injection cost kz 4,000 if the "owner's" material was used and kz 2,000 if the patient's material was used. (JA 25.06.92)

The most common diseases throughout Sambizanga municipality are diarrhea, measles, malaria and acute respiratory infections. (JA 26.10.91) Some nurses have special prices for treating measles: in August 1991 three male nurses in Val Saroca charged kz 5,000 per measles consultation. The price is now higher.

* Traditional Midwives

In Luanda, which has the best health care infrastructure in the country, it is estimated that 70% of deliveries occur outside of health facilities. (Saude 1990) This means that for the majority of women, the only alternatives for receiving assistance at birth are traditional midwives or female family members or neighbours who may not have adequate knowledge of either maternal or child health care.

In 1981, OMA and the Ministry of Health began a programme to upgrade the capacity of
traditional midwives through short training programmes and the provision of kits. To date, some 4,000 traditional midwives have received training in basic hygiene and sterilization techniques. The Ministry of Health estimates that only 1% to 3% of home births are assisted by retrained midwives. (Saude 1990, JA 5.05.91)

In discussing this issue of retraining of midwives, activistas make the following comments:

"Of the six traditional midwives in Sector Central, most are over 50-60 years old and only one is young, less than 30 years old. Two of these traditional midwives are members of the local OMA. None of these six have done the retraining programme offered by the Ministry of Health and OMA."

"Of two traditional midwives who work in quarteirao 69 of Sector Sao Pedro da Barra, they are both over 40 years old and one is illiterate. Neither has gone through a retraining programme. They are not interested."

The coordinator of the Sambizanga Project explains the reason for this reluctance among midwives to get retrained:

"At the community level, many people think that if a traditional midwife has been retrained, she is now working with the Ministry of Health and receiving a salary. Therefore, people do not want to pay her for her services. Because of this, many midwives are simply not interested in being retrained. But the only thing retrained midwives receive is a food supply card giving them access to a state-supplied store. They receive no salary at all."

"On the other hand, traditional midwives who have received no retraining usually get paid by the local population for their services. The price for these services varies, depending on the particular family and the circumstances of the birth. For example, if the baby is a first child, the family feels very happy and may pay more as a gift for the services of the midwife. If the baby is a sixth or seventh child, the family may pay very little. In some cases, a traditional midwife accompanies the mother and baby even after birth."

* Summary: Curandeiro (Traditional Healers)

**total number of cases:** 5

**gender of owner** (5): male (1), female (4)

**customers** (5): public

* Observations

One aspect of health care which has not been sufficiently studied is the role of traditional healers or witchdoctors (curandeiros). There are many traditional healers in Angola, many of whom are people of great knowledge and experience in treating diseases with traditional medicines made from local roots and plants. Both men and women are curandeiros, and at the local level they provide medical advice and care for a great variety of illnesses.

Curandeiros who treat illnesses with traditional medicines are active throughout Ngola Kiluanje and their services are often sought out by the local population. One activista notes that in Sector
Central, curandeiros tend to be older, often over 50 years of age, and do a lot of work for which the cost of their services varies.

* Faith Healing

In Sector Central, the Church of Messiahs in the Holy Spirit (IMES, Igreja do Messias em Espírito Santo), located in block 66 of Sao Pedro da Barra, is one of the local prophetic churches which practices faith healing. Although IMES does not believe in the use of medicines, there are other churches which practice faith healing as well as using traditional medicines.

There is little information available on the nature and extent of faith healing in Angola, although the activistas in Ngola Kiluanje say it is fairly common. IMES, which has five parishes in Luanda alone, has 320 members (who receive food supply cards) in Sao Pedro da Barra; over 1,000 worshippers come to services each Sunday.

4.3.2 Education

* Overview

There are 25 state schools in Sambizanga municipality: 21 first level schools (class 1-4), two first and second level schools (class 1-6), one second level school (class 5-6) and one second and third level school (class 5-9). In October 1991, these schools had a total of 35,881 students of whom 78.5% were in first level schools. Some 38,000 first-level students were without schools. (JA 26.10.91)

Although there are plans in Sambizanga to construct more classrooms in the patios of existing schools (where possible) and a third level school in bairro Petrangol by the next school year, there is still a serious lack of schools for children to either start their education or continue their studies beyond the first level. In addition, physical conditions at many schools are poor (no running water, no electricity, doors and windows missing, shortages of pedagogical materials). All of this has contributed to a lack of interest among teachers and low morale. (JA 26.10.91, 7.08.92)

* Observations

As of August 1990, there were six state primary schools and one state secondary school in Ngola Kiluanje. As in the health sector, so too in the educational sector: lack of facilities and poor working conditions in the state structures have caused teachers to abandon this work and either seek employment elsewhere or do private teaching in the informal sector.

In June 1988, during an informal "walkaround" in the Ossos area of Val Saroca, three private primary schools were visited. One was located in a church, with classes - including French and English - held outside. A second private school was held in a private house, in a small room without roof, window, door or equipment. Two teaching shifts were held - with 40 children in the morning shift and 25 in the afternoon - with two teachers. The third private school was held in the courtyard of a private house, in the open air, and again without equipment. The teacher of this school also taught in the first school. (GARM 1988)

Fees for these schools ranged between kz 500-1,000 (in 1988, 1 USD=30 kz) per child per month. Some private schools give the same exams as the state schools, and some give only
classes. Some are held in the open air, without furniture, water, electricity or latrines. (GARM 1988)

By August 1992, there were eleven private schools in Ngola Kiluanje: Central (3), Sao Jose (2), Sao Pedro da Barra (2) and Val Saroca (4). Those in Central are all first level (class 1-4), some of with 100 students. In April 1992, "tuition" for each student was about kz 500 per month. School materials (books, notebooks, pencils and pens) are purchased by the parents on the parallel markets.

4.3.3 Transportation

* Overview

As of August 1992, the state enterprise for Luanda Urban Public Transport (TCUL, Transportes Colectivos Urbanos de Luanda) had only 30 conventional and 45 articulated buses for meeting public transport needs throughout the city. The fare is kz 150 for local bus trips. (JA 10.08.92)

Public buses are most heavily used by students and workers. Their normal running hours are from 06:30-21:00, which does not help night students studying from 18:30-21:30), and who must pay kz 500 for a private taxi. (TA 27.06.92)

* Private Transport Service

Because of the serious lack of public transport throughout Luanda's urban and periurban areas, private transport has sprung up: cars, combis, light and heavy trucks, etc. Some are registered and others are kandongeiros, unregistered drivers who have no documents. (JA 14.08.92)

In June 1990, the government tried to legalize the system of private taxis through registration (Morel 1990:20), but many are still unregistered.

The fee for a parallel taxi, regardless of distance travelled within the greater city limits, is kz 500. It is from this that private taxis get their local name: "processo 500".

There is little available information on "processo 500", although the Ministry of Plan estimated that in 1989 there were about 1,000 such taxis only in Luanda. (Morel 1990:24) An indication of the rapid escalation of private taxi services is seen in the fact that by 1991, when the Association of Taxi Drivers of Luanda (ATL) was formed, some 3,000 drivers had signed up. (See Section 3.9) More recently, some buses are starting to appear in "processo 500". (TA 27.06.92)

Private taxis circulate throughout the city from 05:00-21:30, which make them available to night students and late workers. Generally drivers use second hand vehicles; often vehicles have space for only nine passengers, but it is not uncommon to see 15-20 in one car. (TA 27.06.92) Young boys hanging from the doors announce stops and collect fees. (JA 1.08.92) Many drivers work 8-10 hours per day. (JA 14.08.92)

Owners of private taxis often make kz 120-150,000 per day; some may make as much as kz 200,000 (USD 1.00 = kz 590). Usually the owner of the vehicle contracts a motorist who works
five days per week, often 8-10 hours per day, and makes between kz 500,000 to kz 700,000 per week. Often, the motorist receives one day's worth of business as his salary. The third worker is a boy, usually 10-12 years old, who announces destination points. For this work, he receives kz 100 per day. Some owners may have more than five cars working simultaneously. (TA 27.06.92)

Private truck drivers may make over kz 100,000 per day. A 30-km ride in a truck from Roque Santeiro to Funda (to buy vegetables for sale in the markets) may cost kz 1,000 per passenger, plus a set rate per crate or sack of produce. (JA 14.08.92)

4.3.4 Servicing and Maintenance of Transport

Servicing and maintenance of transport includes: vehicle repair (panel beating, electricals, mechanics and painting), tire repair, bicycle and motorcycle repair, fuel and lubricant sales, sale of parts, driving schools, etc. Most of these transport-related SSEs are small, and the sector is largely dominated by men. Statistics from the Ministry of Transport and Communications show that in 1990, out of 252 registered enterprises in this sector in Luanda, 43.3% have less than 10 workers, 40.9% between 10-20 workers and only 3.2% are owned by women. (Morel 1990:20)

* Summary: Vehicle Repair

total number of cases: 20

average labour force (12): 6.3 workers. Two own-account and two with 14 workers

average monthly wage (7): kz 11,571

average monthly wage of management (1): kz 18,000

use apprentices (5): 5

apprentice average monthly wage (3): kz 5,000 and one provides food

price per article (3): kz 4,000-110,000, the latter for paint job

customers (11): public (11), clients (1)

source of raw materials (13): parallel market (11), clients (1), private companies (3)

average monthly profit (5): kz 47,000 (range kz 10,000-100,000)

* Summary: Tire Repair

total number of cases: 6

average labour force (3): 3.0 workers

average monthly wage (2): kz 8,375
use apprentices (1): 1

apprentice average monthly wage (1): kz 5,000

price per article (2): kz 1,500-15,000

customers (3): public

source of raw materials (3): parallel market

average monthly profit (2): kz 5,250

* Summary: Bicycle and Motorcycle Repair

total number of cases: 4

average labour force (2): 2.5 workers

average monthly wage (2): kz 9,835

use apprentices (1): 1

price per article (2): kz 10,000-150,000, the latter to assemble a motorcycle

customers (2): public

source of raw materials (2): parallel market (2), one of whom gets materials from client when does work for client and from private company

average monthly profit (2): kz 52,500 (range kz 15,000-90,000)

* Summary: Fuel Sales

total number of cases: 11

average labour force (6): 4.7 workers. Two own-account and one with ten workers

average monthly wage (4): kz 9,250

average monthly wage of management (1): kz 17,000

price per article (6): kz 67.50/litre fuel (4) and kz 1,250/bottle gas (2)

customers (6): public

source of raw materials (5): state company (4), parallel market (1) who charges most per litre (kz 100)
production level (2): 760 bottles gas/mo

average monthly profit (4): kz 35/litre fuel
4.3.5 Miscellaneous Repairs

This SSE activity includes repairs of radios, irons, refrigerators, monkey wrenches, watches, etc.

* Summary

total number of cases: 8

average labour force (4): 3.5 workers

average monthly wage (2): kz 9,625

use apprentices (1): 1 (watch repair)

apprentice average monthly wage (1): kz 5,000

price per article (2): kz 1,500-15,000

customers (3): public

source of raw materials (3): parallel market

average monthly profit (1): kz 50,000 (watch repair)
4.3.6 Grinding Mill

* Summary

total number of cases: 8

average labour force (3): 3.7 workers

average monthly wage (3): kz 9,667

price per article (2): kz 300/10 kg and kz 100/bucket

customers (3): clients (2), clients and public (1)

source of raw materials (3): clients (2), clients and public (1)

average monthly profit (2): kz 16,000/day

* Observation

Rather than purchasing equipment ready-made, the owner of Moagem Kuandianga-Nzim, a grinding mill in Sao Pedro da Barra, arranged to have equipment manufactured in a metal workshop in Sambizanga municipality. This grinding mill, like many private businesses in Ngola Kiluange, is located in the yard of the owner.

4.3.7 Barber

This SSE activity includes barbers and beauty salons.

* Summary

total number of cases: 7

average labour force (6): 3.2 workers

average monthly wage (3): kz 11,541

price per article (6): kz 500-3,500

customers (6): public

source of raw materials (6): parallel market

average monthly profit (3): kz 27,000 (2). A third open only two weeks made kz 20,000/wk
4.3.8 Photography

* Summary

total number of cases: 4

average labour force (4): 4.3 workers

average monthly wage (4): kz 12,395

use apprentices (1): 1

price per article (2): kz 1,000-3,000 for 2-12 photos

customers (4): public

source of raw materials (4): parallel market (4), private company (1)

average monthly profit (2): kz 31,000 (range kz 12,000-50,000)

4.3.9 Recreation (Dancing / Film)

* Summary

total number of cases: 7

average labour force (3): 1.7 workers. Two own-account and one has five workers, all brothers

price per article (3): kz 50-1,000

customers (1): public

average monthly profit (4): kz 16,763/day

* Observations

Informal recreational facilities are important in neighbourhoods like Ngola Kiluanje which lack formal cinema facilities. (JA 17.05.92) Some privately-owned film and video SSEs work at night. One recreation facility in Sao Pedro da Barra projects films from Mondays through Fridays and is open for dancing on Saturdays and Sundays.

The former coordinator of the Ngola Kiluanje survey made the following observations on private recreational facilities:

"In general, there are a lot of private dancing, cinema, video and television establishments in Ngola Kiluanje. There are about five or six private cinema houses alone which make about kz 20-21,000 per day (August 1991). Many of these activities are done by young men who often have their own video or other equipment."
One interesting enterprise is the Verao Tropical film and video establishment located in Sector Central near the health centre. There are five brothers connected with this enterprise, although only two work in it. Verao Tropical has one television and one video, and rents cassettes as well as showing films. The daily income is KZ 25,000, which the brothers give to their mother to help with household expenses such as food. Even so, their house lacks basic conditions, and it is not clear what the mother actually does with the money. When the brothers need money, the mother gives it to them.

4.3.10 Miscellaneous Services

This division includes one designer, one photocopying service and one scrap iron dealer.

* Summary

**total number of cases**: 3

**use apprentices** (1): 1 (designer)

**apprentice average monthly wage** (1): KZ 7,000 (designer)

**price per article** (1): KZ 3,500-5,000 (designer)

**customers** (1): public (designer)

**source of raw materials** (1): parallel market (designer)

**average monthly profit** (1): KZ 8,500/day (designer)

* Observations

The photocopying service, located in Central, did not exist during the initial survey. One activista notes:

"This service is very helpful for the community, as it means we do not have to arrange transport to get to and from the city centre to have copies made of documents and other papers. The charge (as of April 1992) is KZ 200 per page. It costs KZ 400 to make a copy of an identity document."

4.4 Commerce

4.4.1 Stores

* Summary

**total number of cases**: 10

**average labour force** (5): 2.2 workers. Two supermarkets in Sao Pedro da Barra have some women workers
**average monthly wage (1):** kz 8,500

**average monthly wage of management (1):** kz 15,000

**price per article (2):** kz 100-2,500

**customers (7):** public

**source of raw materials (4):** parallel market (3), state companies (4)

* Observations

Activistas note that between August 1991 and April 1992, there has not been a noticeable increase in the number of private stores serving Ngola Kiluanje.

There are also several serious gaps in the range of stores - formal and informal - available to residents in Ngola Kiluanje. The former survey coordinator noted the following:

"In none of those areas included in this study are there bread bakeries, not even in the informal sector. There is one pastry shop in Val Saroca, but it is presently not working. Several residents commented that a large commune like Ngola Kiluanje needs at least two to three bakeries to supply the whole area."

As of May 1992, there were also neither butcher shops nor fish stores in Ngola Kiluanje. (JA 17.05.92)

4.4.2 Parallel Markets

The parallel market sector in Angola has more in common with the West African than with the Southern African tradition. The West African parallel market system is very strong and, in countries such as Ghana, highly organized. Women have often quite substantial economic power, and it is not uncommon to find both women and men with their own separate income sources. This is also the case in Angola, although there is as yet insufficient research and data on such activities and the extent of their similarity to comparable activities elsewhere in West Africa.

* Overview

As a result of severe shortages of goods and services at official prices, parallel markets - with prices determined by supply and demand - have developed as the only possibility for most consumers to have access to essential goods and services.

The Ministry of Planning estimates that after 1987, the number of market venders in Luanda more than doubled, surpassing 38,000; this also includes venders who are not officially registered. (Morel 1990:19)

In a 1991 study of the composition of informal sector employment in Luanda, it was found that retail trade accounts for 43.9% of informal sector employment, and a total of 15.5% of all employment within Luanda. (LHBNS 1991/2:20)
Observations

Luanda's parallel markets have the same range of items, including imported goods, as one now finds in any store, including foreign currency shops such as that of the UN. The source of these items is varied and has also changed over time. Whereas formerly, producers brought their goods to the markets, now many market venders go to Roque Santeiro and buy from intermediaries. (JA 11.07.92)

Goods sold on the parallel market also come from official outlets (at official prices) which are then resold (at higher prices), smuggling (goods brought illegally into the country by foreigners or nationals), goods stolen from state-owned industries or port installations and production specifically directed towards the parallel market.

Men and women are involved in different activities on the parallel market. Women sell mainly food items (including fish) and sometimes clothing, and men usually sell non-food items like watches, jewelry, a variety of equipment and tools, radios, refrigerators and so forth.

Within and among parallel markets, the clientele and prices vary. Some venders sell in the municipal or large parallel markets during the day and finish up in a small neighbourhood market selling their remaining products at the end of the day. (Morel 1990:19) Throughout Ngola Kiluanje, there are lots of women and youngsters selling cigarettes, peanuts, soft drinks, beer and other things, sometimes alone and sometimes in small groups of three or four. (JA 17.05.92)

Many parallel markets, such as Kinaxixi, Sao Paulo or Congoleses, are legal markets. Venders selling within these markets are quitandeiros (registered), and pay an annual tax for a permit as well as monthly rent for the small bench space they use to display and sell their goods. Often, conditions even in the official markets are poor due to the lack of water and basic sanitation, and in other parallel markets food products are frequently placed in the sun and/or dirt. (Morel 1990:19)

Market women in both urban and rural areas can benefit from training programmes in such things as accounting, management and hygienic food preservation techniques.

Street Venders

Street trading in Luanda has existed for a long time, but has been increasing during the past year. Street sellers in Luanda are usually children 12-16 years old, many of whom have abandoned school or are unable to find places in schools. They are often concentrated at traffic lights or other busy locations. They mainly sell articles of personal use, magazines, newspapers and other trifles. They usually buy newspapers in kiosks for kz 350 and sell them for kz 500. Roque Santeiro is the main source of most of the other things they sell. Their profit is insignificant, but it buys a bit of food. (JA 1.07.92)

One survey notes that street trading is one point of entry for migrants into the working life of a city. In many cities of Africa and southeast Asia, street selling - often of prepared food - is one of the major occupations of women who work within the urban informal sector. Street trading will continue to draw new participants as long as other sources of urban employment are inadequate to meet the need. (Lubell 1991:97-99)
4.4.3 Restaurants, Luncheonettes and Bars

* Summary

**total number of cases:** 8

**average labour force** (4): 6.3 workers

**average monthly wage** (4): kz 9,552

**average monthly wage of management** (2): kz 34,190 (range kz 18,000-40,000)

**price per article** (1): kz 1,000/meal

**customers** (4): public

**source of raw materials** (3): parallel market (2), state companies (3)

* Restaurants

Activistas say that between August 1991 and April 1992, there has been little increase in the number of restaurants in the commune, and that there are still few relative to the need.

* Luncheonettes

Throughout Luanda's urban and periurban areas, luncheonettes are starting to appear everywhere. Wherever there is a need and easy access to potential clients, a new luncheonette is going up. In many cases, they are found in old transport containers previously dumped along the road. In some cases, these containers simply have a door and serving window cut into them and a few chairs put out front. In other cases, the containers have been repainted, a cement patio has been put down around it and tables with sun umbrellas and chairs are set up.

A project to identify regulations for the standardization and licensing of luncheonettes is underway in Luanda. These regulations will probably result in the closing of some luncheonettes considered unhygienic (lacking running water or a latrine) or located in inappropriate areas (gardens, children's parks, pedestrian walkways, etc.). There is an increasing concern with the potential impact of this uncontrolled situation on public health. It is the Luanda Provincial Directorate of Tourism and Hotels (Direccao Provincial de Turismo e Hotelaria de Luanda) which officially "controls" lanchonetes in the capital, although most luncheonettes in Luanda are still neither registered nor pay tax. (JA 23.07.92) As of August 1992, there were about 1,000 luncheonettes under this Directorate. (JA 21.08.92)
4.4.4 Tobacco Shop / Bookstore

* Summary

total number of cases: 4

average labour force (3): 3.0 workers

average monthly wage (3): kz 9,277

source of raw materials (3): state companies

average monthly profit (2): kz 17,500

4.4.5 Pastry and Ice Cream Store

Except for identifying the locations of two of these SSEs, no information was obtained on any aspect of this activity.

4.4.6 Warehouses

* Summary

total number of cases: 2

average labour force (2): 10.5 workers. One has 3 and the other 18 workers.

average monthly wage (2): kz 12,016

average monthly wage of management (1): kz 22,000

source of raw materials (1): state company

* Observations

The two warehouses included in this inventory are both in Central. One is a private warehouse of the Eoros Mista UEE company and the other is an importer for Wapossoka. One provides bulk storage for Uije Province and the other for eight provinces; this second warehouse also rents transport vehicles.

4.5 Other

Something called “Ex-Campismo Star” was inventoried in Val Saroca, but no information was obtained to enable an identification of what this is, or if indeed it is a micro-industry at all!
4.6 Composition of Informal Sector in Ngola Kiluanje

* Ngola Kiluanje

Taking into account the five general categories of informal sector activities in Ngola Kiluanje - construction, production, services, commerce and others - as of July 1992, there were 201 such activities located throughout the commune. The tables on the following three pages summarize the findings of the survey as well as provide some comparisons with Luanda as a whole.

Table V shows the distribution of these activities by work category and location in Ngola Kiluanje.

Tables VI and VII provide a further analysis of Table V. As is clear from the tables, services constitute one half and production just over one-fifth of all informal sector activities by work category.

Although commerce accounts for only one-sixth of the number of informal sector activities in Ngola Kiluanje, if one were to count the number of people involved in commerce, especially in the parallel markets, this would be the most important activity in terms of numbers employed. It was not one of the objectives of the survey, however, to obtain this kind of information for the parallel markets.

Table VIII shows the distribution of informal sector activities by sector. Almost three-quarters of all such activities are located Central and Val Saroca, almost equally divided between them. According to a water and sanitation survey done in Val Saroca in 1989, almost two-thirds of residents moved to the area since 1984. (GARM 1989) Given this comparatively newer population, it is interesting that this sector already has about the same number of informal activities as Central, which some residents say is an older and more established part of the commune.

* Angola

The LHBNS includes information on the composition of Luanda's informal sector based on a survey of 539 participants. When this data is summarized into work categories corresponding to those used in the present survey (see Table IX), a pattern is found which supports the observations made about the informal sector in Ngola Kiluanje.

First, whether looking at micro-industries by the number of industries (Ngola Kiluanje) or by the number of entrepreneurs (LHBNS), the resulting percentage is very much the same. This is probably explained by the fact that these kinds of SSEs tend to have a small work force, and in many cases represent self-employed (own-account) economic activities.

Second, the much higher frequency for commercial activities reflected in the LHBNS is probably closer to what it would be for Ngola Kiluanje, if the latter survey had been based on the numbers actually employed rather than on the number of each particular kind of economic activity. One only has to visit a typical parallel market to realize that this is the one informal activity which employs by far the majority of people.
### TABLE V
#### INFORMAL SECTOR: NGOLA KILUANJE
##### JULY 1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Sao Jose</th>
<th>Sao Pedro da Barra</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONSTRUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal working</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoemaking</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabinet making</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handicrafts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERVICES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical post</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curandeiros *</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education **</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle repair</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tire repair</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle/motorbike repair</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel / lubricant sales</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc. repairs ++</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grinding mill</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barber</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing/films</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc. services º</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMMERCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stores (also fish and bread)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel markets</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants/bars</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco/bookshops</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastry/ice cream</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warehouses</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OTHERS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 77 27 24 73 201

* Traditional healers
* Private schools
+ Vehicle repair: panel beating, electricals, mechanical and painting
++ Repair of equipment and radios
º Designer, photocopying and scrap iron
### TABLE VI

**NUMBER OF INFORMAL SECTOR ACTIVITIES BY WORK CATEGORY AND SECTOR: NGOLA KILUANJE JULY 1992**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Sao Jose</th>
<th>Sao Pedro da Barra</th>
<th>Sao Saroca</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE VII

**PERCENTAGE OF INFORMAL SECTOR ACTIVITIES IN EACH WORK CATEGORY NGOLA KILUANJE: JULY 1992**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>No. of SSEs</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE VIII

**DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMAL SECTOR ACTIVITIES IN NGOLA KILUANJE, JULY 1992**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>No. of SSEs</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sao Jose</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.Pedro da Barra</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Val Saroca</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>201</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE IX

**COMPOSITION OF INFORMAL SECTOR IN LUANDA PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYMENT 1990**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>construction</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>production</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commerce</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
<td><strong>538</strong></td>
<td><strong>99.8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: derived from LHBNS 1991/2:20
5. MICRO-INDUSTRIES. MISCONCEPTIONS, PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

"Small and medium-sized enterprises...(are)...the poor relations of development - unlegislated for at home and unknown to donor agencies."

(Courier 1989:57)

Until recently, most governments viewed the informal economy as backward. Resources were directed to the formal sector, and the informal sector was left facing neglect or harassment. (Westlake 1990:12) In many countries, SSEs must deal with a hostile policy environment that treats many of these enterprises as illegal. (ACCION:4)

The situation is no different in Angola. The LHBNS came across several misconceptions about SSEs in Luanda, the two most common being the following: first, that most informal sector commerce is based on theft and similar undesirable practices, and second, that this sector will decline in importance as markets are liberalized. (LHBNS 1991/2:20)

The facts, however, show quite the opposite. Rather than avoiding paying taxes, it has recently been estimated by the ILO that nearly half of the informal enterprises in ten sub-Saharan countries pay taxes or registration fees. In contrast, large companies often exploit legal loopholes, paying a smaller proportion of their gross income in taxes. (Westlake 1990:15)

* Problems and Constraints

There are two main areas in which informal sector activities encounter problems and constraints. The first relates to policy and the second to factors of production.

Policies which can hinder or retard the growth of the informal sector include:
- illegality
- administrative burdens of registration, taxes and licenses
- police harassment
- corruption of police and/or bureaucrats and resulting bribes
- lack of access to credit or foreign exchange, and lack of a credit system adapted to the needs of SSEs and other small producers)
- lack of property rights
- lack of incentives for small scale enterprises
(LHBNS 1991/2:22-3, Morel 1990:24-5)

Problems with factors of production which can most seriously and negatively affect the informal sector, including its ability to innovate, include:
- lack of access to raw materials or intermediate goods (most are imported), and conversely, the extent of dependence on foreign sources of equipment
- lack of equipment and tools, especially metal tools (most are imported)
- lack of education and training for enterprise heads
- lack of information of what services and assistance may exist at provincial and municipal levels for SSEs
The first two problems - lack of raw materials and equipment - mean that most SSEs must get these good from the parallel market at high prices. As a result, when they sell their products on the parallel market, the prices are also high. (Morel 1990:24-5, Lubell 1991:104)

Columbian Ulipiano Ayala, an architect of urban and rural anti-poverty programmes and presidential adviser, makes the following observation about misconceptions surrounding micro-industries: "Micro-entrepreneurs are still thought of as a special group and are treated as a social issue instead of a vital part of the overall economy. Programmes that assist them...need to boost wages and productivity. Otherwise the low-wage workers will perpetuate the poverty class and not rise to the middle class." (Westlake 1990:16)

* Ngola Kiluanje

During the Ngola Kiluanje survey, a number of micro-entrepreneurs spoke of the problems they face, some of which are briefly outlined below:

By April 1992, the lack of materials had caused a number of micro-industries to close which were open during the August 1991 survey.
- Central: tailor (1), auto repair workshops (2), tire repair (1), film and video centre (1)
- Sao Jose: tobacco/bookstore (1) and others to reduce production
- Central: small equipment repair (1), cabinet maker (1)
- Sao Pedro da Barra: metal workshop (1)
- Val Saroca: shoemaker (2)

Some SSEs have had to halt production because equipment is out of order and they lack financial or material resources to arrange repairs.
- Sao Pedro da Barra: tailor (1)
- Val Saroca: tailor (2), grinding mill (1)

The lack of electricity has retarded the production of a number of SSEs.
- Central: metal workshop (1)
- Val Saroca: carpenter (1)
6. ADVANTAGES OF MICRO-INDUSTRIES

Gabriela Romanow, development education director with Accion International, an NGO based in Massachusetts which assists SSEs, says:

"The informal sector is one of the few sectors remaining in the developing world that holds large-scale growth potential and often represents the only fountain of employment." (Westlake 1990:16)

Enrique Iglesias, president of the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), further underscores this point:

"We are going to live with the reality of the informal sector for many years, and in my judgment it would be a mistake - historically, politically, socially - if we fail to use every means at our disposal to foster actions geared specifically to appealing to the vital energy that is to be found at the grassroots of society." (Westlake 1990:16)

6.1 Local Employment and Earning Potential

The informal sector is the largest and, in many countries, the fastest-growing part of the private sector. It is also the sector which provides a large percentage of jobs for women, recent immigrants from rural areas, the uneducated, youth and the very poor. (ACCION:2-3) For this reason, the informal sector has been described as "the major development agent for employment creation, income generation and social stabilization" in the 1990s. (INSTRAW)

The LHBNS has made similar observations, noting that the micro-industry sector in Luanda is one of the few sectors with the potential to grow quickly enough to create large amounts of employment. Because the informal sector is labour intensive, it is able to create more employment per investment than can the formal sector. (LHBNS 1991/2:18-19) The advantage of this for employment creation is the low capital cost per new job created compared with larger formal sector enterprises. The disadvantage is that productivity per worker and quality of output are usually much lower in informal than in formal sector enterprises. (Lubell 1991:103)

6.2 Local Training

As discussed in Section 3.6.5, the informal sector plays an important role in hands-on-training of a wide range of skills and in providing practical learning experiences in entrepreneurial responsibilities. (ACCION:3) A lot of this training takes place in the context of apprenticeship relations, both for the labour force and for enterprise heads. For Angola, there is as yet little information available about the range and operating characteristics of these relationships.

6.3 Local Investment

Some economists say that micro-producers strengthen the internal (local) market by increasing both supply and demand for goods and services. Reasons include the high return on capital in the informal sector, and the fact that unlike formal sector entrepreneurs, small-scale producers do
not appear to send much capital out of the country. (Westlake 1990:15) In this respect, informal sector enterprises represent a potentially economical mix of capital, labour and energy in a poor society, as well as increasing the amount of money spent within the local community. (ACCION:3)

The informal sector can also help establish vital links to large enterprises by providing semi-finished component parts that are used by larger businesses to create finished goods for resale and export. (ACCION:3) This relationship, however, can also be exploitative of small-scale industries as discussed in Section 3.7.4 on Subcontracting.

6.4 Local Services

The informal sector provides important and convenient services - from recreation to bicycle repair to health and education - to the local community which frequently lacks adequate facilities or access to the formal sector. In this respect, the informal sector contributes to an improvement in the quality of life of the area.

Given the importance played by retail trade within the informal sector (see Section 4.4.2), one study recommended that liberalization of commerce within Luanda should be done in a manner which allows the informal sector to conduct most of the trade without hindrance. (LHBNS 1991/2:20)

6.5 Potential for Growth

* Overview

Most recent informal sector studies conclude that informality will probably spread during the 1990’s in two ways: first, informality as embodied in the micro-enterprise sector (i.e., small-scale, often family-based and located on one’s own premises), and second, informality as an avoidance of official regulations. It is also anticipated that informal micro-industries will continue to proliferate in developing countries during the 1990’s because shrinking urban formal sector activities are simply unable to absorb the continual increase in the urban labour force. Self-employment and micro-enterprise activities increasingly emerge as the only alternative to fill this gap, particularly in urban areas. (Lubell 1991:116)

* Ngola Kiluanje

Even though the preliminary inventory is limited in the depth of information obtained, it is extensive enough to show that there are rapid changes and growth even within a small community of some 60,000 inhabitants.

One activista says: "In the future, the informal sector will become even more important at the local level. People want to open more commercial enterprises."

During the survey, many examples were encountered of micro-entrepreneurs who are interested in improving and/or expanding their enterprise, including a tire repair workshop and a designer in Central and an auto repair workshop in Val Saroca. Some of these SSEs, with a bit of help, could greatly improve their operations. Other examples are:
- Oficina Auto Fsilort Limitada is an automobile workshop in Sao Jose. Opened now for ten years and providing apprenticeship training for schoolage children, the owner says they would be able to do a lot more if they could get supplies at official prices, as well as a larger area for expanding and improving their work as they have a lot of clients.

- Centro de Reparaçoes de Geleiras, located in Sao Pedro da Barra, repairs iceboxes. The owner, a refrigeration mechanic, formerly had a small enterprise which he lost as the municipal-level government needed the land on which it was based. Now, along with two assistants, he repairs iceboxes in his house. They are struggling to get land on which they could again develop a small enterprise.

- the owner of Moagem Kuandianga-Nzim, a grinding mill in Sao Pedro da Barra, wants to expand his business to include the transformation of agricultural products into processed foods, e.g., tomatoes into tomato paste, meats into sausages, etc.

- Joaquim Matias, a tailor in Sao Pedro da Barra, lost a limb in the war. He has a sewing machine which is out-of-order and now he is sewing by hand. He wants to open a boutique as he has a lot of ability sewing children's clothes as well as clothes for women and men. But he has not yet been able to arrange either a suitable location or sufficient material with which to do this. He may be able to expand his business on the area where his house is located, as it is a generous plot of land.
7. STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND ITS POTENTIAL IMPACT

7.1 Background

Structural adjustment packages have become increasingly common in developing countries during the last 15 years, appearing first in Latin America and then in Africa. During the last few years, the social dimension of adjustment has become more apparent, reflecting an increasing awareness of the social costs inherent in such programmes. (LHBNS 1992:21)

In 1985, Angola began to discuss the necessity to introduce economic reforms. Angola's structural adjustment programme has two components: SEF (Saneamento Economico e Financeiro, or Economic and Financial Restructuring) and PAG (Programa de Accao do Governo, or Government Programme of Action).

First presented in August 1987, SEF has two main goals: stabilizing the financial system through balancing trade and paying the national debt, and recovery of production and economic activity. (World Bank 1988:112-17) SEF also assigns an enhanced role to the private sector including privatization of public sector firms producing "non-strategic" goods and services. While implementing SEF, Angola applied for membership in the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and was accepted as a member in 1989. (LHBNS 1992:2,14,17)

PAG, introduced in September 1990, covers currency and credit, public finance and the balance of payments, with the aim of reducing the budget deficit. SEF is officially considered a stabilization programme providing the starting point for the PAG structural adjustment programme. (ANGOP 1990:8)

There are some important differences between SEF and PAG. SEF includes only devaluation, not demonitization, of the kwanza, and favours a more rapid liberalization of the economy as well as a greater dismantling of bureaucracy. In this respect, SEF wants to promote economic and political liberalization. PAG supports both demonitization and devaluation, as well as a greater role for administration in leading economic changes. In this respect, PAG is a more conservation approach to structural transformation than SEF. On 19 March 1991, the first devaluation (50%) of the kwanza took place. (LHBNS 1992:17)

Today, Angola's economy is still characterized by extremely low levels of output outside of the oil sector, a worsening of income distribution and a continuous loss of welfare. Angola also has a distorted price system, over-valued currency, large budget deficit and deformed wage system. (LHBNS 1992: 4,18)

7.2 Employment Patterns

It is anticipated that Angola's structural adjustment programme will increase the number of unemployed. SEF documents show that since 1985, industrial production has fallen by 35% while the number employed has risen by 20%. The closure of unprofitable parastatal firms could result in the loss of 90,000 jobs (out of 376,000 nationally), and about 65,000 workers on state farms will be unemployed as a result of government attempts to cut losses of state enterprises and privatize part of the agricultural sector. (Pearce 1989:45-6, 50-3, LHBNS 1991/4:5)
Some 70,000 "surplus workers" among the country's 250,000 civil servants (1990 World Bank estimate) will also lose their jobs. Working women will likely be greatly affected by increased unemployment in both the public sector and in privatized state enterprises, as they have less schooling, training and job protection and consequently will be more vulnerable to layoffs and resulting lower levels of employment. (Rodrigues 1991:13) There will also likely be unemployed among the nation's approximately 212,000 demobilized military. (LHBNS 1991/4:5, 1992:46)

In 1991, it was estimated that the number of people in Luanda employed in the formal sector was 427,600, of whom almost 39% (165,600) were employed in the public sector. (LHBNS 1991/2:2) Even a 10% reduction will mean approximately 17,000 more unemployed in the capital just for this sector alone.

7.3 Household Incomes

The LHBNS identified three types of poor and vulnerable households: those dependent on the public sector for employment, those dependent on the informal sector as its main source of employment and those with no employment and already chronically poor.

For the first group, many will become more impoverished as public sector layoffs proceed. For the second group, it is anticipated that their household income will experience a slow decline during the early stages of PAG rather than a complete collapse. It is also anticipated that the number of households within this group will increase due to rising unemployment in the formal sector and inflation. (LHBNS 1991/1:48)

7.4 Micro-Industries

* Overview

During the 1980's, many African countries adopted structural adjustment programmes which included significant cutbacks in public sector unemployment. All indicators point to the fact that there is little possibility of other components of the state or formal sector absorbing these unemployed. (Westlake 1990:16) Programmes designed to try to absorb these displaced workers have focused mainly on developing small- and medium-scale private enterprises, often to the exclusion of micro-enterprises and informal sector businesses. (INSTRAW:11)

Some structural adjustment programmes assume that local entrepreneurial energies will be released if unnecessary and inhibitory regulations are removed, and that these energies will partly compensate for the lack of foreign investment and more efficiently use available resources than is now the case. (Lubell 1991:13) Others say there needs to be a stronger integration between the informal and formal economic sectors, particularly as income and wages decrease in the formal sector and the number of informal workers increases. (Westlake 1990:16)

Only a few African countries (e.g., Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Kenya, Nigeria and Senegal) have begun to introduce new strategies - such as special tax status and easier regulations - to support small-scale enterprises and try to improve their legal status. (Westlake 1990:12, 16)

* Angola
Structural adjustment in Angola has brought with it new economic concepts formerly nonexistent in economic measures being implemented in the country up to that point. One such concept is that of redefining the size of enterprises ("redimensionamento empresarial") and then classifying them. What this really means is making larger units into smaller units and then privatizing them. Only recently has the government begun to systematically classify enterprises as small, medium or large. Even more recently, the classification of small economic activity or micro-enterprise has begun to appear. (JA 27.06.92)

In September 1991, the government began to implement this privatization programme with the announcement that some 60 national companies, mainly in the areas of agriculture, coffee, fishing and town planning, would be privatized during the first phase. (JA 27.09.91)

* Observations

Some economists say that the rapid growth of the informal sector is the result of the quagmire of bureaucracy and regulations obstructing legal entrepreneurial activity among poorer urban classes. Others say the expansion of informal sector activity is due to unbalanced growth, income inequality and a debt-induced recession which has put economic development into reverse. (Westlake 1990:13)

Still others say that as state and formal sectors slash their workforces and employment possibilities, rising numbers of unemployed are being driven into the informal sector, making this sector like "an urban labour sponge or a last resort for people without other work." (Westlake 1990:13)

It is this aspect which is at the heart of the debate about whether the informal sector has the potential to be a vehicle for economic growth. If its expansion is due simply to an increasing number of job seekers competing in a limited (informal) labour market, they will have progressively less to do and meagre incomes will be squeezed even further. If, on the other hand, the growth of the informal sector is at least partly a response to a rising demand for what the sector can produce, there is a potential for the informal sector to both absorb workers and raise incomes. (Westlake 1990:15) A deeper analysis of this point is beyond the scope of the present study, but it is central to the issue.

Whether the informal sector has either the potential, or the necessary support, to absorb workers is still being debated. A recent World Bank report on sub-Saharan Africa estimated that micro-enterprises (employing up to 10 people) and small enterprises (up to 20 people) will have to create jobs at twice the rate of the modern wage sector over the next 30 years if Africa is to achieve even a modest real income growth. Workers in the informal sector will also have to increase their productivity because the continuous stream of new entrants into this sector will dilute average earnings. (Westlake 1990:17)

Turning to Angola, the LHBNS concludes that the informal sector, which is nearly twice as large as the public sector, has the capacity not only to maintain employment levels during a public sector retrenchment, but its growth rate only needs to be slightly larger than the rate of public sector redundancies in order to maintain employment levels. (LHBNS 1991/2:18-19) Although it is not clear if "slightly larger" is roughly equivalent to "twice the rate", the LHBNS observation for Luanda seems to be within the range of World Bank predictions for the region as a whole.

* Special Problems for Women
With structural adjustment and the concentration on privatization and profit, the only place for women in the economy will be within the informal sector. Women will have little opportunity in the formal sector, where they are already marginalized.

There is a possibility that the continuous and strong devaluation of the kwanza, together with an adjustment of wages and elimination of special consumption rights (food supply cards), will enhance the role of domestic agriculture and commerce, both of which have an overwhelming involvement of women. But if the development of formal commercial activities like large supermarkets are encouraged, the space for women in commerce will be reduced. (LHBNS 1992:46)
8. POTENTIAL INVOLVEMENT OF MICRO-INDUSTRIES IN URBAN UPGRADING PROJECTS

The potential for the development of local SSEs, including at the family level, is enormous in both urban and rural areas. The development of micro-industries can also have an important impact on, and involvement of, women, particularly when such industries are concerned with labour-saving technology and income-generating activities such as tailoring, food processing, vending and trading, grinding mills, hotel keeping, small family-run restaurants, etc.

There are many possible small-scale industries which can be developed. One important consideration is that they should augment and support existing economic activities as well as be a stimulant to local commercialization.

8.1 Production of Materials and Supplies

Informal sector activities in Luanda which have the greatest potential for rapid growth have been indentified as construction, commerce and transport. (LHBNS 1991/2:22) The first, construction, is of particular interest to urban development programmes such as the Sambizanga Project, particularly in the area of informal housing and infrastructural improvements such as upgrading of community-based health clinics and schools, water points, etc.

In the majority of periurban areas, informal housing is sometimes provided through official channels (state-funded housing programmes), but mostly it is squatter-built. Informal housing is partly monetized in that it may employ informal sector building contractors, masons, carpenters, cabinet makers, metal workers and durable materials. It is also partly satisfied in kind by self-built housing constructed out of light and/or more durable scavenged or purchased building materials. (Lubell 1991:99)

* Observation

Some economists say micro-producers adapt faster to consumer demand than big companies and have competitive advantages in lower wages and less job security. The informal sector is also competitive in that it frequently provides lower cost consumer goods, although they are usually also lower quality. (Lubell 1991:113)

It is not clear if what has been increasingly happening in Asia has yet started in Angola, whereby large and medium-size companies subcontract parts of their production to the informal sector, thereby “taking advantage” of this sector's lower wages and production costs. (Westlake 1990:15) (See Section 3.7.4)

8.2 Training

One shoemaker from Huambo noted that the government could better use its financial resources by enhancing the capacity of the informal sector to improve its training initiatives (such as apprenticeship) than to send so many people outside the country.

With the necessary conditions to make their professions attractive, many productive activities -
from shoemakers to tailors to carpenters to mechanics - within the informal sector could improve and expand their training of skilled personnel within the country. (JA 8.08.92)

8.3 Limitations and Possible Solutions

Problems and constraints facing many informal sector activities are briefly outlined in Section 5.0 and will not be repeated here. Instead, some of the measures which could be of help to SSEs include:
- removing legal restrictions on informal enterprises
- providing more small-scale loans for investment and working capital
- management training and more apprenticeships
- supporting producer associations to organize savings clubs and cut costs through bulk buying
(Westlake 1990:15, 17)

* Observations

Women who are active in the informal sector have little opportunity to receive professional training. Professional training schools are concerned mainly with women working in the formal sector. Private schools, already appearing in Angola, will probably not deal with this issue either.

Women involved in informal sector activities or SSEs could benefit from professional training in accounting, management and the organization of small enterprises, etc. Because many women do not read or write, functional literacy could be incorporated into professional training programmes.
9. ADDITIONAL NECESSARY INFORMATION

9.1 What is Needed

* Baseline Information: Micro-Industries

There is a need for general studies on small-scale enterprises as well as on other informal sector activities. These studies should include:

- sex-disaggregated statistics
- existing skills among women and men for SSE development
- inventory of raw materials locally available, from where (parallel market, private or state companies), and which must be imported
- inventory of principal goods produced and services provided
- if products are sold, who buys them
- what happens with the waste material of SSEs
- the range and nature of interactive relationships between different micro-industries
- identification of the specific needs of women and men involved in SSEs, e.g., capital, childcare, health programmes, maternity support, legal aid, etc.
- review of existing regulations and prohibitions affecting SSEs
- review of government structures and NGOs supporting SSEs

Informal sector investigators anticipate that the new wave of research over the next several years will focus more and more on the regulatory framework controlling the informal sector. (Lubell 1991:64)

For studies on the regulatory framework of the informal sector, one aspect seldom examined are the implications for labour legislation of privatization, and particularly the possible trend toward "informalisation" of parts of the production processes of formal sector manufacturing enterprises. Given the emphasis on restructuring larger state companies into smaller and smaller companies, and then privatizing them, there is an increasing possibility that some of these smaller and smaller units may eventually enter the informal sector. At this point, the boundaries between formal and informal may become increasingly blurred.

It would also be instructive to conduct some in-depth case studies of the history of specific micro-industries, especially on the theme of how individual micro-enterprises grow into small- and medium-scale firms, and, as sometimes happens, into formal sector establishments.

Many SSE studies and donors concentrate on the "best-off" participants in the informal sector, i.e., the potentially viable productive enterprises. Greater attention needs to be devoted to the "survival activities" of the poorest participants in the informal sector. (Lubell 1991:120)

* Baseline Information: Companies Helping Micro-Industries

As already discussed in Section 3.7.1, most SSEs obtain materials and supplies on the parallel market and only secondarily from formal sector retailers. More information about these retailers needs to be obtained, particularly in the following areas:

- the range of raw materials and supplies provided to SSEs
- the costs of these goods and if there are different kinds of payment plans available for informal sector activities
- do these retailers sell only to individuals or are they able to sell to groups of purchasers at bulk rates
- sources of the goods (imported or produced locally)
- what happens to the wastes of retail companies
- do retailers rent out equipment and, if so, what are the terms
- is training provided and, if so, do SSEs have access to this

* Sector-specific Information: Construction and Production

More indepth baseline data on SSEs involved in construction and production can help identify the necessary support needed to enhance their capacity to participate in local development initiatives. Such information can include:

- which SSEs are involved in producing building materials (e.g., concrete blocks, roofing sheets, sheet metal, nails, wire, door and window frames, paint, etc.) and furniture
- where do these enterprises get raw materials (e.g., stone, cement, sand, gravel, lime, timber, soil, reeds, thatch, sisal, bamboo, etc.). What is the availability and cost of these materials? Are local storage and distribution facilities available?
- who are the owners of these small-scale enterprises? How many workers (men, women and children)?
- what local training programmes exist, e.g., apprenticeship. Are there other kinds of informal training programmes? How are apprentices recruited? Do apprentices pay an apprenticeship fee? What do they get in return?
- what additional materials might be produced locally (e.g., sisal-cement roofing tiles, soil-cement blocks, water containers, floor tiles, door and window frames, drainage channels, tubes, etc.)?
- what are the ideas of local entrepreneurs to improve their productive capacity
- what relationships exist between different small-scale enterprises? Who works with whom, formally or informally, and what do they do?

* Sector-specific Information: Health Care

It would be useful to get the following information on private health facilities (including traditional health care such as midwives and curandeiros) in Ngola Kiluanje:

- sector(s) of the population they serve
- personnel (qualifications and experience)
- range of services provided
- sources of medicines and cost
- condition of physical installation
- training programmes, e.g., apprenticeships
- relationships with state structures
- community outreach programmes, if any
* Sector-specific Information: Education

Additional information on private schools should include:

- how did they start
- who do they serve and the number of students
- personnel (qualifications and experience)
- condition of physical installation
- cost per student
- sources of teaching and student materials
- parental involvement, if any, including financial assistance

9.2 How is it to be Obtained

9.2.1 Studies

This survey is only a preliminary step in identifying informal sector small-scale industries in Ngola Kiluanje. In carrying out this survey and analyzing the results, a more detailed questionnaire was formulated indicating the range of information which would be useful in providing a more viable working data base. (See Annex I) Once Development Workshop identifies which specific work categories it wants to pursue, this questionnaire could be modified to suit these categories.

There are also several other structures and organizations who are looking more closely at the informal sector and small-scale industries, and with whom it would be useful to explore collaborative relationships.

* National Statistics Institute (INE)

INE is planning to carry out a national survey on the micro-industry sector and has already submitted a preliminary proposal to UNICEF. INE has indicated that it wants to meet with NGOs interested to work in the small-scale enterprise sector to explore the parameters of possible collaboration in carrying out the survey and identifying how best the informal sector can be assisted. This initiative needs to be followed up.

* UNICEF

UNICEF is interested to examine possible ways the micro-industry sector could be assisted and further developed. During an April 1992 discussion with the UNICEF monitoring and evaluation unit, UNICEF suggested that a preliminary meeting might be organized (perhaps with UNICEF, INE and DW) to exchange ideas on the informal sector and explore possible areas for collaboration, including in conducting further studies.

* UNIDO

During the last five years, UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization) has supported the Angolan Ministry of Industry with pre-feasibility and feasibility studies for development projects. UNIDO has also given some support to the process of privatization and has been supporting the National Institute for Assistance to Small and Medium Enterprise
(INAPEM). (See Section 3.8) (UCD/JPO Workplan Angola 1992-93)
9.2.2 Training

Baseline data on micro-industries and the informal sector can be useful in identifying appropriate training programmes to enhance both methods and productive capacity of small-scale entrepreneurs and improve the marketing possibilities of their products. It would also be useful to explore what training programmes already exist for micro-producers, as well as what existing programmes might be responsive to including informal sector participants among their students. Some existing programmes which might be further examined are the following:

* Middle-level Economic Institute of Luanda (IMEL)

IMEL (Instituto Medio de Economic de Luanda) is presently doing a course for women on basic business management. Classes cover five themes: buying and selling, manufacture and installation of services, costs and prices, commercialization and financial management. Twenty-five women are participating in the course. (JA 13.08.92)

* Senafope Professional Training School

The Senafope professional training school, located in Cazenga municipality, has a Training for Industry section which will eventually be autonomous. They might be willing to create special training programmes in general business management, bookkeeping, marketing and so forth geared to entrepreneurs in the informal sector.

* Professional Training Centre

There has been a plan to construct a professional training centre in Sambizanga municipality for those students not presently in school. Construction is being done by CAVOP (Construcao, Armaduras, Voladuras e Obras Publicas, Lda.) - a Spanish construction company - and financed by the Bom Deus parish located in the municipality. This centre will have a medical post and teach electrics, sewing, embroidery, etc. It was anticipated that construction would be completed by December 1991. (JA 26.10.91)

* Participation in International Conferences

Recently, Angola has begun to be represented in international meetings and conferences concerned with women entrepreneurs. In July 1992, Angola participated in a round table in Zambia - organized by the Preferential Trade Area for the region - which began preparations on the constitution of a Federation of Associations for women entrepreneurs. In December 1992, 20 Angolan women entrepreneurs will participate in a course in Italy on the "políticas of a strategy for promoting women entrepreneurs". This course is an ILO initiative. And in February 1993, Angola will participate in a conference in Zimbabwe on women entrepreneurs. (JA 19.08.92) It would be important for women involved in business activities in the informal sector to also have the benefit of such conferences.

* UNIDO

UNIDO has about USD 1.0 million per year available for projects and wants to get more involved in the informal sector. The 1992/93 UNIDO cycle has proposed projects involving training, including of entrepreneurs, informal sector support and employment creation. During a July 1992 meeting, UNIDO said it wants to cooperate with NGOs working in these areas.
UNIDO has already helped build a provincial training centre in Cazenga for industrial maintenance. This centre provides services and training of trainers; Angola wants to make a national centre carrying out similar work.

UNIDO is also proposing a training project for women entrepreneurs involved in food processing industries. Women, already present in agricultural production and food preparation activities, lack experience as small-scale entrepreneurs and in the use of simple preparation techniques. This project would help provide some of this training. (UCD/JPO Workplan Angola 1992-93)

* **African Development Bank (ADB)**

The African Development Bank has informed national entrepreneurs in Angola that it has USD 10 million available with which to help both the private and public sector. These funds are available for economically viable project proposals. (JA 27.06.92) It would be useful to obtain information on what kind of initiatives are being supported in the private sector, and if this is being extended to include the informal sector.

* **Others**

During a July 1992 meeting, UNIDO said that the most appropriate body within the United Nations structure for working with SSEs is the International Labour Organization (ILO). This should be further explored.

Among its priorities for action and support in Angola, the UNDP Third Country Programme of Angola (1993-97) includes as two of its objectives the creation of a national entrepreneurship class and employment generation. (UCD/JPO Workplan Angola 1992-93)

Along with the ILO and UNDP, SIDA is also providing assistance to helping SEPDM organize training programmes for women entrepreneurs. (JA 19.08.92) (See Section 3.8)

9.2.3 **Production Activities**

Within its 1992/93 workplan, UNIDO is proposing that a Centre for Construction Materials be developed with the objective of supporting reconstruction efforts including low-cost housing and the development of Provincial Appropriate Technology and Training Centres. The participation of NGOs will be sought for setting up these centres. (UCD/JPO Workplan Angola 1992-93) This needs to be further investigated as there may be areas of possible collaboration between UNIDO and NGOs involved in periurban development programmes.