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GUIDELINES ON GENDER IN EMPLOYMENT POLICIES



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Information Resource Book

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Preface

The idea of this publication grew out of an Employment Policy Department retreat lead by Azita Berar during the summer of 2006. At the time, the authors used the “policy checklist” developed in the document *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment Strategies in support of Decent Work*, or what is referred to as the “Vision document” to demonstrate the importance of adding a gender lens to each and every policy area which was identified. This revealed a myriad of issues that we need to undertake in order to ensure that gender equality in employment is realized at the national levels. The questions then became do we have the knowledge and capacity related to each and every policy area of the Checklist? How can we assist our colleagues (and constituents) in improving their contribution towards gender equality in their specific technical areas of work? The current document was subsequently developed as a response to this felt need.

The goal of this document is to provide concrete and operational guidelines on how to mainstream gender equality in specific employment policy areas. This comes as part of a larger effort to build capacity for gender mainstreaming in the work of the ILO and that of its constituents.

It is a fact that labour markets are usually gendered in nature. Gender relations play an important role in the division of labour, access to assets and the distribution of work, income, and wealth. As such, if employment policies and programmes are to be inclusive and succeed, they need to be linked to the household, the family and the welfare system. The under-pinning of these guidelines is therefore that gender equality is at the centre of the ILO mission to promote productive employment and decent work for men and women. This translates into two main objectives: Improving women’s position in the labour market and promoting a more effective and holistic approach to employment policies and programmes.

Indeed, ILO’s commitment to gender mainstreaming has been repeatedly reiterated. The latest demonstration of this is the *ILO Action Plan for Gender Equality and Gender Mainstreaming (2008-2009)*. This Office-wide Action Plan was overwhelmingly approved by the ILO Governing Body in November 2007. To ensure the implementation of this the Employment Sector has developed a sector-specific strategy. We are nevertheless aware that the achievement of gender equality requires not only political commitment and institutional measures but also concrete actions at the technical level. These guidelines aim to provide the information which will support these actions under the variety of technical areas which we address in the Employment Sector.

The framework of ILO work on employment is based on the Global Employment Agenda (GEA) as the employment pillar of the Decent Work Agenda. There are two principles that underlie all of the GEA agenda. These are: decent work as a productive factor and ending discrimination in the labour market. At the action level these guidelines provide a new tool to support policy formulation and programme development monitoring and evaluation. Simultaneous to employment promotion, this tool will strengthen the impact of the role of labour standards particularly with regards to the four core ILO Conventions which promote gender equality.*

José Manuel Salazar-Xirinachs

Executive Director
Employment Sector

* These are: Equal Remuneration C100, Discrimination in Employment C 111, maternity protection, C103 and workers with family responsibilities C 156.

Contents at a glance

These guidelines are aimed at ILO staff and constituents. They intend to inform the process of building gender issues into Employment policies and programmes. The conceptual base of these Guidelines is the ILO framework on employment which is the Global Agenda and the subsequent “Vision document.”** Basically these guidelines provide gender lens to the GEA’s “policy checklist.” These Guidelines are by no means comprehensive in addressing each and every policy area related to employment. Therefore, they should be viewed as a living document which is updated on periodic basis.

This page serves as an introduction to the guidelines by outlining the ‘**contents at a glance**’. This is immediately followed by several pages of ‘**contents in detail**’. These offer a summary of the contents and will help the reader to quickly identify and focus on topics that are of particular interest.

Section One provides answers to the question: “Why is it important to address gender inequality in employment?” The section considers the gender issue from the ‘equity’ and then from the ‘efficiency points’ of view. This is followed by a review of a number of international policy instruments and frameworks that oblige countries to mainstream gender within their poverty reduction and development strategies. The section ends with an examination of some key challenges and misconceptions that policy makers face regarding gender.

Section Two provides an Employment Policies Checklist in a table format. The section is built around the first five of the six policy options that are listed in the ‘Vision Document’ (see below). Each policy option is dealt with in turn by listing some key gender issues in one column and then some thoughts about what might be involved in gender responsive policy making in another column.

The **Annexes** help the reader to dig deeper. The first three annexes present key lists relating to the context of the GEA and the “Vision Document” which base much of the conceptual approach of these guidelines. This is followed by a **glossary** that offers short definitions of some key concepts and jargon terms. Many of the glossary items have web links so that readers can easily dig deeper. Note that sections one and two also have many footnotes to assist with digging deeper.

The guidelines have two **inserted documents**. These are key to understanding the ILO’s interests and activities in employment policy. They are (a) ILO (March 2003) “Review of the core elements of the Global Employment Agenda” and (b) ILO (2006) “Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work – “Vision” document”.

Finally twelve **Policy Briefs** are presented as self contained documents. Each brief outlines a set of key gender issues for a particular topic and then considers some of the factors that need to be addressed to support gender responsive policy making.

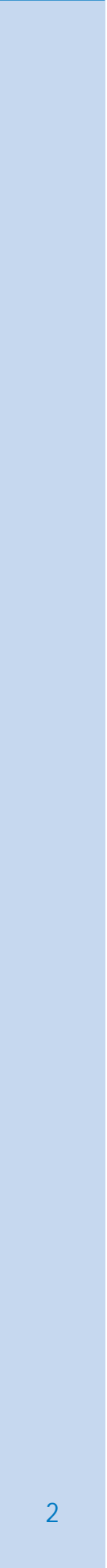
** The Global Employment Agenda <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/> and ILO: *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work, “Vision” document*, Geneva, 2006.

The policy briefs deal with:

- 1 Economic Policies
- 2 International Trade Policies
- 3 Employment intensity of growth
- 4 Labour Migration and Mobility
- 5 Skills and Employability
- 6 Enterprise Development
- 7 Access to Micro Finance Services
- 8 Value Chain Analysis
- 9 Local Economic Development
- 10 Good Workplace Practices
- 11 Labour Market Institutions and Policies
- 12 Crisis Response and Reconstruction

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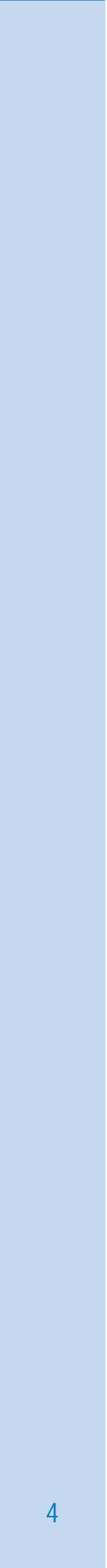


SECTION ONE THE CONTEXT

This section provides answers to the question **“Why is it important to address gender inequality in employment?”**

After a brief introduction this section considers the gender issue from the **equity** and then from the efficiency points of view. The rights-based equity arguments are grounded in the need to address the vulnerability, discrimination and disadvantage that women or men face in economic life as a matter of basic rights and justice. The economics-based **efficiency** arguments recognise that both women and men can play a critical role as economic agents capable of transforming societies and economies and in breaking the poverty cycle from one generation to the next.

This is followed by a review of some international policy instruments and frameworks that oblige countries to mainstream gender within their poverty reduction and development strategies. The section ends with an examination of some of the key challenges and misconceptions that policy makers face regarding gender and employment.



Introduction

'All human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity.' [Declaration of Philadelphia of 1944]

Gender equality is a fundamental human right. At the same time it also makes good economic sense because it means using the country's human capital more efficiently. It can have profound benefits not just for women themselves but also for families, communities and national economies.

Although policy frameworks often posit trade-offs and dichotomies between equity and efficiency and between the economic and the social, there is mounting evidence that equitable employment policies have a strong symbiotic relationship with economic efficiency. The separation of the economic and the social has had many negative effects on women within the policy arena, with women's issues often relegated to under-resourced and under-prioritised social policy.

The implicit assumption is that women are not dynamic economic agents but rather are passive recipients in need of assistance. Separating the economic and the social lends itself easily to perceptions that equality is a luxury of higher income economies or even that equality can be counter-productive because of short term costs.

The separation of the 'economic' and the 'social' has had many negative effects on women during the development of policy. The implicit assumption is that women are passive recipients in need of assistance rather than being dynamic economic agents in their own right.

Empirical evidence and theoretical discussions emerging from capabilities analyses are now however, increasingly recognising that gender equality is not only an end in itself but also a key **means** of achieving wider development goals, ranging from poverty reduction, increased productivity and aggregate output, reduced fertility, lower infant mortality, and less child labour to greater decision making and bargaining power for women within households. All these factors contribute to economic growth either directly or indirectly. Conversely, gender inequality can be a significant drag on economic growth, with some countries with the highest levels of inequality often being those with some of the lowest levels of per capita income.

The ILO has long recognised the importance of equality within work and the principle is enshrined within the ILO Constitution (see box).

Gender equality is not only an end in itself but also a key means of achieving wider development goals that include:

- *poverty reduction;*
- *increased productivity and aggregate output;*
- *reduced fertility, infant mortality, and child labour; and*
- *greater decision making and bargaining power for women within households.*

Gender equality cuts across the four pillars of Decent Work¹ and recognises that men and women must have equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities for work that guarantees an adequate standard of living for themselves and their families, ensures basic security in adversity, respects human rights and allows for creativity and fulfilment.

The weight that the ILO gives to the issue is shown by the fact that two of its core Conventions specifically relate to gender equality. The Global Employment Agenda² (GEA) is the ILO's main pillar for the global Decent Work programme. It firmly establishes the principles that decent work is a productive factor and that discrimination in the labour market and in employment must be eliminated both as a means of generating greater productivity as well as enabling men and women to enjoy equal rights at work.

1.1 Gender Equality in Employment as a Fundamental Human Right: The Equity Rationale

One should not assume that all women want to work, but it is safe to say that women want to be given the same freedom as men to choose to work if they want to; and if they do choose to work, they should have the same chance of finding decent jobs as men.

Despite some progress over the last few decades, gender equality in employment remains an elusive goal in all societies. Women continue to face disadvantage and discrimination in all areas of economic life. Nevertheless, while one should not assume that all women want to work, it is safe to say that women want to be given the same freedom as men to choose to work if they want to; and if they do choose to work, they should have the same chance of finding decent jobs as men.

In 2008, some 1.3 billion women were either employed or looking for work³, yet many millions of them face discrimination in access to training and jobs, are confined to certain occupations with little chance of mobility, are offered lower pay for work of equal value or are unable to earn enough income to support themselves and their families.

These types of inequalities deprive women of choices and opportunities in employment and inimical to normative considerations of fairness and justice.

The elimination of discrimination is at the heart of the ILO's mandate for Decent Work as a matter of social justice and human rights. The following 15 points give evidence on women's position in the labour market. The points demonstrate why promoting gender equality forms a core principle in line with the ILO's Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.⁴

- 1. Women face a double burden of paid work and reproductive work in the household.** The gender division of labour within the household means that women bear the greatest burden of tasks. Unpaid work in the household and in society is not recognised as being of economic value and is not usually counted in systems of national accounts. Unpaid work in the household underpins much labour market inequality. Studies from around the world indicate that family care responsibilities and lack of childcare options severely constrain women's choices in employment. Public expenditure cuts in food subsidies, health, education, transport, infrastructure, childcare and social services affect women to a greater degree than men since it increases their household responsibilities and burdens.
- 2. Poverty is increasingly feminised.** Poverty rates are measured by income and are usually taken from household surveys. Such statistics are hard to disaggregate by sex and are therefore unhelpful in understanding the gender dimensions of poverty. However, the evidence that does exist suggests that women account for a large proportion of the world's poor.⁵

3. **Women make up a large proportion of people working in the informal economy where decent work deficits are most serious.** In many developing countries the proportion of working women in the informal economy represents a larger source of employment for women than formal employment. Over 60 per cent of working women are in informal employment outside agriculture, and when agriculture is taken into account the figures are even higher.⁶ Within the informal economy women tend to be concentrated in the lower end where decent work deficits are the greatest. In general women work in the least protected and most precarious forms of work including domestic work, unpaid contributing family workers and industrial outworkers. Despite these constraints, however, evidence from many regions in the world demonstrate how women working in the informal economy are major contributors to their families' incomes, play an important role as community mobilizers and have managed to organise to improve their voice and bargaining powers.
4. **Labour force participation rates of women have been growing** over the last few decades but still remain below that of men. The smallest gaps being some 82 women to 100 men in many developed countries and the biggest gaps in South Asia with 42 women per 100 men in the labour force, and the Middle East and North Africa with 37 women to 100 men.⁷
5. Women often experience **higher rates of unemployment** even in cases where women may have higher rates of education. In 2007, some 81 million women around the world were actively looking for work. The global unemployment rate for women was 6.3 per cent compared to 5.9 per cent for men.⁸ In times of economic crisis, an inherent male breadwinner bias often results in women being the first to lose their jobs. Unemployment rates also hide the large numbers of women who may be discouraged workers or who are taking a break from the labour market for child rearing.
6. **Serious wage and income differentials exist between men and women throughout the world.** This is one of the most persistent forms of discrimination and there is little evidence that the trend is narrowing. According to the European Commission, where data on wage gaps are reliable, the pay gap in the European Union between men and women has remained virtually unchanged at 15 per cent across all sectors in recent years and has narrowed by only one percentage point since 2000.⁹ Wage gaps are not only characteristic of low-skilled occupations, where they are admittedly the widest, but can also be found in high skilled jobs such as accounting and computer programming¹⁰. Contrary to popular belief women's lower educational qualifications and intermittent labour market participation are not the main reason for the gender wage gap. Other factors such as occupational segregation, job classification systems, biased pay structures and weak collective bargaining are important contributors to unequal pay.¹¹
7. Varying levels of **direct and indirect forms of discrimination** in different countries limit women's access to productive resources including land, credit, information, technology, markets, skills and networks.

- 8. Occupational segregation and segmentation is common in labour markets** around the world. Approximately half of all workers in the world are in occupations where at least 80 per cent of workers are of the same sex.¹² This has significant costs including rigidities in the labour market, higher male-female wage gaps, underutilization of women's labour and lower levels of output and future growth rates. At the higher end of the labour market, there are fewer women in management positions and women are less likely to be in occupations that require science and technology. At the lower end of the labour market women make up the majority of those in the low-skilled, low paid occupations including domestic work, home work, agricultural work and the service sectors. Though incomplete, the data that is available suggests that women make up 80 per cent or more of home workers¹³, one of the least protected and most vulnerable segments of the labour market.
- 9. Women are migrating in greater numbers.** Faced with few opportunities in their home labour markets, increasing numbers of women are searching for temporary work beyond their borders. While both men and women may face vulnerability in the migration process, women tend to be concentrated in the 3D jobs: dirty difficult, dangerous. Some women, nevertheless, can become empowered through the migration process and have improved status once back in their home country.
- 10.** Women often face **greater barriers to starting a business** because of limited access to entrepreneurship training and capital, and lack of mentoring and network support. Women's businesses are often smaller than men's for the same reasons of limited access to productive resources. Market saturation and low productivity make for high failure rates of women's micro-enterprises – particularly in enterprises that use only women's traditional skills such as cooking, sewing and hairdressing.
- 11. Information gaps reinforce skills gaps** thus hampering employment opportunities. Not only do women face limited access to labour market information systems, they also suffer from lower rates of literacy and skills due to uneven access to education and training systems. Some 64 per cent of the world's non-literate population are women.¹⁴
- 12. Increased 'flexibility' in the labour market may have a negative impact on women in particular.** Women are often concentrated in part-time, temporary and casual work. On the one hand this may offer advantages by being able to be combined with family responsibilities, but may on the other hand be without the attendant benefits and protections of permanent status. For example, with less flexibility and possibility to work part time more women would probably be totally excluded from the labour market. The problem is therefore the lack of security which is usually associated with flexibility.
- 13.** Women from every strata of the labour market often have **less access to social security** (especially pensions) particularly due to breaks from the labour market for childrearing.

- 14. Age discrimination** constrains the choices of women in employment at both ends of the age spectrum. Young women are amongst the most vulnerable to unemployment and labour market discrimination and older women are vulnerable to poverty due to inadequate pensions and breaks in their employment history. Rates of unemployment for young women are higher overall than for young men in a number of regions, with the most pronounced differences in Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America and the Middle East and North Africa.¹⁵
- 15. Few women have been able to break the glass ceiling.** Family responsibilities, child rearing and fewer promotional opportunities have hampered many women's career development. In 2000-2002 women's overall share of managerial jobs was between 20-40 per cent in 48 out of 63 countries for which data was available. Regional variations were marked with North America, South America and Eastern Europe having a higher share of women in managerial jobs than in East Asia, South Asia and the Middle East.¹⁶ Only 10 Fortune 500 companies were run by women in 2006. One study by the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission in the UK, suggested that it would take 60 years for women to be equally represented in City boardrooms. It is important to note that it is not in only management positions in the public and private sector that women are under-represented. There are also fewer women in trade unions than men, and particularly in leadership positions.

Inequality in employment wastes human talent and innovation at an individual level and violates basic human rights.

The range and level of gaps and disadvantages in the labour market described above is broad.

Various types of discrimination impair the freedom of women to develop their capabilities and choose and pursue employment aspirations. Inequality in employment wastes human talent and creativity at an individual level and violates basic human rights.

But the rights based perspective forms only part of the picture. Focusing only on the vulnerability and discrimination that women face in employment can lend itself to views that women are only in need of assistance.

A broader view taking into account the major benefits to economies and societies when women are able seize economic opportunities is needed. The following literature from empirical studies and theoretical discussions gives weight to the efficiency rationale for gender equality.

1.2 Gender Equality in Employment as a Means of Enhancing Economic Efficiency: The Efficiency Rationale

The benefits of equality reach beyond the level of individual empowerment. Equality is not only a value and a right in itself but it is also a key to achieving many other goals ranging from economic growth to poverty reduction.

After a brief introduction this sub-section looks at how equality combats the multiple dimensions of poverty, increases productivity and growth and, briefly, at how it is good for governance.

The benefits of equality transcend the level of individual empowerment. Equality is not just an intrinsic value and a right in itself but it is **instrumental** in achieving a wide range of goals from economic growth to poverty reduction. Opening economic opportunities for women can unleash their socio-economic potential and catalyse development. Indeed historical evidence has shown that women hold the key to breaking the poverty cycle from one generation to the next.

The literature is rich with accumulated evidence that the economic empowerment of women has considerable benefits for their children and families. Increased bargaining power and decision making ability in the household as well as increased status and income of women has led to a number of 'positive externalities' such as enhanced nutritional status of families, lowered infant mortality rates and less child labour, increased educational access for children, and lowered fertility for women. But it is not just at the household that such changes can be seen. Supporting gender equality can lead to profound changes in social and economic life of a community by tapping into the productive power and creativity of at least half of the population. At a higher level equality is essential to achieving national and global development goals such as pro-poor economic growth strategies and the Millennium Development Goals. Below are some examples from the theoretical literature as well as empirical evidence of the impact that gender equality can play in poverty reduction and strengthening economies.

1.2.1 Equality combats the multiple dimensions of poverty

Where men control income it is more likely that there will be an underinvestment in children, and in girls in particular.

Studies of household consumption and expenditures have shown significant differences depending on whether income is controlled by male or female family members.

Where men control income it is more likely that there will be an underinvestment in children, and in girls in particular. However, where women have greater access to education and income, it is primarily the children who benefit.

Accumulated evidence suggests that increased earning power of women has a greater and more immediate effect on family welfare than increased earnings for men. Although indirect, these benefits have a very significant impact on economic growth by enhancing human capital formation for the next generation.

The following set of ten examples of empirical studies show how gender equality measures can have an effect on the multiple dimensions of poverty:

1. Women who brought more assets into a marriage increased their spending on children's education in Bangladesh and South Africa;¹⁷
2. In the United Kingdom, child support payments made directly to mothers resulted in increased expenditures on children's clothing;¹⁸
3. In the Ivory Coast and Ghana, it was revealed that when women's income increased for whatever reason, they spent the extra on more food for the family, whereas an increase in men's income made no significant difference;¹⁹
4. Children in Brazil experienced improved health when women controlled increased income in households;²⁰
5. According to projections by UNICEF, gender equality in family decision-making in South Asia would lead to 13.4m fewer malnourished children, a 13 per cent reduction;²¹
6. A study of pensions in South Africa showed that when grandmothers received pensions, the nutritional status of grandchildren living with them improved in ways that were not evident for grandfathers;²²
7. A study of women who had access to free child care in the shanty towns of Rio de Janeiro showed that they increased their incomes by as much as 20 per cent;²³
8. One study estimated that one year of extra education nationally reduces child mortality rates by 8 per cent, with female education being particularly powerful;²⁴
9. In Kenya, reducing the price of childcare significantly increased mother's wage employment and older girl's schooling;²⁵
10. The links between girl's education and reduced fertility are strong. The economic benefits of having fewer children are considerable. It lowers the dependency burden and increases the labour force as a proportion of the population; this in turn boosts per capita income. The estimates of the positive effect on economic growth can be significant. For example some estimates suggest that up to 2 per cent in annual per capital income growth in East and South-East Asian countries was due to the effect of this declining fertility.²⁶

1.2.2 Equality increases productivity and growth

It is surprising that the perceptions of women's economic capabilities are so limited given the profound impact that women's labour has on economies.

It is surprising that the perceptions of women's economic capabilities are so limited given the profound impact that women's labour has on economies.

Women have been playing a major role in their countries' economic development whether through export-led industrialisation, migrant remittances, pro-poor growth strategies, increased productivity and income in agriculture and the informal economy or their non-market contribution to the reproduction of the labour force and human capital investment. Enhancing women's economic capabilities has major economic benefits in terms of productivity, labour supply and human capital allocation, enhanced tax base and the growth of an economy. Some effects are direct while others are longer term. Examples of projections and empirical evidence show that:

- **Industrialization of many newly industrialized nations has often been female led as well as export led.** Many East Asian economies for example have been able to compete in the world market by relying heavily on the female labour force in export industries. This accounted for a significant share of their high growth rates.²⁷
- **Reducing women's non-market work enhances their ability to earn a remunerative income.** Women's time burdens are an important constraint on growth and development. Women's burdens in the household hamper their ability to earn a remunerative income. Changing the gender division of labour in the household to a more equitable division of tasks, and investing in labour saving technology has significant benefits for productivity. A study from Tanzania showed that when efforts were made to lessen gender constraints in the household this resulted in increases in household income by 10 per cent, labour productivity by 15 per cent and capital productivity by 44 per cent among smallholder coffee and banana growers.²⁸

Calculating women's contribution to GDP through unpaid work: an example from South Korea

South Korea used three valuation methods to measure housework performed by fulltime housewives. Calculations based on the results estimated that women's unpaid work amounted to between 13-23 per cent of GDP in 1999.

South Korea developed policy recommendations based on these results including (a) the need for insurance for full time housewives, (b) family friendly policies in the areas of family support, childcare, after-school care and equality of opportunity at work and (c) sharing of conjugal assets in cases of marital divorce.

Source: United Nations: *Integrating Unpaid Work into National Policies*, ESCAP and UNDP, New York, 2003, pp. 174-184.

- **Women's household work is invisible and under-valued yet it is a vital economic resource.** Estimates of women's reproductive labour suggest that it accounts for about one third of world economic production. Women in all countries do more unpaid work than men. In developing countries, when unpaid agricultural work and housework are considered along with wage labour, women's work hours are estimated to exceed men's by 30 per cent.²⁹ A number of international policy instruments such as the Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)³⁰ and the Beijing Platform of Action³¹ have called for the recognition of women's unpaid work and that it be given values in economic accounting, particularly in Systems of National Accounts. A key tool for capturing such information is Time-Use Surveys³² that can complement labour force surveys and have been used by a number of countries to design more equitable policies.
- **Women make a significant contribution to GDP through the informal economy.** In the same way that reproductive work is unvalued, much work in the informal economy, where women are often concentrated, is often not captured by national accounts. In West Africa, the Caribbean and Asia, between 70-90 per cent of all farm and marine produce is traded by women. Street and market stands are estimated to generate around 30 per cent of all urban wealth.³³ Some estimates suggest that the informal economy contributes around 41 per cent of non-agricultural GDP in Sub Saharan Africa. Country data suggests that in Burkina Faso, of a 36 per cent overall GDP contribution of the informal economy, 29 per cent comes from women while 7 per cent comes from men, while in Mali 26 per cent comes from women and 14 per cent from men.³⁴
- **Access to credit and other resources such as land, physical capital and skills can yield major benefits in terms of increased output.** Research has shown that measures to redistribute income and enhance access to resources can significantly raise productivity for women. In Burkina Faso, Cameroon and Kenya projections have estimated that more equal control of inputs and farm income by women and men could raise farm yields by as much as 20 per cent of current output.³⁵ Increasing women's productivity by improving the circumstances of women farmers could substantially increase food production in Sub Saharan Africa, and at the same time reduce the level of food insecurity in the region. If the results from the above countries were to hold true in other parts of Sub Saharan Africa as a whole, simply raising the productivity of women to the same level as men could increase total production by 10 to 15 per cent.³⁶
- **Where women have land and property ownership rights, they are able to generate higher income.** Land ownership for women leads to higher production from crops, trees and vegetable gardens. Women who are able to use land or houses for credit collateral are able to invest in productive income generation. In turn increased income leads to greater bargaining power within the household. Studies have shown that women with land generate much higher rural non-farm earnings that those without land.³⁷

A study in Latin America estimated that ending gender inequality in the labour market could increase women's wages by 50 per cent while increasing national output by 5 per cent.

- **Eliminating discrimination would increase national income as well as the income of women.** A study in Latin America estimated that ending gender inequality in the labour market could increase women's wages by 50 per cent while increasing national output by 5 per cent.³⁸
- **Closing the gender gap in education results in long term per capita growth increases.** One study estimates that if (a) the countries in South Asia, Sub Saharan Africa and the Middle East and North Africa had started with the gender gap in average years of schooling that East Asia had in 1960 and had (b) closed that gender gap at the rate achieved by East Asia from 1960-1992, their per capita income could have grown by 0.5-0.9 percentage points per year – substantial increases over actual growth figures. Another study estimates that even for middle and high-income countries with higher initial education levels, an increase of 1 percentage point in the share of women with secondary education is associated with an increase in per capita income of 0.3 percentage point. Both studies control for other variables commonly found in growth literature.³⁹
- **Women entrepreneurs are making in-roads in the growing services sector in both developing and developed economies.** There are large numbers of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSME) owned by women in the sector, with over half of them operating as a home-based business. Women-owned businesses also appear to be as likely, or even more likely than men-owned businesses, to export services.⁴⁰

Operationalising Pro-Poor Growth in India (OPPG) – the importance of gender

Individual case studies from the World Bank's Operationalising Pro-poor Growth⁴¹ research reveal rich information about the role of gender equality in contributing to economic growth. For example in India, those states that had high investments in education managed to reduce gender gaps which in turn resulted in higher poverty elasticity. The short term costs of education were paid off in terms of reduced poverty.

A reservation of seats for women in political office in India also resulted in increased spending on labour saving technology and human capital investment which reaped benefits in reducing women's time burdens and enabling them to participate more fully in economic growth.

Another important element was women in managerial positions. Cross regional data from India on gender gaps in access to managerial positions has been projected to have a significant effect on per capita income. By analysing the comparative growth rates of an Indian state between 1961 and 1991 researchers estimate that a 10 per cent increase in female-male ratio of managers would increase output of the State by 2 per cent. A 10 per cent increase in the female-male ratio would increase output by 8 per cent. The latter effect can be observed in both the agricultural as well as the non-agricultural sector, while the former effect is only apparent in the non-agricultural sector.

Source: S. Klasen: Pro Poor Growth and Gender: What can we learn from the Literature and the OPPG Case Studies?, Discussion Paper to the OPPG Working Group of AFD, DFID, BMZ (GTZ/KfW) and the World Bank, 2005, p.9.

- **Migrant remittances are becoming the largest source of foreign revenue for developing countries with women migrants playing a major role in contributing to their country's development.** Their contribution to their communities and the national economy cannot be overstated since they provide valuable funds for regeneration of rural communities, small scale building projects and education of siblings and children. In Sri Lanka for example in 1999, 62 per cent of remittances were from women, accounting for 50 per cent of the trade balance. Additionally, **female migrants have a positive effect on the labour market in destination countries** and contribute towards economic growth, for example by enabling other women to seek productive and remunerative employment outside the home.
- **Access to capital can have major empowering effects on women when they are able to maintain control over the funds.** Women's ability to use credit increases their household bargaining power and household income, while changing expenditure and household consumption patterns. Microfinance has become a gateway for millions of women to enter economic activities for the first time or to allow their businesses to grow. Where financial providers have targeted women, women have become visible and prominent in many communities as important income earners. Anecdotal evidence also suggests that default rates by women may be lower than men in some countries.
- The World Economic Forum's Gender Gap research suggests that **countries that do not capitalize on the full potential of half of their societies are misallocating their resources and undermining their competitiveness potential.**⁴²
- Research on economic growth and education shows that **failing to invest in education can lower the GDP.** All other things being equal, countries in which the ratio of female to male enrolment in primary and secondary schools is less than .75 can expect levels of GDP that are roughly 25 per cent lower than countries in which there is less gender disparity in education.⁴³
- **There are clear and strong links between equality and pro-poor growth.** Country level studies which looked at pro-poor growth have shown that women can make a significant contribution to economic growth and poverty reduction when opportunities are opened up for them.⁴⁴ The case studies from different income level countries show that reducing education and employment gaps for women result in higher rates of pro-poor growth. Key factors include education and skills development for girls and women as well as increased access to productive resources. The impacts can be seen in reduced fertility, export-oriented employment and access to formal employment for women.

1.2.3 Equality is good for governance

Although fragmented, there is evidence that enhancing women's rights and greater **women's participation in public life is linked to better governance in business and government**. According to the World Bank, when the influence of women in public life is greater, the level of corruption is lower. This holds true even when comparing countries with the same income.

One study of 350 businesses in the Republic of Georgia concludes that firms owned or managed by men are 10 per cent more likely to make unofficial payments to government officials than those owned or managed by women. This result was irrespective of the size of the firm, the sector, or the education level of the owner/ manager. Without controlling for these factors, firms managed by men are twice as likely to pay bribes.⁴⁵

1.3 International Instruments and National Commitments to Equality

The goal of gender equality has been well established in the international policy arena.

Through their international instruments and agreements, most international organisations have developed frameworks and goals that stress the importance of gender equality as a key means of achieving poverty reduction and development.

As members and parties to these agreements, nation states have made broad ranging commitments to promote and respect equality not only for its fundamental value but also because it is a pathway to achieving national development goals.

This section outlines a number of important international policy instruments and agreements that oblige governments to promote gender equality.

1.3.1 The ILO's Decent Work Agenda

Gender Equality cuts across the ILO's Decent Work Agenda and provides a framework for promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in the world of work.

The goal of Decent Work is to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity.⁴⁶ The ILO offers a range of international standards to promote equality in economic life.⁴⁷

The ILO has placed particular emphasis on gender equality. This is shown by the fact that two of the eight core Conventions⁴⁸, which all members states are required to respect and work towards, are

- **Convention No.100 on the Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value 1951** and
- **Convention 111 concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupations, 1958.** The latter is particularly broad ranging and covers many aspects of discrimination in working life.

These conventions are part of the ILO's 'Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work' and the other 6 core Conventions also deal with enhancing the rights of women.

All ILO Conventions and Recommendations are applicable to both men and women, however there are several that also specifically refer to promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in employment. Some of the main ones are listed in the following box.

Work and family	C103 Maternity Protection Convention (Revised), 1952 C183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 C156 Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981
Employment Promotion	C122 Employment Policy Convention, 1964 C142 Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 C158 Termination of Employment Convention, 1982
Working conditions	C089 Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1948 C177 Home Work Convention, 1996 C175 Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 C097 Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949

1.3.2 The Global Employment Agenda (GEA)

The Global Employment Agenda (GEA) is the ILO's strategy for operationalising decent work in employment within the Decent Work Agenda.⁴⁹ The GEA establishes Decent Work as a productive factor in itself and as a key strategy for productive job creation, sustainable development and poverty reduction.

Within the GEA, employment is placed at the heart of economic and social policies. There is a firm principle that there can be no trade offs between the quantity and quality of employment. The GEA seeks to show that discrimination is a violation of human rights. It also has macro economic implications (i.e. where female labour is not appropriately used or rewarded there will be less productivity and more poverty than there might otherwise be).

The GEA is composed of ten core elements⁵⁰ each with implications for the position of women in the labour force. It recognises that 'poverty is not merely income deprivation, but (includes) vulnerability arising from the absence of social protection, discrimination in labour markets, and the absence of empowerment'.

1.3.3 The Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

CEDAW was adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly. Often described as an international bill of rights for women, it is a single instrument which provides for the enjoyment of a full range of rights for all women, covering civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights. The Convention defines discrimination against women as

“... any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.”

The majority of States in the world have committed themselves to CEDAW and to taking steps to end discrimination. These include:

- to incorporate the principle of equality of men and women in their legal system, abolish all discriminatory laws and adopt appropriate ones prohibiting discrimination against women;
- to establish tribunals and other public institutions to ensure the effective protection of women against discrimination; and
- to ensure elimination of all acts of discrimination against women by persons, organizations or enterprises.

Each participating state must provide progress reports to the Convention at least every four years.

The Convention has had a positive impact on legal, constitutional and other developments in many countries and on a global level.

The Millennium Development Goals builds upon the framework of rights provided by CEDAW and provide effective benchmarks for monitoring progress and achieving concrete results.

1.3.4 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

Gender Equality is at the heart of the eight Millennium Development Goals.⁵¹ While it is specifically listed as MDG3, it is now well established that achieving the other seven MDGs will not be possible without strong commitment to addressing gender equality (MDG3) in all areas of life. There is now a shared understanding within the development community that development policies and actions that fail to take gender inequality into account and fail to address the disparities between males and female will have limited effectiveness and cost implications.⁵²

The following table lists some of the ways in which gender equality is critical to achieving all the MDGs.

Gender Equality is Critical to the Achievement of all MDGs

<p>MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender equality in capabilities and access to opportunities can accelerate economic growth; • Achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women contributes to economic growth and poverty reduction; • Equal access for women (as primary users) to basic transport and energy infrastructure (e.g. clean cooking fuels) can lead to greater economic activity; • Gender equality in interventions helps increase agricultural production since women farmers form a significant proportion of the rural poor; • Equal investment in women's health and nutrition contributes to reducing hunger and malnourishment.
<p>MDG 2: achieve univer- sal primary education</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elimination of child labour, including the girl-child, through access to education; • Increasing literacy rates for women increases their potential for economic empowerment.
<p>MDG 3: Gender Equality</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interventions to reduce the differential burden of household work on young and adolescent girls are necessary in order to allow them to attend primary and secondary schools.
<p>MDG 4&5: Reduce child mortality and improve mater- nal health</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mothers' education, income and empowerment has a significant impact on lowering child and maternal mortality.
<p>MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater economic independence for women; • Increased ability to negotiate safe sex; • Awareness about the need to alter traditional norms about sexual relations; • Access to treatment; • Support for the care function that women perform; <p>These are all essential for halting and reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS and other epidemics.</p>
<p>MDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender equitable resource ownership policies enable women (as primary users of these resources in many cases) to manage their resources in a more sustainable manner.
<p>MDG 8: Develop aglobal partnership for development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater gender equality in the political sphere may lead to higher investments in development cooperation.

Source: K. Mason: *Presentation to the Millennium Project Task Force on Primary Education and Gender Equality*, Washington, DC., 14-16 Oct. 2003, as quoted in UN Millennium Project: *Task Force 3 Interim Report on Gender Equality*, New York, 1 Feb. 2004.

1.3.5 Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP)

A gender audit of the early phase of 15 Interim PRSPs and 3 PRSPs found that fewer than half discussed gender issues in their poverty analysis, and even fewer incorporated gender analysis into the strategies and resource allocations.

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) open up political space in which to include gender issues in national poverty analysis and subsequent strategies, as well as in the process of consultation with civil society. To date the results have been mixed.

While on the one hand there has been the opportunity for greater transparency and democracy in policy making through the consultative process, on the other, the fact that many women are in unorganised sectors in many developing countries means that their voices are still not adequately heard. At the substantive level women's issues have tended to be confined to areas of social policy including health, nutrition, education and population control, with the usual underlying assumptions that women are beneficiaries of change rather than dynamic economic agents.

A gender audit of the early phase of 15 Interim PRSPs and 3 PRSPs found that fewer than half discussed gender issues in their poverty analysis, and even fewer incorporated gender analysis into the strategies and resource allocation. An important restriction on policy making for poverty reduction is that the policy framework is often rooted thinking that includes a male breadwinner bias and lack of analysis of the role of women's unpaid work as a limitation on their economic participation.

Unless gender sensitive employment strategies are placed at the heart of PRSPs the means to reduce poverty is limited. With declining employment elasticities of growth in many countries, a strong emphasis on job creation needs to be embedded within growth strategies. And, within the paradigm of the centrality of employment to poverty reduction, gender mainstreaming and affirmative action in employment strategies form a key nexus between growth, employment and poverty reduction.

1.4 Challenging Gender Misconceptions in the Policy Arena

The ILO's work with its constituents has shown that there is strong commitment to promoting gender equality. Yet there are many challenges, misconceptions and obstacles that prevent policy makers' from designing effective, gender-sensitive strategies.

It is worth highlighting some of the issues which policy makers confront in their efforts to promote equality of opportunity and outcomes in decent work for men and women.

1.4.1 The separation of economic and social: An unhelpful split

Policy makers and planners often do not see the poor, vulnerable and marginalised women as agents of social change and economic development. Rather they are often seen as in need of social assistance.

One fundamental obstacle to the design of gender sensitive interventions is the framework within which policy is designed. Policy makers and planners often do not see the poor, vulnerable and marginalised women and men as the agents of social change and economic development. Rather they are often seen as in need of social assistance. This has many implications.

Firstly this is often reflected in the institutional separation of economic and social policy, and a concomitant hierarchy amongst Ministries within a Government. If Ministries of Labour are often weak and under-resourced, Ministries of Gender and Women's Affairs or Social Welfare are often even more marginalised and have little influence over national policy agendas. Yet these institutions are primarily where equality interventions are relegated. The more powerful Ministries such as Trade, Finance or Planning have responsibility for the design of macro-economic policy and rarely are gender equality concerns mainstreamed within these institutions. A lack of capacity to conduct gender analysis within these institutions and Ministries often results in gender blind policies which are not gender neutral in impact. Indeed their effects can be profoundly negative on poverty alleviation and on women's lives in particular.

Within the separation of the economic and social are 'trickle down' assumptions in which policy is targeted to the perceived stronger economic sectors with benefits eventually reaching the more vulnerable segments of society including marginalised women. In contrast, a policy framework embedded within a Decent Work agenda and capabilities approach establishes that rather than being a by-product of growth, equality measures are instrumental in creating new opportunities and growth. Within such a framework policymakers no longer need to grapple with perceived trade offs between equity and efficiency since there are strong synergetic links between the two. (These issues are discussed in more detail in the brief on Economic policies.)

A lack of capacity to conduct gender analysis often results in gender blind policies that do not impact women and men in the same way.

1.4.2 Equality is not a luxury

Within the same paradigm separation of the economic and social, equality can easily be perceived as a luxury of high income economies. Promoting equal employment opportunity interventions is often perceived as being costly and may have to wait until an economy has reached a certain size and income level.

Again an instrumentalist view of equality which acknowledges equality's role in achieving other development goals allows policy makers to promote equality in ways that lead to multiplier effects in terms of poverty reduction and economic growth. Social

provisioning which enhances women's capabilities has not only proven to reap considerable development dividends, it is also relatively cost effective. As Amartya Sen notes in 'Development as Freedom' even low income countries can afford capability enhancing measures for women since the relative costs are less in a low income country than a high income country. Such measures are often also labour intensive with spin-off effects in terms of employment creation.

1.4.3 Equality is not counter-productive

For policy makers the issue is to assess not just the short-term costs but to bear in mind the longer term, harder to measure, but real benefits of equality. These include more efficient labour allocation, full use of human capital, and capital formation for the next generation.

Accompanying the 'equality as a luxury' perception is the view that measures to increase equality in employment may even be counter productive because of short term costs. For example, a common argument is that maternity protection is costly for employers, particularly for smaller businesses; and this may contribute to their reluctance to hire women employees.

However, equality measures are a vital component of the decent work framework as they contribute towards ensuring equality of opportunity and treatment for men and women in the world of work.

Equality measures may be costly in the short term, but they create long-term benefits to society and the economy. Through tripartite dialogue many countries have found ways of sharing costs associated with such measures.

For policy makers the issue is to assess not just the short term costs but to bear in mind the longer term, harder to measure, but real benefits of equality such as more efficient labour allocation, full use of human capital and capital formation for the next generation.

1.4.4 Mainstreaming versus gender specific – A false dichotomy

Both mainstreaming and gender specific strategies may be required and the two can support each other.

It is important that equality is mainstreamed through all major policy making Ministries and not just limited to a single Ministry or agency. It is also important to note that adopting a mainstreaming approach does not remove the need for gender specific interventions and to address direct and indirect discrimination through targeted policies and programmes.

Both mainstreaming and gender specific strategies may be required and the two can support each other. This is particularly true in contexts where serious discrimination is rampant and where there are strong socio-cultural barriers to women's economic participation in public life.

An either/or approach is usually inadequate for one of two main reasons: (1) women-specific interventions which are not integrated into the mainstream of policy and programmes may marginalise women, and (2) a purely mainstreaming approach may be unable to address the specific gaps that women face in access to information, services, and productive resources – particularly vulnerable and discriminated groups of women.

1.4.5 Understanding the structural nature of gender inequality

A key issue that touches every policy area is the inter-relationship between women's paid and unpaid work.

Developing gender responsive policy requires more than ensuring women are included in the text of policy documents or that disaggregated data is used, though these are important elements.

It requires a rigorous analysis of existing structural inequalities such as women's reproductive roles and time burdens, limited access to productive resources and employment opportunities and other forms of direct and indirect discrimination. A key issue that touches every policy area is the inter-relationship between women's paid and unpaid work. Policies that do not recognise this relationship result in an intensification of women's work as they struggle to combine care responsibilities with the need to earn an income.

Making non-market work visible and giving it an economic value so that it can be integrated into national accounts is an important step in more gender sensitive policy making.

An analysis of these structural impediments enables an understanding of how policies will impact differently on men and women and moreover can help to identify entry points to enhance gender equality and change policy priorities. This type of analysis requires reliable data that can inform policies, but given the nature of women's work, both paid and unpaid, gaining accurate information is often difficult. Labour market segmentation is apparent in all economies, with many women being concentrated in low paid, low productive 'invisible' sectors, particularly in the informal economy. The non-market activities of women which contribute to the reproduction of the labour force are even less recognised. Making this work visible and giving it an economic value so that it can be integrated into national accounts is an important step in more gender sensitive policy making⁵³. (see Economics brief on time use surveys).

A related issue is that the frameworks within which policies are designed can constrain effective gender responsive strategies. For example, orthodox economic models assume the behaviour of the individual to be rational, self-interested and market oriented. These models do not recognise differences based on sex, gender stereotyping, class, race etc or the unequal power relations that exist within the home, the labour market and wider economy.

Orthodox economic models assume the behaviour of the individual to be rational, self-interested and market oriented. These models do not recognise differences based on sex, gender stereotyping, class, race etc or the unequal power relations that exist within the home, the labour market and wider economy.

Policies based on such models result can have significantly negative consequences for the poorest and most marginalised sectors of society particularly women. Even efforts that target the poor such as pro-poor growth strategies have difficulties in conceptualising gender issues and need to make greater efforts to differentiate the poor, particularly by gender. Although poverty is multidimensional, pro poor growth strategies tend to measure poverty by income level linked to households. This is unhelpful in disaggregating gender dynamics within the household or assessing how women contribute towards economic growth. A broader conception of poverty is required such as one within a capabilities framework.⁵⁴

1.4.6 Developing Indicators for identifying gender disparities and measuring progress

One of the persistent challenges and obstacles that prevent policy makers' from designing effective, gender-sensitive strategies is the issue of development and utilisation of sex disaggregated data and the development of indicators. Indeed, gender-sensitive measurements are critical for building the case for taking gender (in)equality seriously, for enabling better planning and actions.

Measuring change means tracking the degree to which, and in what way, changes take place over time. From a gender perspective, measurements of change might address changes in the relations between men and women, changes in the outcomes of a particular policy, programme or activity for women and men, or changes in the status or situation of men and women with regards to a particular issue such as levels of poverty or economic participation.

If measurement techniques and data remain limited and poorly utilised, it will be difficult to know if current efforts are on track to achieve gender equality goals. Indeed, some aspects of gender (in)equality are difficult to define, such as the gender dimensions of poverty or women's empowerment, and some are sensitive issues such as gender-based violence. To capture the multifaceted and gendered nature of poverty, indicators must move beyond income and consumption. Gender-sensitive indicators at the national, regional and international levels enable comparisons of gender equality across countries and regions through translating complex data into accessible messages about achievements and gaps. The focus on gender equality and women's empowerment in Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3 is a milestone with regards to

the importance of gender equality to human development. In addition, there are some important initiatives in adapting international indicators, such as the African Gender and Development Index. The usefulness of such an index lie in its ability to point to changes in the status and roles of African women and men over time.⁵⁵

1.4.7 Cultural relativism versus universal human rights

Cultural relativism is the principle that an individual human's beliefs and activities should be understood in terms of his or her own culture.

The thinking behind the idea of universal human rights is that they are inalienable and that they set universal standards that do not permit violation on the basis of culture, tradition, religion or any other political, economic or social factors. Human rights are interdependent, interrelated and indivisible and there can be no selectivity in implementation.

The argument for cultural relativism is rarely explicitly used given the global acceptance of the importance of gender equality; though the idea makes its appearance in the form of socio-cultural barriers in many communities around the world. It is important to note here that changing traditional views and values that relegate women to lower status (and may even confine many within their homes) takes time and should be carefully and cautiously addressed through policies and programmes. Awareness-raising on the universality of human rights is vital.

The majority of states have set up legal frameworks and institutional mechanisms for implementing and monitoring human rights such as gender equality; but changing cultural practices takes much longer. To change gender relations in the long term it will be vital to have awareness raising campaigns, and also civil rights mobilisation, particularly by social partners.

In some cases it is not the rights based arguments that hold sway among sceptics but more economic arguments based on human capital theories and the benefits that can be reaped by families and communities.

SECTION TWO

EMPLOYMENT POLICIES CHECKLIST

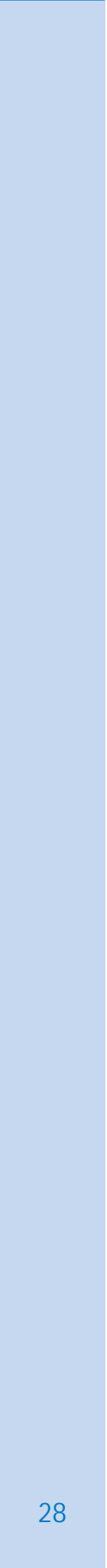
This section is built around the first five of the six⁵⁶ policy options that are listed in the 'Vision Document'.⁵⁷ Each policy option is dealt with in turn by listing in note form some key Gender Issues in one column and then some thoughts about what might be involved in Gender Responsive Policy Making in another column.

The list of Gender Issues gives answers to two questions:

- (a) What are the existing structural inequalities between men and women in relation to each policy item? and
- (b) What are the tools, strategies and responses that can be used to address these issues?

Note that where appropriate, an indication is given of (a) where there are related **Policy Briefs** in (b) the corresponding **Global Employment Agenda (GEA) Core Element Numbers (1-10)**.⁵⁸

(See Annex 2, page 63, for complete list)



Key Policy Areas described in the Global Employment Agenda 'Vision Paper':

A. Economic policies to influence the demand side

1. Macroeconomic policies
2. Financial policies
3. Investment policies and investment climate, including infrastructure
4. Trade and regional integration
5. Sectoral policies:
industrial, services, agriculture, environmental industries and services
6. Labour mobility and migration
7. Employment intensity of growth

B. Skills and employability

1. Training policies and systems
2. Technology
3. Employment services development and reform
4. Improved access to training and employment opportunities

C. Enterprise development

1. An enabling business environment: the national or cross-cutting themes
2. Value chain upgrading and clustering
3. Local economic development
4. Promoting good workplace practices
5. Targeting groups of enterprises and entrepreneurs

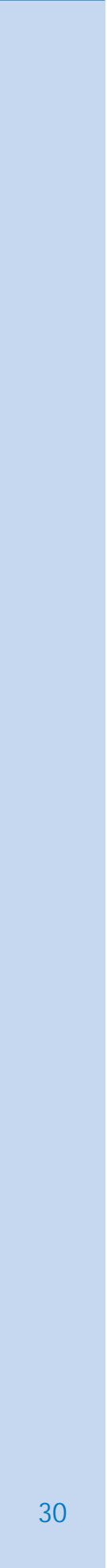
D. Labour market institutions and policies

1. Institutions and policies, including wages
2. Labour market adjustment policies and programmes
3. Passive and active labour market policies
4. Employment services
5. Industrial relations

E. Governance, empowerment and organizational capital 1-10

1. Representation, participation and advocacy
2. Freedom of association/Collective bargaining
3. Institution building
4. Social dialogue

F. Social protection



A: Economic Policies to influence the demand side

Policy Briefs: 01, 02, 03, 04

Global Employment Agenda Core Elements: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, (see annex 2)

A1: Economic Policies

Key Gender Issues

Classical economic models assume rational, self interested, market oriented behaviour. They do not recognise unequal power relations and a gender division of labour in the household, the labour market and the economy. This results in gender blind policies. Gender blind policies are not gender neutral in impact.

Macroeconomic policies do not take into account the structural nature of gender inequality that prevents the poor and marginalised women from taking advantage of opportunities to enhance income and employment. These include limited access to productive resources, land, wealth, capital, information, jobs, networks, technology.

Policies also do not take into account the linkages between productive and reproductive work. This has led to intensification of women's work as they struggle to combine care responsibilities with the need to earn an income.

Women's unpaid work is not considered of economic value, though it plays a vital role in the reproduction of the labour force.

Many of the goods and services produced by women are not included in the Systems of National Accounts including domestic work, volunteer work, subsistence production and the informal economy.

Cut backs in infrastructure and public services disproportionately affect women since it is women who must bridge these gaps in families and households.

Macroeconomic policies are decided in more powerful Ministries (Trade, Finance etc) with little gender analysis.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Economic modelling needs to take into account the gender division of labour and unequal power relations in the labour market and in the household.

All policy design needs to undertake gender analysis to examine existing structural inequalities and direct and indirect discrimination in access to productive resources.

Gender budgeting tools have been developed to investigate the differential impacts of national and local budget allocations on women and men and are a major means of designing gender sensitive policies and budgets.

Understanding the relationship between women's paid and unpaid work is the key starting point for policy development. Women's unpaid work is not considered of economic value, yet women make a tremendous contribution to global GDP through their reproductive work and volunteer and, community work.

Time Use surveys are being used by a number of countries to give a monetary value to women's unpaid work and can help with data collection on the care economy. Attempts are being developed to integrate information from Time Use Surveys into Systems of National Accounts.

National budgets need to prioritise areas which can benefit women economically and socially – for example infrastructural development such as roads, sanitation, health, clean water, education, child care can have a major impact in reducing women's domestic burdens etc.

Institutional separation of economic and social policies is particularly detrimental to women since they are often not seen by policy makers as agents of economic transformation but as passive recipients in need of social assistance.

Male breadwinner bias in policy making assumes that women are only secondary income earners in households and therefore of less importance.

Women are underrepresented in dialogue on macroeconomic priorities and policies such as PRSPs. Although PRSPs are required to undertake extensive civil society consultations, the fact that women are often concentrated in the informal economy with little organisation or representation often means that their voices are not heard in developing macroeconomic priorities which can benefit them.

Tight monetary and fiscal policies often lead to a deflationary bias –slow growth and high unemployment- which harms women more than men. Fiscal austerity in which budget deficits are seen as inflationary result in cuts in public spending which hurt women disproportionately, given the gender division of labour in households.

Minimalist state strategies harm women. Role of the state is critical in the development process – including in allocating resources, providing infrastructure, education, training, promoting particular sectors, labour standards, regulating capital flows to avoid capital volatility and in active labour market policies.

Capacity building of key ministries such as Trade, Finance etc is needed in gender analysis.

The collection of gender disaggregated data is particularly crucial for policy development.

Efforts need to be made to increase dialogue and representation of women in macroeconomic policy making. Organisation of the informal economy is particularly important since women may be concentrated there and are concentrated in the segments that are least protected, most invisible and most vulnerable.

A refocus away from excessive emphasis on inflation targeting and towards other gender equitable goals including employment generation and targeted investment to strategic sectors to stimulate productivity will benefit women.

A2: Financial policies

Key Gender Issues

Financial policies are often deeply embedded within neo-liberal economic thinking, with its emphasis on inflation targeting, privatisation and minimal state expenditures as the route to economic growth. Costs in terms of employment can be high, and poverty reduction efforts can be undermined.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Inflation targeting and economic growth policies have often failed to generate sufficient employment to reduce poverty. Pro-poor growth (PPG) strategies can enable poor women to become both agents and beneficiaries of economic growth. PPG policies are most effective when they combine measures to improve equality in employment, education and training, access to productive resources and promote greater bargaining power within the household.

Fiscal Policies

Direct taxation (as opposed to indirect taxation) tends to benefit the poor and women more directly.

Taxing basic goods and services through VAT and other taxes disproportionately negatively affects the poor, particularly poor women

Failure to provide tax rebates to covers social costs of women entering the labour market such as childcare may also act as a disincentive to labour force participation.

Employment disincentives may exist for women because of joint income tax structures that disadvantage the spouse who earns the least.

High taxes may act as a disincentive for informal economy operators to register their holdings.

National Budgets

Cuts in social services shift the burden on to households and on to women in particular.

Privatisation may result in intensification of women's unpaid work, particularly in relation to healthcare and transport.

User-fees for public services may increase gender inequality, since women are often primarily responsible for related health, education needs of households.

Women often bear the brunt of national debt servicing: cuts in subsidies, public goods and services increase women's domestic burdens.

Cuts in public expenditures in infrastructure – clean water, sanitation, roads, transport – impact more heavily on women.

Fiscal Policies

Taxation (fiscal) and income transfers are important redistributive mechanisms for women, in the context that women carry the burden of the care economy.

Progressive taxation regimes benefit poorer women rather than flat taxation

Exempting basic goods and services from VAT taxes benefit the poor and women

Tax rebates on retirement savings schemes need to take into account the disparities between men's and women' labour force participation and the number of periods women are out of the labour market for child birth and rearing;

Fiscal and financial sector development plans should address social development objectives and incorporate gender concerns in the allocation and mobilisation of domestic financial resources for economic and social development.

Tax incentives and amnesties may be a way to register informal enterprises, including those owned by women.

National Budgets

National budgets should take into account development goals including gender equality (gender budgeting) and not just monetary and financial goals.

Gender budgeting provides tools to analyse the different impacts on men and women of national and local financial allocations, they are being used extensively to formulate more gender sensitive and transparent budget allocations.

Gender analysis is required in revenue raising, expenditure plans and reviews and provision of public goods and essential services to reduce gender inequality in the allocation of public resources.

Participation of civil society in expenditure reviews which also link resource allocation to overall development goals can have a significant beneficial impact on the poor and women.

There is often little public consultation in determining budget allocations. Even where consultations exist, women may not be in organised sectors to have voice and representation.

Gender analysis is rarely used to analyse differential impacts of budget allocations on women and men.

National budgets are often narrowly focused on monetary and financial goals.

Gender responsive budget audits can be used to determine which groups benefit from fiscal policies and whether there are biases against the poor and disadvantaged.

Broad based consultations in the formulation of financial policies will lead to greater transparency, democracy and voice for women.

A3: Investment policies and investment climate, including infrastructure

Key Gender Issues

Female employment often grows with expanded trade. Trade may increase women's labour force participation, but impact negatively on leisure time and the reproductive economy.

There may be trade offs between new employment opportunities and the quality of jobs resulting from increased investment.

Female labour is particularly attractive for Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). This may be a result of lower wages and less likelihood that women will organise into trade union activities. There are current debates on the relationship between trade and wage equality. Seguino⁵⁹ argues that FDI is attracted to the undervalued wages of women and that FDI worsens the gender wage gap. Competition between low-wage economies for trade and investment reduces women's bargaining power. The World Bank on the other hand argues that increased trade leads to greater equality.

Global competition and efforts to attract FDI and expand trade may compromise core labour standards such as freedom of association and equal pay.

Women may be concentrated in sectors where capital is volatile and highly mobile.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Incentives packages to attract FDI should not compromise core labour standards including freedom of association, equal remuneration and non-discrimination.

Efforts need to be made to ensure women are given opportunities when new markets open and should not be excluded on the basis of being small operators.

Women need opportunities for skills upgrading to meet demands of FDI, and in cases of job losses from capital flight.

Policies need to address gender based constraints such as childcare and domestic responsibilities so that women are able to take advantage of new opportunities from expanded trade.

States need to recognise the changing employment relationships resulting from new production structures. Labour law needs to be able to adapt to new definitions of workers so that the most vulnerable including women are covered by labour codes.

Women may not be able to benefit from expanded investment and trade due to (a) gender biases that lock them out of particular markets and (b) lack of access to productive resources including credit.

Women's family responsibilities and unpaid work burdens may also act as barriers to taking advantage of employment and income opportunities from expanded trade.

Trade liberalisation may reinforce gender segregation in the labour market

Although opportunities for self-employment grow with increased trade, in some cases disguised wage workers are made responsible for the costs of production and non-wage costs while being dependent on a contractor or supplier. Labour law may be limited in scope to cover these types of workers.

Changing production structures have impacted heavily on women. The growth of subcontracting and homeworking has seen women being located at the lowest end of global value chains. Complex networks of subcontracting make identifying the firm responsible for wages and conditions difficult.

States need to be able to provide regulatory frameworks for investment which are able to address the increase in triangular employment relationships and multiple layers of subcontracting. States have an important role in determining who is ultimately responsible for wages, working conditions and social protection within global value chains.

States need to develop policies to address home-workers who are often left unprotected under labour law. Policies need to include strategies for social protection, organisation and representation, monitoring of conditions and occupational health and safety.

States should not take a deterministic view of trade liberalisation. There is often space to shape trade relationships through strategic alliances and negotiations by social partners. There may be opportunities to attract FDI on the basis of respect for labour standards (for example 'Better Work programme').

A4: Trade and regional integration

Key Gender Issues

Women are often concentrated in manufacturing and export oriented industries. Trends have seen male to female substitution of labour as conditions and technology improve (especially in Export Processing Zones).

FDI is particularly attracted to female labour. Mixed picture for women's employment growth related to trade – some empowerment particularly at household level but also poor working conditions, lack of representation, low wages and job insecurity.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

As above, States need to provide incentives for FDI but not make trade-offs with regard to core labour standards.

States have a role to play in regulating capital flows to avoid capital volatility and flight and protect the domestic economy. A policy mix of both liberalisation and protection are often necessary in different situations. Regulation of FDI rebalances the bargaining power of workers and can promote productivity growth as firms rely less on low wages for competitive advantage.

Trade liberalisation can weaken the role of the state and its ability to enforce labour standards, especially related to gender equality.

Trade liberalisation and global competition can lead to increased informalisation of labour.

International trade draws in more women (export industries) but sometimes results in decline of women's role in local economy and local food production.

Serious job insecurity exemplified by post Multi Fibre Agreement (MFA) situation – high unemployment for women and relocation based on wage spiral downwards.

Unfair competition between developing country farmers including women, and heavily subsidised developed country farmers leading to drops in global prices for agricultural commodities and the impoverishment of rural areas in developing countries.

Increased competition from cheap imports for Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) can threaten the viability of female-led enterprises.

Increasing role of Multinational Corporations (MNC) in food and agriculture creates serious livelihood survival issues for women farmers since women dominate in food production in many countries. Additionally privatisation and cash crop export agriculture affects women's access to land.

Burden of adjustment to economic shocks and dislocation resulting from trade liberalisation are borne by women.

Time poverty, limited access to productive resources, and unpaid reproductive work limit women's ability to take advantage of new opportunities arising from expanded trade.

For sectors which are unable to compete globally States need to ensure that there is adequate retraining of women and not just men (e.g. post MFA textiles). Active labour market policies should target women in these sectors in the same way that has been done for declining male dominated sectors such as shipping and mining.

Policies need to take into account the gender differentiated impact of trade policies and the way in which they also interact with existing discrimination in the labour market and access to productive resources. A range of trade impact tools exist which can analyse impacts on gender equality, the environment etc

Promotion of specific sectors with the greatest export potential should be given necessary support in terms of fiscal and financial policies and be linked to social objectives such as greater gender equality.

A5: Sectoral policies: industrial, services, agriculture, environmental industries and services

Key Gender Issues

Women are concentrated in the agriculture and services sectors, but limited access to productive resources limits productivity and output. Many service sector jobs have serious decent work deficits, some, such as domestic work, may not be covered under the labour law. Even in skilled occupations such as nursing, job status, pay and working conditions may be poor.

Women's work in some of these sectors may not be given monetary value thus undervaluing their economic contribution particularly in subsistence agriculture and in services such as domestic work.

Occupational segregation is common in all these sectors, limiting women's employment options and choices.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Ensuring women's access to productive resources such as land, credit etc can enhance productivity and economic growth. This is particularly the case in the agricultural sector.

States should extend regulatory frameworks and labour laws to address lack of labour protection – women are often concentrated in sectors which are not afforded protection under the labour law.

Policies in all these sectors should analyse gender segregation and the impact that women's household responsibilities have on their employment opportunities.

Interventions in the agricultural sector need to take into account women's food provisioning role.

Occupational segregation needs to be addressed through broad ranging measures such as working towards pay equity, reforming education and training structures to encourage gender balance, incentives for girl's schooling, public awareness raising to encourage women into non-traditional work etc.

A6: Labour mobility and migration [Policy Brief 04]

Key Gender Issues

Migration is increasingly feminised, (women make up nearly half of all temporary migrants) often due to high unemployment and labour market discrimination in home countries.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Receiving-countries need to allow freedom of movement, ensure labour law protection for unprotected occupations, encourage organisation of migrant women, enforce contracts, provide social security entitlements, forge bilateral agreements, and facilitate the use of safe and efficient remittance transfer systems.

Low-skilled women are particularly in demand in domestic work, entertainment and other unprotected sectors. However, for some skilled migrant women de-skilling is an issue, with the work they undertake not matching with their qualifications and experience.

Although migration can facilitate greater labour force participation of women in high income countries, the development of global care chains means that the costs of migrant women taking over the care responsibilities of women in developed countries are borne by the vulnerability of migrant women, and the children and families they leave behind.

Sending-countries often rely only on temporary migration to solve unemployment problems, particularly of women.

Remittances are starting to exceed FDI and are a big earner of foreign exchange. There is anecdotal evidence that women remit more. High levels of remittances should not cause relaxation about state responsibilities for gender-sensitive employment creation.

There are few linkages between remittances and productive investments at home. Evidence suggests that women are more likely to spend remittances on family welfare. (however in the long term this can be seen as investment in human capital).

There is a brain drain and social cost for home communities, particularly through the loss of skilled women in traditional female occupations such as health and education. This in turn impacts in deterioration of services for women in developing countries, intensifies their domestic care burdens, and works against poverty alleviation strategies.

Mixed picture: increased empowerment and economic independence for many migrant women but also high degrees of vulnerability including (because of irregular migration status), lack of labour law protection, exploitative recruitment practices, little social protection, race and class issues, and risks of trafficking.

Sending-countries need to address the root causes of the migration of low skilled women in order to make it a genuine choice and attract back those who have left. These causes include poverty, labour market discrimination, high unemployment of women, low skills base and discrimination in access to productive resources. Sending countries should develop gender sensitive employment policies rather than relying on migration to resolve unemployment problems at home.

Sending-countries should provide incentives and other supports to returning migrants to enable them to reintegrate economically and socially. Information and incentives for enterprise development, skills upgrading and the productive use of remittances are important.

Pre-departure training needs to include strategies to invest remittances productively and not just on consumption.

Social remittances – the ideas, skills and experiences generated in the migration experience – can be an important means of transforming gender relations when women return to their home communities. Policies need to be put in place to enhance these types of remittances

Co-development strategies enable receiving countries to meet their labour market needs without compromising human rights and labour standards, and for sending-countries to avoid using migration as a last resort to solve unemployment and poverty, particularly of low-skilled women.

Linking MDGs and PRSPs to migration policies can reduce recruitment from at-risk sectors such as healthcare and education in low income countries.

Regulated migration policies are key to ensuring a win-win scenario for both sending and receiving countries. The ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration provides guidance on regulation.

A7: Employment intensity of growth [Policy Brief 03]

Key Gender Issues

Employment elasticities of growth have been declining in many countries. Economic growth on its own has not been enough to generate sufficient employment unless it is within a pro-poor employment-centred growth strategy.

Gender equality is a key element of pro-poor growth strategies. Investment in education for girls and increased income in the hands of women results in more bargaining power in the household, less child labour, more schooling for children, better nutrition, health and lowered infant mortality, and reduced fertility. Each of these factors has a positive impact on per capita income and development and the formation of the future human capital.

KILM⁶⁰ research has found that female employment elasticities of growth have grown more on average than men's. Potential reasons include: female catch-up rates in terms of labour force participation, greater sensitivity of female employment to economic growth, whereby women suffer more than men in times of economic downturn, or that women are engaged in lower productivity, lower wage jobs.

Research shows that women have gained through export-oriented production and in the services sector, though the quality of the jobs has been poor. Women have been major economic players in these sectors in newly industrialised countries. FDI has also shown to be attracted to female labour, partly for reasons of lower wages, less organisational potential and gender constraints. Where jobs evolve into higher skilled labour such as in some export processing zones, men tend to replace women.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

While recognising that economic growth in itself may not produce more jobs, States can take measures to increase the employment intensity of growth and ensure that the poor, and women in particular are able to take advantage of new income and job opportunities, through pro-poor strategies, human resource development policies, enhancing access to productive resources, encouraging entrepreneurship development and skills development.

Important elements in integrating women into pro-poor growth may include⁶¹: (a) the growth strategy should be based on rising demand for female labour (e.g. export industries with complementary access to education for females), (b) removal of gender gaps in education to enable women to seize opportunities in employment, (c) improving access to productive assets, (d) policies to improve female bargaining power in the household (e.g. educational access, reproductive health, access to productive resources, etc.).

Gender targets can be set for employment intensive public works schemes.

Employment intensive infrastructural schemes can reap double dividends for women: job creation as well as putting in place the infrastructural support (sanitation, roads, irrigation systems) which can ease women's unpaid care burdens and time poverty.

Labour saving technologies in the home, childcare and other supports are essential to enable women to earn better incomes.

Numerous studies show how gender inequality reduces economic growth. Putting productive resources in the hands of women increases productivity and output, both directly and indirectly through future human capital formation.

Women may be excluded or self-exclude from employment intensive infrastructural development and guarantee schemes unless special measures are in place to ensure their participation (childcare, type of wage structure, transport etc).

Limited access to productive resources limits women's ability to take advantage of new employment opportunities resulting from increased trade.

Attracting FDI (which is often female intensive) should not be at the expense of core labour standards including equal pay, freedom of association and collective bargaining. Some countries have been able to attract FDI on the basis of respect for standards (e.g. Post MFA Cambodia).

Since women may be concentrated in sectors where capital is highly mobile, opportunities should be put in place for women to re-train and upgrade skills to meet changing labour market demands (see Policy Briefs on active labour market policies and on skills training).

Self-employment has enormous employment growth potential. Both a mainstreaming and a gender specific approach may be appropriate to encourage women into self-employment and MSEs (see Policy Brief on enterprise development).

B: Skills and Employability

Policy Briefs: 05

Global Employment Agenda Core Elements: 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, (see annex 2)

B1: Training policies and systems

- Vocational training policy review and development
- Management of training institutions and systems
- Investment in training
- Core work skills
- Workplace learning, on-the-job training and apprenticeship

Key Gender Issues

Women make up two thirds of the world's non-literate population. Gender discrimination in access to education starts from the earliest stages of life in many societies and limits the choices and opportunities of women in the labour market.

Gender gaps in education and skills development reduces the productivity of the current and future generations, impairs human capital formation and reduces the pool of talent available in the labour market.

Occupational segregation persists, constraining women's choices and income opportunities. Approximately half of all workers in the world are in occupations where 80 per cent are of the same sex. The gender division of labour is reflected in the economy with women often concentrated in the services sector and other traditional female domains.

Labour market segmentation also persists with many women being in low-skilled, low paid and low productive sections of the labour market.

Women miss out on training opportunities because of lack of information, lack of time due to household responsibilities/ childcare, gender stereotypes, and cultural barriers.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Upgrading skills for women brings together the equity, efficiency and anti-poverty rationales thus making full use of a country's human capital.

International policy debates have recognised that enhancing women's capabilities leads to long term benefits for a society and an economy – reduced fertility, lower child labour and infant mortality, increased school enrolments, and greater decision-making power for women in the household etc.

There is a need for an explicit gender equality agenda in training from the level of employment and training policies, to institutional strengthening, down to curricula, training materials, training delivery, training of trainers, training venue and facilities.

Affirmative action strategies are often necessary to bridge gaps in access to skills training. Training institutions need to make special efforts to reach women trainees including through hiring female trainers, and ensuring that male trainers undergo gender training.

Lower literacy rates, lack of information and cultural barriers can also be obstacles to upgrading skills for women. Training delivery may also not take into account women's domestic responsibilities.

Curricula may be riddled with gender stereotypes, and vocational training may be organised along typical gender lines. Post training support may not be available, or women may not be able to take advantage of it because of time poverty.

Some attempts in promoting non-traditional skills from women through technical cooperation have been unsuccessful because of severe cultural constraints, lack of market access, harassment and community hostility.

Women are often at the centre of the mismatch in supply and demand in the labour market, and often do not have the skills in ICT, technology and sciences that are highly valued in the private sector. Vocational training institutions may also be unable to effectively analyse labour market demand.

Women are less likely to benefit from life long learning and adapting to changing labour market needs because of their reproductive responsibilities.

Many graduate women do not see self employment as a viable option and continue to seek work in the diminishing public sector.

Women are less likely to have access to apprenticeships and on-the-job training opportunities, since employers are reluctant to hire women because of the perception that they have only a conditional attachment to the labour market due to their family responsibilities.

Vocational training institutions have an important role in breaking down labour market segmentation and gender segregation through: (a) promotion of non-traditional skills development, (b) setting targets for women's participation in all courses, (c) evaluating demand for labour in the context of increased trade and FDI, (d) promotion of high end skills development and other supply side measures. Vocational training institutions should also make greater links with the private sector to evaluate changing demand for skills and also to encourage employers to hire young women as apprentices and trainees.

Vocational training and skill development institutions need to address issues of childcare and re-schedule training at times suitable for women to ensure their participation.

Curriculum review is often necessary to eliminate gender bias and stereotypes.

Public awareness campaigns can encourage non-traditional skills development and address gender stereotypes.

Women's access to non-traditional occupations should be facilitated with adequate support but with caution in the context of severe cultural and religious constraints. Gaining community support is beforehand is key to the success of such strategies.

Post-training support should be given, linking women with employment services, Business Development Service (BDS) providers, microfinance institutions etc.

Indicators can be developed to measure achievements in gender equality in vocational training and measure gaps between men and women.

Equal employment opportunities policies at national and enterprise level are key to enabling gender equality in recruitment, promotion and skills development.

B2: Technology

Key Gender Issues

The gender digital gap (in access and abilities to ICT) limits women's opportunities to participate in the knowledge economy. Gaps are particularly common for women in rural areas and poor communities. Domestic responsibilities, cultural constraints and economic inequality also impede access.

Where women are involved in employment based ICT use it tends to be at the lower end. Telemarketing, and call centres have created more jobs for women but with low pay, status and little opportunity for advancement.

Vocational training centres often maintain gender stereotypes and make little effort to encourage females to enrol in ICT and science courses.

Women may not have the required literacy (women make up two thirds of the world's non-literate population), language and information skills to make full use of ICT.

Women have less disposable income to purchase new technologies

Lack of sex disaggregated data on ICT use limits policy development.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Career guidance and curriculum development can encourage women into ICT occupations.

Vocational training institutions can set targets to attract women to ICT and science courses.

States need to promote literacy of girls and women so that they have the necessary skills base to make use of ICT. Incentives schemes have proven to be successful in encouraging girls into these areas.

Public employment services and training centres can promote women's access to ICT particularly in rural areas where women are concentrated.

Given women's time constraints, information should be geared towards women's economic activities. For example ICT can be an important means for enhancing market access or learning about new crop techniques etc.

ICT has the potential to reach women who have not been reached by other media.

ICT can place greater control in the hands of women in areas such as skills development, new learning technologies, access to market and other information. It can also add value to women's existing knowledge in the traditional spheres. It can be a means of ending women's economic isolation.

Innovations show that women's inventions tend to have direct application to improving family and community well-being and efficiency.

ICT makes time and distance irrelevant, thus opening up opportunities for women (e.g. call centres).

Open source software can help ensure that information becomes a global public good available for all.

B3: Employment services development and reform

- **Reform of public employment services**
- **Role of private employment agencies**
- **Career guidance**

Key Gender Issues

Women are often at the centre of the mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market, particularly in the highly skilled end. They also often have less access to labour market information systems which could broaden their choices and visions.

Women are less likely than men to access public employment services and research suggests that men benefit more from the allocation of jobs and training opportunities than women in Public Employment Services (PES).

ILO School to Work Transition Surveys (SWTSS)⁶² have shown that young people rely almost entirely on informal networks to find jobs, and in many cases young women have less access to these networks, contributing to young women having the highest unemployment rates of any group.

Both public and private employment agencies can contribute to reinforcing gender segregation and segmentation in the labour market.

Private recruitment agencies may sometimes be implicated in the exploitative recruitment of women or may not prepare women adequately for the assigned work, particularly in cases of temporary migration.

Career guidance can reinforce occupational segregation by channelling girls into traditional skills and sectors, and not into higher skilled, higher demand occupations.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Public Employment Services (PES) can play a key role not only in matching supply and demand in the labour market, but also in eliminating discriminatory practices, ensuring social justice, fairness and diversity in the labour market. Training of PES staff, ensuring greater quality service to women clients, developing gender sensitive impact indicators are key to this process.

PES can set targets to attract female job seekers.

PES can play a central role in promoting equal employment opportunities including detecting gender discrimination, sexual harassment, and promoting equal access to employment, training and promotion.

PES staff should be trained in gender awareness and the vulnerability of women particularly in the low skilled categories, migrants etc

Career guidance should address occupational segregation and encourage girls and women to participate in non-traditional occupations and skills.

Both public and private employment services need strengthening to be able to provide specific job search assistance for women and employment counselling. Their outreach also needs to be expanded given that many women are concentrated in rural areas.

Special efforts need to be made in supplying up-to-date labour market information and business related information such as opportunities for specialised training, continuing education and job placements as well as information about rights and required skills and training.

ILO Convention 181⁶³ provides guidance on the monitoring and regulation of private employment agencies including in gender sensitive strategies.

B4: Improved access to training and employment opportunities

- Youth
- Women
- Informal economy workers
- Persons with disabilities and other vulnerable groups

Key Gender Issues

Women cut across all the above groups making up a large proportion of the most vulnerable in each category.

Vulnerability of women at both ends of the age spectrum (higher unemployment for younger women, and older women face poverty due to lack of social protection and age discrimination in employment).

There is segmentation even within the informal economy, with women located at the lower end, where the decent work deficits are the most serious. They are likely to be in economic activities characterised by low technology, low skills, low productivity and income, hazardous work, and lack of representation and voice.

Gender discrimination intersects with other forms of discrimination including disability, ethnicity, class, and age. This results in many layers of disadvantage in the labour market.

Gender discrimination in access to education starts from a very young age in some societies and limits the life chances and employment opportunities of large numbers of women and is often continued in the next generation.

Disabled women are less likely to be in paid employment than disabled men, they also have lower educational outcomes and incomes than disabled men.

Across all of these groups, women's unpaid work in the private sphere limits opportunities to upgrade skills and training. Interventions must address these constraints.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Policies to promote youth employment should be based on equal opportunities and eliminating labour market discrimination for young women (who have the highest rates of unemployment overall).

Governments need to address age discrimination for younger and older women through legislation, programmes and public awareness campaigns.

Policymakers should recognise that women are not a homogenous group, (there are different levels of vulnerability according to race, class, disability etc). Nor should women be seen as passive victims, in need of social assistance. Women are dynamic agents capable of transforming communities and economies when given opportunities.

Addressing decent work deficits in the Informal Economy needs a comprehensive approach with strong gender dimensions in areas such as governance and rights, economic upgrading, organisation and mobilisation.

Both a mainstreaming and affirmative action approach may be appropriate for different groups of disadvantaged workers.

C: Enterprise Development

Policy Briefs: 06, 07, 08, 09, 10

Global Employment Agenda Core Elements: 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, (see annex 2)

C1: An enabling business environment: the national or cross-cutting themes

- Governance and political conditions
- Infrastructure
- Regulations and the cost of doing business
- Entrepreneurship
- Access to finance

Key Gender Issues

Discrimination and limited access to productive resources: land, credit, skills, technology, networks, information, reduce the productivity and output of women owned enterprises.

Women in micro-enterprises often set up supply-driven operations rather than demand driven (often linked to occupational segregation). The failure rate of these enterprises is high due to market saturation, gender segmentation (women are concentrated in female oriented enterprises such as food vending, hairdressing etc) and lack of access to technology and skills training.

High registration costs, transaction costs, high taxes and complicated procedures may act as disincentives for women in MSEs to join the formal economy.

Women are often unable to access essential services such as Business Development because of lack of access to information, lack of legal literacy, limited time due to family responsibilities etc.

There may be problems of labour substitutions, with girls taking on their mother's domestic responsibilities, thereby missing out on schooling when their mothers start enterprises.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

To increase productivity gender discrimination in access to training, skills development, credit, land, information, technology, social networks and other productive resources needs to be addressed through legislation, policies, mainstreaming of institutions and gender specific action.

Tax incentives, access to Business Development Services, market access and information can enable women's businesses to grow.

Information on entrepreneurship needs to be accessible to women, including non-literate women.

Simplified registration procedures and lowered transactions costs and targeting of women for these policies may act as incentives for registration of enterprise in the informal economy.

Promotion of MSEs in developing countries should target women but also address the problems of labour substitution where women's domestic responsibilities are often transferred to older daughters at the expense of their schooling. Issues such as childcare, labour saving technology in the home, changing the gender division of labour in households and providing incentives for girls' education can address these problems.

Access to microfinance services

Access to financial services is not a reality for all. Often, people with low incomes or the very poor are excluded because they lack collateral or the services offered do not meet their needs. This pertains in particular to women because they tend not to have land and property rights.

Although microfinance is an important element in enabling disadvantaged people to access financial services to smooth consumption and provide a resource for income generation, a focus on small scale microfinance institutions consigns typically makes clients remain in the informal economy.

Microfinance institutions need to address issues of control over the resources that clients receive, in particular over loans. Although a loan may be in a woman's name her husband may use it for non-productive purposes, leaving her in debt.

The very poor might need other services than loans. A range of financial products needs to be available for them including savings, micro insurance, and money transfers.

The poorest of the poor are often excluded from access to finance; a large group among them are women.

The failure rate of micro enterprises may be high despite having access to financial services because of limited access to productive assets, information, markets and lack of training and skills. In general, women are less literate and educated and thus more vulnerable.

Access to microfinance services

Access to finance is critical for women and men to smooth consumption and provide a resource for income generation. An additional income source can lead to increased decision making power in the household and better access to health and education for children. Finance is particularly empowering where women retain control over the funds and the returns of the funds rather than giving it to the husband. However, there may be a labour substitution effect for daughters.

Finance is not enough on its own; it needs to be accompanied by training, market access, skills development, mentoring support, etc.

Increasing access financial services to disadvantaged groups and mainstreaming access to formal financial markets makes good economic sense: both, men and women are increasingly participating in the economy. In addition, women have proven to have higher repayment rates. Women are often better savers leading to greater savings mobilisation. Improving women's and men's access to financial services is a key element in poverty reduction and economic growth.

Savings schemes are essential for the poor since they are particularly risk-averse and may not wish to take loans. Increasing access to finance should be accompanied by other enterprise-friendly strategies such as addressing discrimination in access to resources, strengthening business development services, simplifying registration procedures, tax and other incentives.

Microfinance should be seen as one element in a poverty reduction strategy rather than the central plank. Microfinance should not engender complacency about state responsibility for providing public goods and services and regulatory frameworks, and gender sensitive employment-centred economic policies.

Key Gender Issues

Women are often concentrated in the lowest segments of global value chains – as subcontracted workers and homeworkers – some of the least protected, lowest paid and most vulnerable workers.

Although there may be more opportunities for self-employment, in some cases women are in reality disguised wage workers. Women may be in a dependent position with regard to the sub-contractor though they are also made responsible for the costs and risks of production, thus reducing their earnings overall.

Labour law often struggles to catch up with ambiguous employment relationships within value chains, leaving many women without basic protection.

The lead firms responsible for wages and working conditions may be hidden in complex chains of subcontracting, thus reducing the bargaining power of women.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Value Chain analysis needs to integrate gender analysis in order to identify where women are located within a global value chain and where there may be opportunities to upgrade their position.

Value chain analysis has become a powerful tool in mapping subcontracting chains and identifying responsibility for wages and working conditions. It is being used in ethical trading initiatives and corporate social responsibility initiatives to improve working conditions in global production, often in female dominated sectors.

Countries are reviewing and amending labour law to extend their scope to cover workers in disguised employment relationships such as women homeworkers in global production chains. ILO Convention 177 provides guidance on minimum standards for homeworkers.

Key Gender Issues

Local Economic Development (LED) may not necessarily be empowering for women if they are embedded in traditional communities, since LED is based on the engagement of local actors.

There may be few incentives for local actors to respect national regulatory frameworks and norms for equality.

Some LED approaches separate the 'economic' and the 'social'. They target higher levels of economic activity for growth and relegate women to community development or social development (i.e. women, esp in the informal economy, are not seen as viable economic actors.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

LED needs to be inclusive of women as well as the informal economy and recognise the importance of women as strong economic agents when given opportunities.

Each stage of the LED process should have gender sensitive indicators to monitor gender impacts

Stakeholder discussions must include representations of marginalised women.

While promoting LED, States need to provide regulatory frameworks such as labour standards and measures to promote gender equality.

Stakeholder dialogue is an important component of the LED approach but women may not be represented and organised in their communities leaving them with little voice in dialogue.

LED assumptions of community homogeneity and commonality of interests may impede analysis of unequal power relations in a community and the gender division of labour in the household and labour market.

If there are strong socio-cultural constraints in the community, it may be appropriate to organise separate workshops for women where they can articulate their economic needs and problems, understand their legal rights and entitlements, and develop their own organisations.

C4: Promoting good workplace practices

Policy Brief 10

Key Gender Issues

Because of the gender division of labour in the household, women in particular struggle to balance family responsibilities with employment and income generation.

Women may experience harassment including sexual harassment in the workplace.

Women often experience indirect discrimination with regard to hiring, training and promotion.

Women are less likely to be in senior management positions.

Inadequate maternity leave and childcare acts as disincentives for women's labour force participation.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Family friendly policies (eg flexible working hours and parental leave) help establish a balance between work and family, and also lead to greater productivity, worker loyalty and less absenteeism.

Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) policies should be established in hiring, promotions, and training. A full range of EEO policies is needed to encourage diversity and quality in human resources.

Maternity leave and childcare arrangements are important for women's continued involvement in work.

Anti sexual harassment policies should be in place and rigorously enforced.

'Glass ceiling' issues should be addressed with regard to promotions and management positions. Gender imbalances in senior positions can be addressed through a targeted approach, and opportunities for career development.

Family friendly policies can encourage both women and men to be involved in household responsibilities and enable greater labor force participation of women.

C5: Targeting groups of enterprises and entrepreneurs Policy Briefs 05, 06, 07, 08, 09

- **Small and Medium Enterprises (SME)**
- **Multinational Enterprises (MNE)**
- **Cooperatives**
- **Entrepreneurs in the informal economy**

Key Gender Issues

The failure rate of female run enterprises is high due to lack of access to productive resources, technology, social networks, skills, Business Development Services, credit, mentoring and market access. Many enterprises are also supply-pushed rather than demand-driven. There is need to ensure that women are able to identify real income opportunities, beyond their traditional skills base in often market saturated sectors.

Female run enterprises may result in daughters giving up schooling to take over mother's domestic responsibilities (labour substitution effect).

The lower end of the informal economy where decent work deficits are the greatest is often where women are in the majority.

Evidence suggests that employer discrimination in hiring of women in the private sector is common.

SMEs struggle to comply with maternity and other protections, which often acts as a disincentive to hire women.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Enterprise development support needs to take into account women's reproductive work in the home. Specific measures need to be in place to ensure children continue to attend school when their mothers operate enterprises.

Women need specific training in market feasibility and analysing demand for skills and services in their communities. Training needs to enable women to think beyond their traditional skills and avoid sectors which are already over-crowded.

Corporate codes of conduct can be an important way of promoting gender equality issues but should not be at the expense of collective bargaining.

Awareness raising amongst employer's organisations is needed to overcome discrimination in hiring of women. Tripartite talks and social dialogue are key to addressing the short term costs of hiring women (e.g. in maternity protection).

Promotion of cooperatives is an effective way for women to combine productive assets, market information, technology, equipment and ensure economies of scale. It also increases their bargaining power and voice.

D: Labour market institutions and policies

Global Employment Agenda Core Elements: 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 (see annex 2)

D1: Institutions and policies, including wages

Policy Brief 11

Key Gender Issues

Labour market institutions stand at the centre of international debates regarding labour market rigidities and employment protection. Mounting evidence suggests however that employment protection laws, unemployment benefits, trade unions and collective bargaining, rather than causing rigidities can smooth the functioning of an imperfect market and lead to greater efficiencies. For women, as a particularly disadvantaged group within the labour market, these institutions play a vital role in ensuring equity, social justice and diversity in the labour market, as well as eliminating discrimination.

KILM research has shown that employment elasticities for women have grown at a greater rate than for men. This could be because of (a) a 'catch-up' in terms of labour market participation, (b) greater sensitivity of female employment to economic growth whereby women suffer more in economic downturns, or (c) that women are engaged in lower wage, lower productivity jobs. The research also showed that employment rigidity (protection) is insignificant for women, though this could be because of lack of enforcement of employment protection for women.

The gender wage gap is one of the most persistent forms of discrimination and is common in every country.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Strong labour market institutions such as employment protection, trade unions and collective bargaining, and wage policies can redress many of the disadvantages and discriminations that women face in the labour market.

New forms of rights such as the right to training, parental leave, reversible part-time/full time schemes enable greater labour force participation by women.

As a core labour standard, all countries are obliged to work towards equal pay, although no country has yet reached that goal. Convention 100 provides for various and flexible strategies to work towards equal remuneration and not just legal remedies.

Minimum wage can help women in particular, since even when it is not respected it provides a benchmark for wages

D2: Labour market adjustment policies and programmes

Key Gender Issues

Women's labour force participation is increasing globally but quantity is not matched by job quality.

Labour market discrimination can occur at all stages of pre entry and post entry: this is based on educational/skills access, recruitment, job allocation, training, wages, promotion, breaks due to family responsibilities, etc.

Women suffer greater unemployment than men in most countries, and are often the first to lose their jobs during financial crises, transitions, privatizations, etc.

Gender division of labour is common within the labour market – occupational segregation limits opportunities and does not make full use of human capacities; Segregation is both horizontal and vertical.

Flexibility in the labour market can be particularly harmful for women (casualisation of contracts, lack of social protection, etc.)

There are dual labour markets in many developing countries (formal and informal economy) with different levels of protection and security. Women often concentrated in informal enterprises.

Labour surplus countries have a high proportion of unemployment or underemployed (and often low skilled) women who have no option (in the absence of gender sensitive employment creation policies) but to seek temporary migrant work.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Various labour market adjustment policies can be used to improve the employment prospect of women.

These include:

(a) wage subsidies for employers willing to recruit women and give them on the job-training;

(b) earnings supplements to enable women to re-enter the labour market;

(c) opening up apprenticeship opportunities including in non-traditional sectors, self employment assistance and training (credit, training, tax incentives);

(d) loans and grants for skills training;

(e) public-private partnerships for job creation and placement;

(f) ensuring employment guarantee schemes are gender balanced;

(g) ensuring that women are targeted in employment intensive infrastructural schemes;

(h) providing healthcare and social protection incentives for job creation schemes;

(i) improving women's access to labour market information systems and changing demands.

In many cases both a mainstreaming approach to existing interventions and services is required as well as gender specific measures.

Key Gender Issues

In many countries women have higher unemployment rates than men. Unemployment rates also disguise the high levels of discouraged workers and working poor who are women, as well as those taking breaks from the labour market for family reasons. Many women are considered 'inactive' rather than unemployed and hence not eligible for active labour market protection.

Occupational segregation and labour market segmentation confine many women's employment choices to low-skilled low paid work that is linked to the gender division of labour.

Women have fewer opportunities for upgrading or changing their skills to meet changing labour market demands.

Global competition and the drive for greater flexibility erodes job security for women in many sectors. Women are often concentrated in sectors with high capital volatility and mobility.

Active labour market interventions have been required in many post-Multifibre Agreement (MFA) countries.

Active labour market policies such as guarantee schemes may target only male breadwinners.

Lack of access to information channels, lack of legal literacy and their smaller role in the public sphere may mean that some women are not aware of entitlements to passive income supports.

Women are less likely to have transferable employability skills and are less likely to seek formal help in their job-search.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Active labour market policies (ALMP) should be targeted not only to male dominated sectors but also female dominated sectors such as textiles and garments, particularly in the context of the end of MFA.

ALMP need to take into account household responsibilities which restrict training opportunities.

ALMPs can be an important means of breaking down occupational segregation and labour market segmentation by opening up training opportunities to low-skilled women.

Employment Guarantee Schemes can successfully attract women's participation by: explicit recruitment of women by quotas, setting the wage rates to attract women workers, providing transportation to work sites when they are far away, providing childcare arrangements (these can be low cost such as hiring older women to care for children), payments in food often also attract women given their food provisioning role. Despite cultural perceptions to the contrary, women engage in hard physical labour and should therefore not be restricted from public works employment. Where the scheme is targeted towards heads of households or to only one household member, women may be denied access or self-select out. Where community based organisations recruit, women may have a greater chance of participation, though this is not clear (see G. Swamy box policy brief 11).

There is need to strengthen women's capabilities (skill training, employability issues, etc.) to match labour market demand.

Information about ALMPs needs to be made accessible to women, particularly in non-literate populations.

D4: Employment services

Key Gender Issues

The gender division of labour is a hindrance to the efficient functioning of the labour market. Research suggests that men benefit more from the allocation of jobs than women in Public Employment Services (PES), and that PES can reinforce occupational segregation and gender segmentation in the labour market.

ILO School to Work Transition Surveys have revealed that both young men and young women are unlikely to make use of PES but use informal channels to find jobs. PES are not reaching young women in particular.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Public Employment Services (PES) can play a key role not only in matching supply and demand in the labour market, but also in eliminating discriminatory practices, ensuring social justice, fairness and diversity in the labour market. Key to this process are (a) training of PES staff, (b) ensuring greater quality service to women clients, and (c) developing gender sensitive impact indicators.

Employment and career counselling are important public employment services in a number of countries. Gender sensitivity is particularly important in this area, and special efforts should be made to counteract occupational stereotyping. Public employment services can also work with educational institutions to promote gender equity in school counselling.

PES can contribute to reducing the gender pay gap through carrying out job evaluations and ensuring job descriptions enable women and men to be hired at the same levels for the same job.

Various strategies can be used by PES to break down gender inequality.

These include:

- (a) working with local employers to ensure gender neutral recruitment;
- (b) breaking down occupational segregation by working with job-seekers;
- (c) ensuring gender balance in activation measures delivered by PES; and
- (d) using both mainstreaming and gender specific approaches.

Because public employment services are often the implementing agencies for active and some passive labour market policies, they are instrumental in carrying out the recommendations in the previous section.

D5: Industrial Relations

Key Gender Issues

Examples of gender blindness in Industrial Relations (IR) include:

- (a) the dominance of male-dominated industries as the basis of IR research;
- (b) the treatment of women but not men as gendered subjects;
- (c) the failure to recognise the importance of gender as a factor in IR;
- (d) the focus on systems and structures (rather than processes through which gendered relations come into play); and
- (e) lack of analysis of how gender relations impact on industrial relations (the separation of the personal/gender relations from workplace practices).

Women are under-represented in employers and workers organisations, particularly in leadership positions.

Collective bargaining teams, negotiation teams and seminar participants in trade unions and employers groups tend to be male dominated. Not enough women are trained in these skills.

Employers organisations have lagged behind in setting up gender mainstreaming policies and women are underrepresented in institutions such as chambers of commerce.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Many trade unions have set up women's committees to ensure women's concerns are addressed.

Women need to have greater representation in trade unions and employers groups including in leadership and negotiation teams, meetings and training. Collective bargaining can be a key means of progressing on equality issues and addressing the concerns of women.

Social partners can set targets for women's participation in tripartite negotiations and train more women in collective bargaining.

E: Governance, empowerment and organizational capital

Global Employment Agenda Core Elements: 1 – 10 (see annex 2)

E1: Representation, participation and advocacy

Key Gender Issues

Different gender roles mean that men and women are likely to have different perceptions and experiences related to good governance.

Lack of representation of women due to their position in the informal economy, and the time burdens in the private sphere.

Women are concentrated in sectors where they are 'invisible', isolated and unorganised. In some cases, their ability to form unions and exercise freedom of association are actively prevented.

Women in some of the most precarious and vulnerable occupations are unprotected by basic labour law coverage and may not even be recognised as workers.

Changing patterns of production can disguise employment relationships and prevent women from exercising their rights in certain occupations.

Corruption and harassment from suppliers, authorities and contractors impede the ability of poor women to earn a remunerative income.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Good governance recognises that different groups within society have competing interests and needs. Good governance requires transparency in public affairs, access to information, accountability in the private and public arena, free press, freedom of association and expression, the ability to participate in public institutions, rule of law, and legislation based on human and labour rights principles.

Women are important for good governance. World Bank studies show less corruption where women are managers.

A good governance framework for equality would include (a) equal employment opportunity policies, (b) affirmative action, (c) equal pay for work equal value, and (d) policies to encourage equal shares in childcare unpaid work.

Rigorous efforts are required to ensure that women in all occupations are recognised as workers and have rights under labour law.

E2: Freedom of association/Collective bargaining

Key Gender Issues

Women are underrepresented in trade unions and employer's structures particularly in leadership positions. Women need training in collective bargaining negotiation.

Women may be concentrated in sectors where freedom of association is restricted.

Lack of organisation of women in certain sectors prevents collective bargaining.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Collective Bargaining (CB) agreements have the ability to go beyond entitlements in the law regarding gender equality.

CB is a key mechanism for ensuring gender equality at work.

When women are able to organise they can be a powerful force for change even amongst the most vulnerable occupations. Examples include SEWA, SEWU, HomeNet, Streetnet, among others.

E3: Institution Building

Key Gender Issues

Due to the gender division of labour in society and the household, women may be under-represented in the mechanisms, processes and institutions for articulating and negotiating differences in power and resources.

Lack of accurate information and disaggregated data may hinder gender analysis and gender mainstreaming efforts.

An either/or approach to gender mainstreaming and gender specific interventions in institutions carries risks of not being able to meet the needs of women.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Building good governance institutions enables different competing interests to articulate their needs, negotiate for change, overcome differences in power, and exercise their legal rights. Ensuring gender sensitive indicators for good governance institutions is essential to ensure women's rights and interests at every level are being articulated. Gender equality indicators, decent work indicators and gender sensitive pro-poor indicators for good governance are being developed to capture the different experiences and needs of women and men.

Gender mainstreaming and gender specific interventions may both be required and are complementary. To re-build institutions to meet women's needs it is critical to ensure (a) gender balance at staffing levels, (b) adequate resources for gender mainstreaming, and (c) analysis of impacts.

Greater participation is linked to institutional change – once the proportion of women in institutions reaches 30 per cent and above the presence of women triggers institutional transformation.

E4: Social Dialogue

Key Gender Issues

Women tend to be underrepresented in social dialogue structures including employers and workers organisations.

Women's interests may not be represented in social dialogue processes.

Strategies for gender responsive policy making

Social dialogue is a key means to progress on equality in employment issues, including addressing areas such as sexual harassment, maternity leave, equal pay, equal opportunities for recruitment and promotion, family friendly policies, entitlement for contracts, and part-time and temporary workers.

ANNEXES

1. Conventions and Recommendations related to Gender Equality and Employment
2. The Ten Core Elements of the Global Employment Agenda
3. The Six Key Policy Areas in the 'Vision Document'
4. Glossary



Annex 1: Conventions and Recommendations related to Gender Equality and Employment

Key Conventions on Gender Equality^a

- The C100 Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and Recommendation, 1951 (No. 90);
- The Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), and Recommendation, 1958 (No. 111);
- The Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981, (No. 156) and Recommendation, 1981 (No. 156);
- The Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), and Recommendation, 2000 (No. 191).

Key Employment Conventions^b

- The Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122), and Recommendation, 1964 (No. 122);
- The Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142), and Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195);
- The Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159), and Recommendation, 1983 (No. 168), and the Vocational Rehabilitation (Disabled) Recommendation, 1955 (No. 99);
- The Job Creation in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises Recommendation, 1998 (No. 189);
- The Promotion of Cooperatives Recommendation, 2002 (No. 193).

The Eight ILO Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work^c

Freedom of association and collective bargaining:

- The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87);
- The Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98).

Elimination of forced and compulsory labour:

- The Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29);
- The Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105).

Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation:

- The Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100);
- The Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

Abolition of child labour:

- The Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138);
- The Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).

^a For a full Resource Guide on gender equality in the world of work, see <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/support/lib/resource/subject/gender.htm#key>.

^b For a complete list of instruments of particular relevance for the work of the Employment Sector, see <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/download/vision-e.pdf>, p. 22.

^c For more on the ILO's Programme for the Promotion of the Declaration, see <http://www.ilo.org/declaration/lang-en/index.htm>.



Annex 2: The ten core elements of the Global Employment Agenda (March 2003)

The 24th Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly in 2000 recognized

“the need to elaborate a coherent and coordinated international strategy on employment to increase opportunities for people to achieve sustainable livelihoods and gain access to employment, and in this connection support the convening of a world employment forum by the International Labour Organization in 2001”.

In response to this, in 2003, the ILO Governing Body adopted the Global Employment Agenda (GEA)^d whose principal purpose is to place employment at the heart of economic and social policies, and contribute to the efforts to promote Decent Work.

The GEA’s ten core elements^e seek to promote employment, economic development and social justice. Some of them refer to the economic environment; others to the labour market. The former refer to conditions that make employment creation possible. They require analysis because they are factors that cause change and have to be framed by appropriate policies. This is the case, for example, of trade and investment and of technology, all causes of both job creation and job destruction. The role of the ILO is to examine these forces of change and the policies of organizations and actors involved in these areas in their relation to employment.

Other core elements relate to labour market policies and institutions for employment promotion and can be addressed not only by analysis and promotional activities, but also by technical cooperation projects and concrete advisory services.

Policies proposed to implement the ten points of the Agenda also fall into two other categories: those that can be addressed by national policies and those that need a global policy response, given that the role of global governance requires more serious consideration and coordination. The ongoing debate within the multilateral system over the appropriate global policies for greater stability in financial markets needs to continue, as the challenge of financial stability is beyond the total ability of any one nation alone to address. Through the global alliances envisaged by the Agenda, the ILO proposes to examine the employment consequences of policy choices and options of the international financial and other institutions.

^d ILO: *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work, “Vision” document*, Geneva, 2006.

^e See more on the GEA, at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/>.

The ten core elements of the Global Employment Agenda are:

The elements addressing the economic environment are:^f

1. Promoting trade and investment for productive employment and market access for developing countries
2. Promoting technological change for higher productivity and job creation and improved standards of living
3. Promoting sustainable development for sustainable livelihoods
4. Macroeconomic policy for growth and employment: a call for policy integration

The elements addressing the labour market are:

5. Promoting decent employment through entrepreneurship
6. Employability by improving knowledge and skills
7. Active labour market policies for employment, security in change, equity and poverty reduction
8. Social protection as a productive factor
9. Occupational safety and health - synergies between security and productivity
10. Productive employment for poverty reduction and development

^f For more details on these ten core elements see the ILO's "Review of the core elements of the Global Employment Agenda" at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/gb/docs/gb286/pdf/esp-1.pdf>.

Annex 3: The six key policy areas in the Vision Document (ILO 2006)

Following discussions it was decided that the Global Employment Agenda's (GEA) ten core elements⁹ be better grouped so as to make them more manageable and operational for country level work. The ILO's "Vision Document"^h thus sets out six key policy areas each of which is broken down into sub-areas. These are listed below along with an indication of the GEA Core Elements with which each major group is associated.

(A) Economic Policies to influence the demand side (GEA Core Element 1,2,3,4,5,10)

- Macroeconomic policies
 - Financial policies
 - Fiscal policies
- National Budgets
- Investment policies and investment climate, including infrastructure
- Trade and Regional Integration
- Sectoral policies: industrial services, agriculture, environmental industries and services
- Labour mobility and migration
- Employment intensity of growth

(B) Skills and employability (GEA Core Element 2,3,5,6,9)

- Training policies and systems:
 - Vocational training policy review and development
 - Management of training institutions and systems
 - Investment in training
 - Core work skills
 - Workplace learning, on-the-job training and apprenticeship
- Technology
 - Improving training delivery through ICT
 - Improving the capacity to innovate and invest
 - Improving access to ICT to reduce the skills gap
- Employment services development and reform
 - Reform of public employment services
 - Role of private employment agencies
 - Career guidance
- Improved access to training and employment opportunities
 - Youth
 - Women
 - Informal economy workers
 - Persons with disabilities and other vulnerable groups

⁹ See Annex 02.

^h See more at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/download/vision-e.pdf>.

(C) Enterprise development (GEA Core Element 2,3,5,6,9,10)

- An enabling business environment: the national or cross-cutting themes
 - Governance and political conditions
 - Infrastructure
 - Regulations and the cost of doing business
 - Entrepreneurship
 - Access to finance (Credit)
- Value chain upgrading and clustering
- Local economic development
- Promoting good workplace practices
- Targeting groups of enterprises and entrepreneurs
 - Small to Medium Enterprises (SME)
 - Multi National Enterprises (MNE)
 - Cooperatives
 - Entrepreneurs in the informal economy

(D) Labour market institutions and policies (GEA Core Element 5,6,7,8,9,10)

- Institutions and policies, including wages
- Labour market adjustment policies and programmes
- Passive and active labour market policies
- Employment services
- Industrial relations

(E) Governance, empowerment and organizational capital (GEA Core Element 1 - 10)

- Representation, participation and advocacy
- Freedom of association/ Collective bargaining
- Institution building
- Social Dialogue

(F) Social Protection (GEA Core Element 7,8,9)

Glossary

Active labour market policies (ALMPs) are government programmes that intervene in the labour market to help the unemployed find work. ALMPs include (a) efforts to generate employment through employment intensive public works schemes, (b) hiring subsidies, (c) the promotion of SMEs and self-employment, (d) vocational training and retraining, and (e) skills and employability development programmes.

Affirmative action Specific actions in recruitment, hiring, upgrading and other areas designed and taken for the purpose of eliminating the present effects of past discrimination, or to prevent discrimination

Capability approach The key idea of the capability approach is that social arrangements should aim to expand people's capabilities – their freedom to promote or achieve valuable beings and doings. An essential test of progress, development, or poverty reduction, is whether people have greater freedoms.

Care work Providing for the needs of well-being of another person. Encompasses care provided to the elderly, the sick and the disabled in care institutions or in the home of the person requiring care. **Informal care** of the **care economy** is unpaid care work performed by family members and friends.

Clusters An industry cluster is a grouping of related industries and institutions in an area or region. The industries are inter-linked and connected in many different ways. Some industries in the cluster will be suppliers to others; some will be buyers from others; some will share labour or resources. The important thing about a cluster is that the industries within the cluster are economically linked, they both collaborate and compete and are, to some degree, dependant upon each other; and ideally, they take advantage of synergies.

Collateral is a security pledged for the repayment of a loan.

Conditionality is typically employed by the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank or a donor country with respect to loans, debt relief and financial aid. Conditionalities may involve relatively uncontroversial requirements to enhance aid effectiveness, such as anti-corruption measures, but they may involve highly controversial ones, such as austerity or the privatization of key public services, which may provoke strong political opposition in the recipient country. These conditionalities are often grouped under the label 'structural adjustment' as they were prominent in the structural adjustment programs following the debt crisis of the 1980s.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR), is a concept whereby organizations consider the interests of society by taking responsibility for the impact of their activities on customers, suppliers, employees, shareholders, communities and other stakeholders, as well as the environment. This obligation is seen to extend beyond the statutory obligation to comply with legislation and sees organizations voluntarily taking further steps to improve the quality of life for employees and their families as well as for the local community and society at large.

Credit is the provision of resources (such as granting a loan) by one party to another party where that second party does not reimburse the first party immediately, thereby generating a debt, and instead arranges either to repay or return those resources (or material(s) of equal value) at a later date. The first party is called a creditor, also known as a lender, while the second party is called a debtor, also known as a borrower.

Decent work The primary goal of the ILO today is to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. Operationally Decent work is related to four pillars: Rights, Employment, Social Protection and Social Dialogue.

Disaggregate to break the whole into smaller parts based on defined characteristics.

Discrimination An intentional or unintentional act which adversely affects employment opportunities because of race, color, religion, sex, handicap, marital status, or national origin, or other factors such as age (under particular laws).

Discouraged Workers Those who have tried to find work in the past and are willing to take on a job but have given up on looking for work because they feel, or know, that nothing suitable is available. They are excluded from calculations of the labour force, together with groups such as retired people or people who choose to take on home or childcare duties.

Disparity The state of being different or dissimilar.

Employment elasticity is measured by how many jobs are created for every unit of economic growth.

Enterprise one of the factors of production, along with land, labour and capital. A company organized for commercial purposes; business firm.

Entrepreneur somebody who has the idea and enterprise to mix together the other factors of production to produce something valuable. An entrepreneur must be willing to take a risk in pursuit of a profit.

Externality An economic side-effect. Externalities are costs or benefits arising from an economic activity that (a) affect people other than the people engaged in the economic activity, and (b) are not reflected fully in prices.

Fiscal policy attempts to influence the direction of the economy through changes in government taxes, or through some spending (fiscal allowances). The two main instruments of fiscal policy are government spending and taxation.

Flexicurity involves combining flexibility and security. It involves a combination of easy hiring and firing (flexibility for employers) and high benefits for the unemployed (security for the employees). It was first implemented in Denmark in the 1990s. The term refers to the combination of both labour market flexibility in a dynamic economy as well as security for workers. The Government of Denmark views flexicurity as involving a "golden triangle" with a "three-sided mix of (1) flexibility in the labour market combined with (2) social security and (3) an active labour market policy with rights and obligations for the unemployed".

Gender While 'sex' refers to the biological differences between males and females, gender describes the socially-constructed roles, rights and responsibilities that communities and societies consider appropriate for men and women. We are born as males and females, but becoming girls, boys, women and men is something that we learn from our families and societies.

Gender bias refers to the ways some jobs are made to be advantageous or disadvantageous based on sex. This type of bias can show up at any step along the way in a pay equity programme.

Gender gap In the context of economic inequality, gender gap generally refers to the systemic differences in the social and economic roles and wages of men and women, or boys and girls. There is a debate to what extent this is the result of gender differences, lifestyle choices, or because of discrimination.

Gender Mainstreaming Taking into account the different experiences and needs of women and men in all activities. It includes gender specific action where necessary. Taking women's concerns and experiences central to the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres. Its goals are gender equity through empowerment of women as well as men. Gender mainstreaming includes (a) prioritization of women's empowerment because of the much greater discrimination against women, (b) not only increasing household incomes but also increasing women's economic, social and political empowerment, (c) challenging the root causes of gender inequality not just basic needs, and (d) linking a grassroots participatory process with macro-level advocacy and lobbying.

Gender predominant jobs Jobs which are associated with one sex or the other, based on quantitative or qualitative criteria.

Glass ceiling The term refers to situations where the advancement of a qualified person within the hierarchy of an organization is halted at a particular level because of some form of discrimination, most commonly sexism or racism.

Household work It is a fact that all women work. They perform dual roles of production and reproduction. Their work goes unrecognized because they do a variety of jobs daily that do not fit into any specific 'occupation'. Most of them are involved in arduous household work. Although women work for longer hours and contribute substantially to family income, they are not perceived as workers by either the women themselves or data collecting agencies and the government. To understand the issue of occupational health problems of women, it is necessary to make a detailed study of the women's work in terms of the actual activity undertaken, the hours of work and the extent of remuneration received.

Human capital is the quality of labour resources (the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the workforce) This can be improved through investments, education, and training.

ILOLEX is a trilingual database containing ILO Conventions and Recommendations, ratification information, comments of the Committee of Experts and the Committee on Freedom of Association, representations, complaints, interpretations, General Surveys, and numerous related documents.

Income transfer A non-compensatory government payment to individuals, for example for welfare or social security benefits.

Inflation targeting is a monetary policy in which a central bank attempts to keep inflation in a declared target range —typically by adjusting interest rates. The theory is that inflation is an indication of growth in money supply and adjusting interest rates will increase or decrease money supply and therefore inflation.

Informal economy The informal economy covers economic activities that are neither taxed nor monitored by a government; and often not included in that government's Gross National Product (GNP); as opposed to a formal economy. The term informal economy refers to all economic activities by workers and economic units that are – in law or in practice – not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements. Informal economy workers include wage workers, own account workers and contributing family members. Work in the informal economy is characterized by small or undefined work places, unsafe working conditions, low level of skills and productivity, irregular incomes, long working hours and lack of access to information market, finance and training.

Instrumentalist view Where pragmatism and contextual feasibility are more important than abstract, theoretical purity.

Male Breadwinner Bias is the bias that comes from assuming that the nonmarket sphere of social reproduction is articulated with the market economy of commodity production through a wage which is paid a male breadwinner and which largely provides for the cash needs of a set of dependents (women, children, elderly people, sick people). "Male breadwinner" bias constructs the ownership of rights to make claims on the state for social benefits (access to services, cash transfers) around a norm of full-time, life-long working-age participation in the market-based labor force. Those whose participation does not fit this norm typically have lesser rights, which they can frequently only exercise as dependents on those who do fit the norm. The result has been the exclusion of many women from entitlements, and the reduction of the scope of the entitlements of many others, making women dependent upon men, especially during periods of women's lives when they are intensively involved in taking care of children and elders, and when they themselves are elders.

Market fundamentalism The fundamentalist element of this position is an unshakable belief that free markets maximize individual freedom, are the only means to economic growth and that society should adhere to their specific ideas of progress. "Fundamentalists" believe that markets tend towards a natural equilibrium, and that the best interests in a given society are achieved by allowing its participants to pursue their own self-interest.

Microfinance refers to the provision of financial services to poor or low-income clients, including consumers and the self-employed. The term also refers to the practice of sustainably delivering those services. More broadly, it refers to a movement that envisions "a world in which as many poor and near-poor households as possible have permanent access to an appropriate range of high quality financial services, including not just credit but also savings, insurance, and fund transfers."

Monetary policy is the process by which the government, central bank, or monetary authority of a country controls (i) the supply of money, (ii) availability of money, and (iii) cost of money or rate of interest, in order to attain a set of objectives oriented towards the growth and stability of the economy.

Neo-liberalism Broadly speaking, neoliberalism seeks to transfer control of the economy from state to the private sector. The definitive statement of the concrete policies advocated by neoliberalism is often taken to be John Williamson's "Washington Consensus", a list of policy proposals that appeared to have gained consensus approval among the Washington-based international economic organizations (like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank).

Passive labour market policies Government measures for employment support and social benefits including income support, unemployment insurance and labour legislation, social security schemes and maternity protection provisions.

Pay equity Implementing the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value, free from discrimination based on sex.

Pay equity programme A planned and structured process whose goal is to achieve pay equity.

Pro-poor growth is growth that is good for the poor. There are two main approaches to defining pro-poor growth. The absolute definition of pro-poor growth considers only the incomes of poor people. How 'pro-poor' growth should be judged by how fast on average the incomes of the poor are rising. The relative definition of pro-poor growth compares changes in the incomes of the poor with changes in the incomes of people who are not poor. Growth is 'pro-poor' if the incomes of poor people grow faster than those of the population as a whole. (*Source* = "What is pro-poor growth and why do we need to know?")

Remuneration Payment or compensation received for services or employment. This includes the base salary and any bonuses or other economic or social benefits that an employee or executive receives during employment.

Reproductive work work that reproduces the labour force on a daily basis – see household work and care economy.

Residualist approach The residualist approach targets public assistance at the neediest, leaving most families to purchase whatever care they can afford.

Social Provisioning The term "social provisioning" can be used to describe an emerging methodology in Feminist economics. Its five main components are: (a) incorporation of caring and unpaid labor as fundamental economic activities; (b) use of well-being as a measure of economic success; (c) analysis of economic, political, and social processes and power relations; (d) inclusion of ethical goals and values as an intrinsic part of the analysis; (e) and interrogation of differences by class, race-ethnicity – and other factors.

Social Safety nets lessen the effects of poverty and other risks on vulnerable households. Safety nets can be private or informal, such as family members in different households supporting each other through hard times with cash, food, labour or housing. Formal programs, run by Governments, Donors or NGOs, provide additional income or in-kind transfer programs, subsidies, and labour-intensive public works programs. Programs to ensure access to essential public services, such as fee waivers for health care services, and scholarships for schooling costs are other examples of safety nets.

Structural adjustment See 'conditionality'.

Supply chain The resources and processes that are involved in acquiring components and raw materials and includes delivery of end products to final consumers. It includes the activities of sellers, distributors, manufacturers, wholesalers and any other service providers and contributors to the buyer's decision to buy.

Time Use Survey A Time Use Survey is a statistical survey that aims to report data on how, on average, people spend their time. Among other things, time use surveys can reveal the amount of household work and voluntary work performed beyond paid jobs.

Trickle down Of or relating to the economic theory that financial benefits provided to big businesses and wealthy investors will pass down to profit smaller businesses and consumers.

Value chain analysis A value chain is a chain of activities. Products pass through all activities of the chain in order and at each activity the product gains some value. The chain of activities gives the products more added value than the sum of added values of all activities. The value chain categorizes the generic value-adding activities of an organization. The "primary activities" include: inbound logistics, operations (production), outbound logistics, marketing and sales (demand), and services (maintenance). The "support activities" include: administrative infrastructure management, human resource management, information technology, and procurement.

Washington consensus The term 'Washington Consensus' was initially coined in 1989 by John Williamson to describe a set of ten specific economic policy prescriptions that he considered to constitute a "standard" reform package promoted for crisis-wracked developing countries by Washington D.C based institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank and the U.S. Treasury Department. Subsequently the term has come to be used in a different and broader sense, as a synonym for market fundamentalism.

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