International Labour Office




Resource guide on **Gender issues** in **employment** and **labour market** policies

Working towards women's economic empowerment and gender equality

Resource guide on Gender issues in employment and labour market policies

Working towards women's economic empowerment and gender equality

Naoko Otobe

Employment and
Labour Market Policies Branch

Employment
Policy
Department

First published 2014

International Labour Office
Otobe, Naoko
Resource guide on gender issues in employment and labour market policies: working towards women's economic empowerment and gender equality / Naoko Otobe; International Labour Office, Employment and Labour Market Policies Branch, Employment Policy Department. - Geneva: ILO, 2014

ISBN 9789221283621; 9789221283638 (web pdf)

International Labour Office; Employment and Labour Market Policies Branch, Employment Policy Dept.
gender equality / women workers / employment / employment policy / role of ILO
04.02.3

ILO Cataloguing in Publication Data

Design and printing by the International Training Centre of the ILO, Turin - Italy

Preface

The primary goal of the ILO is to contribute, with ILO member States, to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people, a goal embedded in the ILO Declaration 2008 on *Social Justice for a Fair Globalization,*[1] and which has now been widely adopted by the international community.

The comprehensive and integrated perspective to achieve this goal are embedded in the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122), in the Global Employment Agenda (2003), in the Global Jobs Pact (2009) in response to the 2008 global economic crisis, and in the Conclusions of the recurrent discussion on Employment (2010).

The Employment Policy Department (EMPLOYMENT) is fully engaged in global advocacy and in supporting countries placing more and better jobs at the centre of economic and social policies and of inclusive growth and development strategies.

Policy research, knowledge generation and dissemination are essential components of the Employment Policy Department's action, and its publications include books, monographs, working papers, country policy reviews and policy briefs.[2]

Azita Berar Awad
Director
Employment Policy Department

1 See http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---cabinet/documents/genericdocument/wcms_099766.pdf [accessed on 9 December 2013].

2 See http://www.ilo.org/employment [accessed on 9 December 2013].

Foreword

The objective of this resource guide is to strengthen the capacities of ILO constituents and development policy makers in the formulation of employment policies. There is a well-known proclivity among many policy-makers and practitioners to treat employment as a "residual" of economic growth. However, since the 2008 global financial and economic crisis, and the subsequent high rates of unemployment and underemployment in many countries, job creation has stepped to the forefront of policy priorities. As a result, renewed attention is being given to gender and labour market issues.

The world has seen increasing levels of labour-force participation among women during the last 20 years; however, even in countries where women's labour force participation has increased; the quality of employment has not necessarily improved. Women continue to be over-represented in precarious, atypical, and informal employment, particularly when compared to men's patterns of employment. This is because women continue to face difficulties in having equitable access to productive employment opportunities, and while some progress has been achieved, the attainment of gender equality in the world of work remains a major challenge.

There is ample evidence that improving women's employment prospects can have not only positive effects on women's economic empowerment, but engender broader economic and social benefits as well. Yet, gender concerns have not been fully integrated with mainstream policies. Hence, there still is a need to engage in advocacy and capacity-building on how to integrate gender issues into the formulation, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of employment and labour market policies.

This guide will be of use to ILO experts, as well as others, in their collective quest to embed gender dimensions in national policy frameworks.

Iyanatul Islam
Chief
Employment and Labour Market Policies Branch

Contents

List of figures, tables and boxes

Figures:

Tables:

List of boxes:

Acknowledgements

This guide has been developed by Naoko Otobe of the ILO. The author thanks Simonetta Cavazza, Mariangeles Fortuny Corredo, Sukti Dasgupta, Claire Harasty, as well as Iyanatul Islam of the ILO for their extensive technical comments and suggestions. Thanks are also due to all the colleagues who attended the validation workshop and provided comments, namely Severine Deboos, Edward Lawton, Tariq Haq, Farid Fegazy, Vicky Leung, Dorothea Schmid-Klau, Anie Van Klaveren, Igor Vocatch-Boldyrev, Sungpil Yang of the ILO. Thanks are also due to Benedetta Magri, and Valeria Morra of the ILO International Training Centre, Turin, for their technical advice and design of the publication. Normal disclaimers apply.

Acronyms

ALMPs:	Active Labour Market Policies
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
DWCPs:	Decent Work Country Programmes
EPZs:	Export Processing Zones
FPRW:	Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GEA:	Global Employment Agenda
GMAC:	Garment Manufacturers Association in Cambodia
GNP:	Gross National Product
GSP:	General System of Preferences
ICLS:	International Conference of Labour Statistics
IFIs:	International Financial Institutions (World Bank, International Monetary Fund)
ILC:	International Labour Conference
ILO:	International Labour Organization
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
KILM:	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
LMIS:	Labour Market Information System
MDGs:	Millennium Development Goals
MNEs:	Multi-National Enterprises
NEET:	Not in Employment, Education, or Training
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organizations
NREGA:	National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
PRSPs:	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
RBM:	Results Based Management
SEZs:	Special Economic Zones
SNA:	System of National Accounts
SMEs:	Small and Medium Enterprises
SPF	Social Protection Floor
T&C:	Textiles and clothing
TREE:	Training for Rural Economic Empowerment
TVET:	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UN:	United Nations
UNDAF:	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNECOSOC:	United Nations Economic and Social Council
VAT:	Value added tax
WED:	Women's Entrepreneurship Development

© ILO/M.Crozet

1. Introduction

1.1 Why integrate gender dimensions in employment policies?

Ensuring equal access to employment and income opportunities for all those women and men who are available for work and have the skills and knowledge to be gainfully employed, is not only a human right, but also is good for economic growth, poverty reduction, and social progress. Jobs are not only about earning income for survival and living. Decent work[3] is also a source of self-esteem, social standing, as well as human security and dignity. Societies therefore have an obligation to create conducive socio-economic environment for all their citizens to be able to exercise their right to work, fully utilizing their human potential. Furthermore, evidence has shown that when women are employed and have their own income in their hands, there exist both direct and indirect socio-economic benefits for themselves and their households. Such benefits include women's improved well-being and empowerment in terms of decision-making in the household and community; improved health and nutrition; increased school attendance of children, particularly girls of school age; and better management of fertility – leading to better family planning and a balanced number of children.

Women form half of the world's population and account for 40 per cent of the world's working population. The last 20 years have seen progress in advancing gender equality in the world of work, but much of women's employment remains characterized by lower pay, more precariousness, and less prestige, when compared to that of working men. Furthermore, women's labour force participation has increased substantially, particularly in industrialized countries and in some middle-income countries. The improved levels of women's education have contributed to their increased labour force participation. Under the aegis of globalization, women in developing countries have been absorbed into the labour market through various channels, working in Export Processing Zones (EPZs) or Special Economic Zones (SEZs), export-oriented agriculture, and increasingly as independent migrant workers. However, an increased number of jobs for women have not always been accompanied by improved quality of employment. In places where the gender bias persists in dictating the role of women and men in society –under the "male breadwinner" paradigm– gender equality in the world of work remains an elusive goal across a number of countries.[4]

For the last two decades, the world has witnessed a type of globalization with features such as increasing income inequality, and a decreasing share of wages in GDP, under "job poor" economic growth.[5] The recent global economic crises have caused massive job losses, increased unemployment, underemployment, worsening working conditions, and aggravating poverty not only in many developing countries, but also in industrialized countries. While a larger number of jobs were lost to men in the aftermath of the 2008 crises, globally, women's unemployment remained higher than men's in 2012.[6]

3 ILO: Decent Work (Geneva, 1999).

4 ILO: Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges (Geneva, 2010).

5 ILO: World of Work Report 2008: Income inequalities in the age of financial globalization (Geneva, 2008).

6 ILO: Global employment trends for women, 2012 (Geneva, 2012).

Employment policies are formulated to provide a policy framework that can boost the potential of economies to create jobs, facilitating job-creating processes and optimizing their potential for employment growth. The policies are also there to provide supportive measures for both women and men to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to fully participate in their economic lives. Given that women increasingly form a substantial part of the workforce, it is essential that suggested policy frameworks are gender responsive, and at the same time do promote equality and equity in the world of work. Employment policies, therefore, need to include equal rights principles – i.e. workers have equal access to employment and occupation, regardless of sex, age, social origin, political opinion, ethnicity, colour, race, religion, disability, or sexual orientation. In this regard, Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No.122) which promotes full, productive and freely chosen employment, includes Article 2.c) which states the following: "The said policy shall aim at ensuring that … there is freedom of choice of employment and the fullest possible opportunity for each worker to qualify for, and to use his (her) skills and endowments in, a job for which he (she) is well suited, irrespective of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin"[7] (parentheses added by the author). The Global Employment Agenda (GEA)[8] adopted by the ILO Governing Body in 2003 also includes non-discrimination as one of the crosscutting priorities.

Against this backdrop, this resource guide will demonstrate how to integrate gender dimensions into the analysis of labour markets, identification of key gender and employment challenges, and for the development, implementation and monitoring of employment policies.

1.2 Cycle of employment-policy process

Before we discuss the gender dimensions of policy-making, the process of formulating employment policies is briefly presented hereunder. As noted, across various stages of policy development, gender dimensions should be integrated throughout the process.

In order to formulate an employment policy in its member States, the ILO provides technical assistance in the following phases:

1. Preparation phase, which typically entails appraisal/preparatory mission to engage with the national constituents (government, employers and workers), establishing institutional mechanisms and capacity building for the formulation of employment policies.

2. Diagnostic phase – entailing review and analyses of existing and past socio-economic policies, as well as socio-economic data.

3. Formulation phase, in which based on the outcome of the above analyses, policy elements are developed.

7 Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122) (see: http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/convdisp1.htm [accessed on 6 December 20113]). The parentheses are added to the original text.

8 ILO: Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work; "Vision document" (Geneva, 2006) (see: http://www.ilo.org/gea [accessed on 6 December 2013]).

4. Consultation and validation phase, in which a series of national and/or regional consultations are organized to both provide inputs/validate the draft elements and draft policy developed.

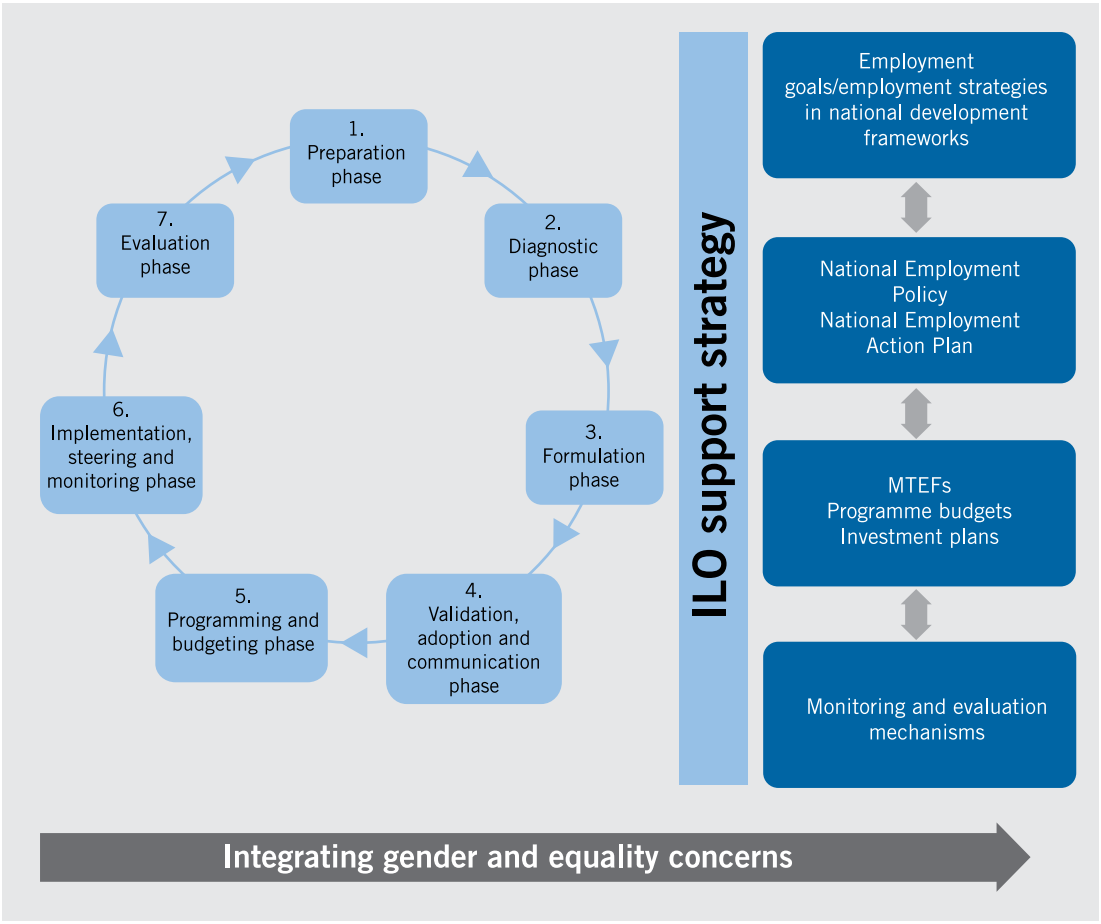
5. Programming and budgeting stage (typically, the ILO provides support for the formulation of projects and programmes for job creation to implement key policy measures, where necessary).

6. Implementation and monitoring phase, in which the policy adopted is implemented by the national partners, sometimes with the ILO's technical advice and support.

7. Evaluation phase, in which selected target indicators are being monitored.

The cycle of policy formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation is shown hereunder.

Figure 1. ILO support to the employment-policy process cycle



Source: ILO: Guide for the formulation of national employment policies (Geneva, 2012).

As seen in Figure 1, gender equality and equity concerns should be fully integrated throughout the policy-making process. In other words, it is important to ensure that the relevant data and information collection and analyses are undertaken and take into consideration gender issues and dimensions; that partnerships are developed with

other development institutions which include the area of equality in employment; that the tripartite social dialogue and consultation should take place, including gender equality and employment issues, and that it ensures the equitable representation of women and men; that policy coherence should be achieved by fully integrating gender-equality and non-discrimination issues in the policies; and that gender-equality and non-discrimination issues are also fully taken on board in advocacy and capacity-building for the ILO constituents. Furthermore, specific employment indicators with gender disaggregation should be developed, in order to monitor and evaluate the implementation of employment policies. In this resource guide, the focus will be on the knowledge development and policy-formulation phases, but it will also include the subsequent phases of dialogue and policy coherence, as well as the monitoring and evaluation of employment policies.

© ILO/M.Crozet

1.3 Objectives, users and audience of the guide

The main objective of this guide is to demonstrate how to integrate gender concerns into the process of formulating, monitoring, and evaluation of employment and labour market policies. It aims to familiarize the audience with the basic concepts on gender and the labour market, and on the gender dimensions of various policy intervention areas. It also shows how to integrate specific gender concerns into both the analysis of and policy advice on employment policies and strategies, particularly in a development context. As such, this training resource guide should be used in tandem with the ILO's *Guide for the formulation of national employment policies* (ILO 2012e).[9] Further, the guide intends to provide those who would like to learn and/or conduct training on gender issues in employment and labour market policies with some basic material and which can be used flexibly according to the needs/purposes; however, it is not meant to be a full-fledged training package.

The expected users of the guide are the staff of the ILO and other UN organizations, the experts and researchers who would be the trainers on the issues of gender and the world of work in developmental context. The users (trainers) of the guide would need to have good knowledge of gender equality and the world of work issues, and preferably also be familiar with employment policy-making processes. The target beneficiaries of the training include ILO tripartite constituents, policy-makers, and experts working on employment promotion and poverty-reduction policies, programmes, and projects in developing countries.

1.4 Structure of the guide

Section Two will provide an overview of key challenges in advancing gender equality in the world of work focusing on access to productive employment and decent work. Section Three will present the ILO's perspectives on gender equality in the world of work, and key concepts related to gender, economy and the world of work. Section Four will demonstrate how to capture and analyse gender dimensions of the world of work through a better understanding of gender dimensions of labour market indicators and relevant analysis. Section Five will provide guidance on how to integrate gender-equality concerns into various intervention areas of employment and labour market policies. Section Six will demonstrate how to integrate gender dimensions into the indicators for monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of employment and labour market policies. Section Seven will provide summary and conclusions. Annexes include key resource materials, a list of International Labour Standards and a glossary.

9 ILO: *Guide for the formulation of national employment policies* (Geneva, 2012) (see: http://www.ilo.org/emppolicy/pubs/WCMS_188048/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 6 December 2013]).

2. Key challenges in advancing gender equality in the world of work

Learning objective:

To better understand gender issues and challenges of the current world of work with a particular focus on access to employment and income opportunities in a developmental context.

2.1 Gender equality and the world of work[10]

Gender equality is at the heart of the ILO's Decent Work agenda, the aim of which is "to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" (ILO, 1999). The aim of the ILO's Decent Work agenda is for all workers –both women and men– are to benefit from more "decent" jobs and income. True decent work could only be assured in a society that would allow labour markets to provide equal opportunities and equitable living incomes to various social groups, regardless of personal attributes – be they biological, social, religious, or political. However, in all countries, social barriers and discrimination persist with varying degrees, due to prevailing social norms on gender roles that are very often slow to change. More specifically, with respect to gender-based discrimination, despite substantial progress made in promoting gender equality and narrowing gender gaps in the world of work during the last half a century, much of women's work remains in gender-stereotype occupations that are more precarious and vulnerable, and with less pay than men's, and this is across the world (*op. cit.*, ILO 2010a). As a consequence, women are disproportionately more affected by decent work deficits, and hence poverty, than men. Women are also the main care-providers in society, though such work is largely unpaid, statistically unrecognized, and economically unaccounted for.

Evidence shows that the socio-economic status of women and girls among those social groups who are discriminated against, is worse than that of their male counterparts. When a woman is of an ethnic minority in a society, she suffers from double discrimination, facing more barriers and difficulties in finding decent employment and income opportunities, and in having access to various social services. For instance, in urban Brazil, non-white women earn the lowest income on average, followed by white women and non-white men, with white men being on the top tier, crosscutting across all workers and educational levels.[11] Improved access to labour markets and to decent and productive employment for women is therefore crucial for achieving greater equality between women and men in society at large.

10 Otobe, N.: "Gender dimensions of the world of work in a globalized economy", in. Elson, D. and Jain, D. (eds.), *Harvesting feminist knowledge for public policy: rebuilding progress* (New Delhi, Sage & Ottawa, IDRC, 2011).

11 ILO: *The time for equality at work: Global report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work* (Geneva, 2003).

The analysis of the latest data in the ILO's 2012 *Global employment trends for women* report shows that in 2011, women's employment-to-population ratio was at 47.8 per cent, compared to 48.5 per cent ten years ago. Globally, the activity rate has not substantially changed, but in the aftermath of the global economic crisis the rate declined by one percentage point. The crisis has also impacted on global female unemployment, which is once again on a slightly increasing trend after having gradually decreased between 2004 and 2007. Women at the global level have had a higher likelihood of being unemployed than men. The report shows clearly that most regions had been making progress in increasing the number of women in decent employment up until 2007 before the global economic crisis hit (ILO 2012a). However, globally speaking, full gender equality in terms of labour market access and conditions of employment has not yet been attained.

© ILO/M.Crozet

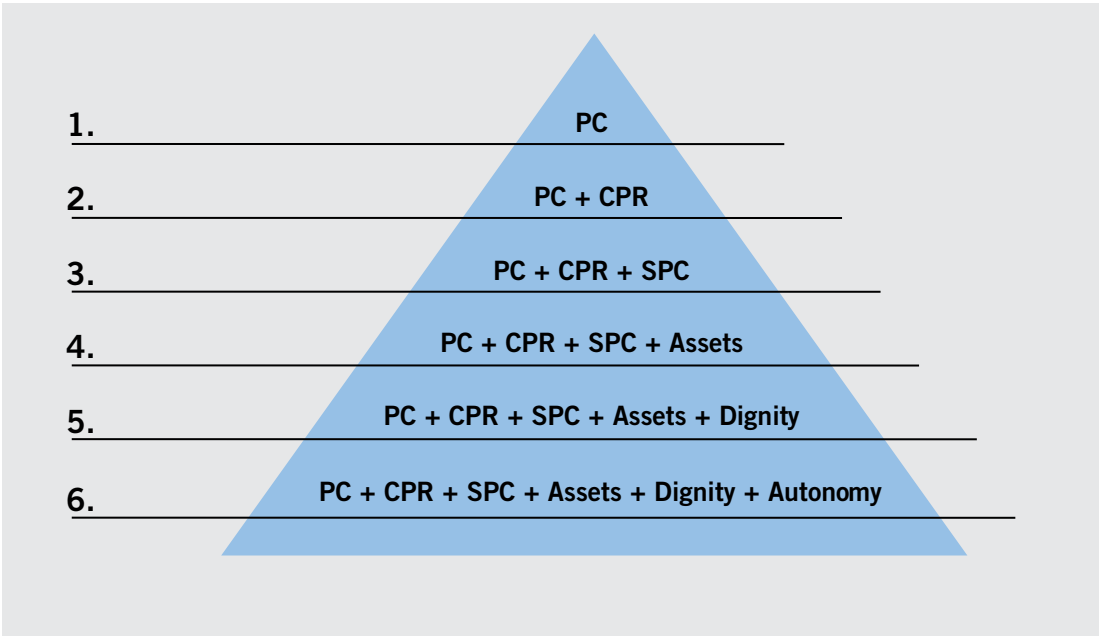
2.2 Gender and working poverty

In 2012, of the world's 3 billion working population, there were still 383.8 million workers in the world who did not earn enough to lift themselves and their families above the poverty line of US$ 1.25-a-day, and 853.7 million workers did not earn enough to lift themselves and their family above the US$2-a-day line, this meant that, despite working, one out of four workers were poor. The overall trends in poverty reduction have also slowed down in the recent global downturn. Total female unemployment increased from 75.8 million in 2007 to an estimated 82.7 million, and the level of female poverty was likely to also have increased in 2010 (ILO, 2013). While poverty incidence in terms of the level of consumption and income is measured at the household level, and is not easy to break down by gender, it is estimated that women are over-represented among the world's absolute poor. This situation has worsened in the aftermath of global economic crisis.

The Gender dimension cuts across the household, community, society, labour market, and economy. The socially ascribed roles of women and men dictate the division of labour between the two genders, both within the household and in the labour market. Given such persistent social values in a large number of countries, it is not surprising that females are over-represented among the poor, especially in those developing countries where society is traditional and discriminatory against girls and women.[12] However, even in rich and more egalitarian industrialized countries, women, in particular single mothers, are over-represented among the poor. Research in the US has shown that single families headed by a single mother made up the vast majority of welfare recipients in the early 1990s, and the poverty rate among working single-mother families failed to decline between 1995 and 1999 (Porter, Dupree, 2001; University of Washington, 2010). Furthermore, further research showed that black and Hispanic women were poorer during the 1990s, with lower incomes and a higher risk of entering poverty, with the former group more likely to be in single-headed households than white or Hispanic women (Wadley, 2008).

Poverty is multi-dimensional and could be defined in various ways, as conceptualized by Baulch, and seen in Figure 2. The first line represents Private Consumption (PC), as the narrowest definition of poverty; CPR is common property resources, and SPC is state-provided consumption. Within the framework of the ILO's definition of decent work, additional aspects of "freedom" and "security" could be added as the seventh and eighth levels respectively. Gender dimensions intertwine with all these aspects of poverty, and women tend to be more disadvantaged compared to men, even among the poor.

Figure 2. A Pyramid of poverty concepts



Note: PC: Private Consumption, CPR: Common Property Resources, SPC: State-Provided Consumption. Source: Baulch, B.: "Neglected Trade-offs in Poverty Measurement", in IDS Bulletin (Sussex, IDS, 1996).

12 Rahman, R. I., with Otobe, N.: *The dynamics of the labour market and employment in Bangladesh: A focus on gender dimensions* (Geneva, ILO, 2005).

It is widely recognized that female children in a patriarchal society[13] tend to receive less attention and fewer resources than boys, even within a household. Girls tend to be educated less than boys in many developing countries, though much progress has been made towards gender parity in primary education. The disadvantages accumulated in the early stages of life lessen the chances for a girl child to become employable in later life. Once at the stage of adulthood, women tend to be discriminated against in access to resources, and in their opportunities for decent and productive employment. Since much of CPR are often owned, and the allocation of their usufruct rights[14] is determined by a patriarchal perspective of "men as the head (breadwinner) of the household", women tend to suffer from unequal access to productive resources and assets needed to earn income in the market, or cultivate food for subsistence in the informal economy. As for the SPC, it is likely that women may benefit from it more, as they are often the ones who are held responsible for fetching water and fuel, and cultivating and preparing food for the household.

© ILO/M.Crozet

However, if such publicly provided support as food and fuel subsidy and water supply is reduced, they are likely to be negatively impacted first. Because patriarchal society is likely to provide women with less freedom of movement and intra-household decision-making power, not only in undertaking economic activities outside the home, but also in allocating intra-household resources, their individual dignity and autonomy are likely to be suppressed compared to those in more egalitarian societies.[15]

13 "Patriarchy" is the structuring of society on the basis of family units, where fathers have primary responsibility for the welfare of, and authority over, their families, and males are given primacy over females in economic, social and political standing.

14 Rights to use resources, etc.

15 We know of cases of honour killing of Muslim women and girls by their male relatives, for instance. Also see Kazemi, F.: "Gender, Islam and Politics – Iran", in *Social Research*, 67(2), Iran: Since the Revolution, pp. 453–474 (New York, The New School, 2000).

When women are employed in the formal sector, they on average tend to work fewer years, and accumulate fewer social-protection benefits, as well as less income during their lifetime than men, due to the different life-cycle that women experience. Women bear children, and in the process they may reduce working hours, stop working for a period of their adult life and either go back to the labour market once children grow up, or stop working altogether. In many countries, women's retirement age is lower than men's, thus they also work for fewer years than men, which cuts shorter their accumulated incomes and pension benefits. This is one of the reasons why women tend to fall into poverty in old age, due to lower levels of accumulated social benefits, which are normally linked to regular full-time employment. Women continue to be over-represented among the poor and form the bottom rung of the poor in the world.

In terms of types of workers among the poor, most of them are found in the informal and rural economies (ILO, 2012b). The poor are those who work in agriculture in rural areas, and those working in the informal economy, including home workers and domestic workers – and a large majority of them are women. Much of women's work in agriculture is unpaid, as is the case in sub-Saharan Africa and in the rural economies of South Asia, although some are engaged in wage employment in the plantation sector. Working in the informal economy, women are employed as unpaid family workers, or as self-employed doing small-scale production, vending or providing personal services. Much of their work remains invisible and unaccounted for in the national statistics, they are unorganized and unprotected (in terms of access to social protection, such as medical insurance or old age pensions), and neither do they have representation or a voice. Most of those working in the informal economy or establishments do not have any of their workers' rights respected, such as minimum wages, length of working hours, or a day of rest per week, let alone equal rights at work and maternity protection.[16] As a consequence, women are more disproportionately affected by decent work deficits and poverty than men in the world of work, in particular, in those poorer developing countries.

Women's vulnerability to poverty persists, often due to economic and political crises, civil strife, the pandemic of HIV and AIDS in a number of poor developing countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, an increasing number of environmental catastrophes,[17] and to diminishing social support in transition economies. The negative impact of HIV and AIDS has been well documented, in particular the increasing prevalence of HIV among women, and the consequential increasing orphanhood – especially higher neglect of girl orphans[18] and child labour, together with the burden of care on young girls.

16 ILO: *Decent work and the informal economy. Report VI*, presented at the 90th Session of the ILC (Geneva, 2002); Carr, M.; Chen, M.A.; and Tate, J., "Globalization and home-based workers", *Feminist Economics*, 6(3): 123–42 (T&F, 2000); and Chen, M.; Sebstad, J.; and O'Connell, L. "Counting the invisible workforce: the case of home-based workers", in *World Development* 27(3): 603–10 (Elsevier Science Ltd, 1999).

17 Hemmings-Gapihan, G.: "Climate change, Subsistence Farming, Food Security and Poverty: The consequences of agricultural policies on women and men farmers in Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire", in *African Policy Journal* (IV) (Boston, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University, 2008).

18 Orphanhood exacerbates gender inequalities: girl orphans are overworked and often sexually exploited by their caregivers, they are more likely to drop out of school, and they are more often dispossessed of their parents' property. See *Children affected by AIDS; Africa's orphaned and vulnerable generations* (New York, UNICEF, 2006).

Due to the increased number of deaths of mothers, the burden of care is also increasingly falling upon older women. Girls, together with young and old women are at a higher risk of poverty.

Due to the persistent poverty and the lack of alternative employment opportunities for women in originating communities, women are being pushed into rural–urban and international migration. When they migrate internationally to work, they are also mostly engaged in lower-end jobs (3-Ds jobs: dirty, demeaning, and dangerous) that the nationals of the receiving countries no longer wish to do, for example, domestic work; supporting working women (and men) in the country they have migrated to, doing their reproductive "care work". There is also an alarming trend of exploitation, abuse and violence against migrant women and children, especially trafficking into domestic work and the sex sector (ILO, 2003b).

This is the current situation, after decades of development efforts made under mainstream development economic, and driven by the conventional macroeconomic policies advocated by key international financial institutions. Why has the progress been so slow – slow, not only in terms of the speed of development and poverty reduction, but also and in particular, in reducing the level of abject poverty for millions of poor women and men in developing countries?

Addressing gender discrimination, especially within the context of poverty alleviation, is crucial, since it manifests as structural poverty of women. It is often rooted in the existing social institutions or value systems, which can be slow to change. The social institutions determine who can have access and control over natural and financial resources, assets, means of production, education and training, employment and income opportunities, as well as entitlements to social protection. As long as the social institution functions in a discriminatory manner, the "laissez-faire" and "neoliberal" macroeconomic policy aimed at economic growth and total reliance on market forces under a "trickle-down" theory, will not automatically translate into the reduction of poverty of discriminated groups, especially, poor women in traditional societies.[19] We would, therefore, need a different approach and paradigm to the macroeconomic policy framework, one that is aimed at development and poverty eradication, i.e., where all humans can have the right (or entitlement) to work and live their full potential in freedom, equity, dignity and human security – or, in the ILO's terms, the right to decent work and life.

© ILO/M.Crozet

2.3 Exercise: Group discussion on gender issues and the world of work in your country

Objective:

To share participants' experiences of gender issues in the world of work in their own countries.

Tools:

Flip charts, big pens

Time:

30–45 minutes

Instructions:

1. Each group will discuss gender issues in the world of work, asking the following questions:

   a. What are the levels of labour participation for women and men in your country? Is there any difference?

   b. Where do women and men work? In which sectors and in what kinds of occupations do women and men work? Are there differences in where women and men work?

   c. Do women receive similar wages and income as men in your country? Are there gender differences in wages, even for the same occupations?

   d. What do you think are the underlying causes of such gender differences in employment patterns?

2. Each group will report back on the results of discussion in the plenary.

3. ILO perspectives on gender equality, and key concepts of gender, economy and the world of work

3.1 The ILO's paradigm and action in promoting gender equality in the world of work

Learning objective:

To better understand the ILO's paradigm of decent work, and measures for promoting gender equality in the world of work.

The ILO justifies the pursuit of gender equality and decent work on two grounds. First, there is the **rights-based equity rationale**.[20] It argues for addressing the discrimination women face in the world of work, as a matter of fundamental human rights and social justice. Second, there is the **economic efficiency rationale**, which argues that women can play a critical role as economic agents capable of transforming societies and economies. Equality is not just an intrinsic value and a right in itself, but is instrumental in achieving economic growth, poverty reduction and social progress. Relevant in all cultural settings, economic empowerment of women unleashes their socio-economic potential as a force for development. Diversity of employees also contributes to better business performance at the enterprise level. Promoting gender equality, therefore, is not only a "right" thing to do, but also a "smart" thing to do.

In 1999, the ILO adopted a **Policy on Gender Equality and Gender Mainstreaming** within the International Labour Office. Subsequently, in 2000, the ILO adopted a Gender Policy and a Plan of Action for Gender Mainstreaming across the board in its programmes, structure, and personnel. This plan of action defined the basis for the ILO's approach to achieving gender equality in the world of work consisting of: 1) gender analysis to be undertaken in all the ILO's technical work; and 2) actions to be taken, including gender-specific interventions, to promote gender equality.

The 2006–2007 Programme and Budget included **a mainstreamed strategy on advancing gender equality**. This was more specifically articulated during the 2008–2009 Programme and Budget under Common Principles of Action: **"All ILO action will apply gender lenses to assess its potential and actual impacts on equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men in the World of Work."**[21]

20 The ILO has two key international labour standards specific to promoting equal rights at work: Convention Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), 1958 (No. 111), and Equal remuneration, 1951 (No. 100).

21 ILO Programme and Budget (2010–2011) see http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/program/download/pdf/10-11/pb.pdf [accessed on 9 December 2013].

In 2009 the International Labour Conference (ILC) held a general discussion on "Gender Equality at the Heart of Decent Work". The ILO Action Plan for Gender Equality, 2010–2015 was developed, taking into consideration the relevant ILC conclusions.

At the international level, both the 2006 UN Economic and Social Council Ministerial Declaration on Decent Work and the 15-year review of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (2010) attached importance to promoting decent work and full and productive employment for both women and men. In 2010, the new United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (UN Women) was established, merging the UN's key gender equality and women's empowerment entities. A major review of the progress in the achievement of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for the last 10 years took place at the UN Summit, also highlighting the importance of the role of women and gender-equality concerns for poverty reduction in development.

At the same time, the ILO is mandated to follow up on the 2008 *Declaration on Social Justice*,[22] Resolution concerning *Gender Equality at the Heart of Decent Work*[23] and **Global Jobs Pact**[24] adopted at the 2009 ILC, as well as the 2010 ILC *Resolution concerning Recurrent Discussion on Employment*.[25] Accordingly, the ILO continues to implement the **Decent Work Agenda** through Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCPs) towards a fair globalization. Gender equality is at the heart of the ILO's Decent Work Agenda, and one of the key crosscutting priorities of the GEA, which was adopted by the ILO Governing Body in 2003.

During recent years, the ILO has taken action to integrate employment concerns into the National Development Plans, in an effort to put employment at the heart of national socio-economic policies in poor developing countries. In the aftermath of the 2008 global economic crisis, and in order to follow-up on the **Global Jobs Pact**, employment priorities are being increasingly integrated into national development plans and policies, in close collaboration with the UNDP and other UN organizations operating at the national level. In this regard, it is essential that employment and gender concerns be fully integrated into the national development and policy frameworks, both through national development planning and **United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF)** processes.

22 ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, ILC, 97th Session, Geneva, 2008, see http://www.ilo.ch/global/meetings-and-events/campaigns/voices-on-social-justice/WCMS_099766/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 20 November 2013].

23 The Resolution concerning gender equality at the heart of decent work, adopted at the 98th Session of ILC. See: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_113004.pdf [accessed on 20 November 2013].

24 ILO: Recovering from the crisis: A Global Jobs Pact, adopted by the ILC at its 98th Session (Geneva, ILO, 2009), see http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/98thSession/texts/WCMS_115076/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 6 December 2013.]

25 The 2010 ILC Resolution concerning recurrent discussion on employment, see http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_143164.pdf [accessed on 21 November 2013].

3.2 Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming as a strategy to achieve gender equality was identified by governments at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing. The ILO adopted its own policy in 1999 – *Gender equality and mainstreaming in the International Labour Office*, focusing on three fronts: staffing, substance, and structure.

Past reviews and evaluations in a range of development organizations and agencies have demonstrated that gender mainstreaming had not been well understood or supported, and thus has not been effective in translating policy commitments on gender equality into resources and implementation.[26] Recommendations towards increased effectiveness include: 1) adopting a more strategic approach that analyses and identifies priority opportunities and entry points, rather than attempting to do everything, everywhere; 2) strengthening institutional support and accountability mechanisms for gender-equality mainstreaming; 3) paying attention to the internal/human resources policies as well as operational/programmatic dimensions of an organization's work; and 4) providing the resources to support proper analysis, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Box 1: UNECOSOC – Definition of gender mainstreaming

"*Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men, of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated.* **The ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.**"
[emphasis added]

Source: United Nations Economic and Social Council, 1997.

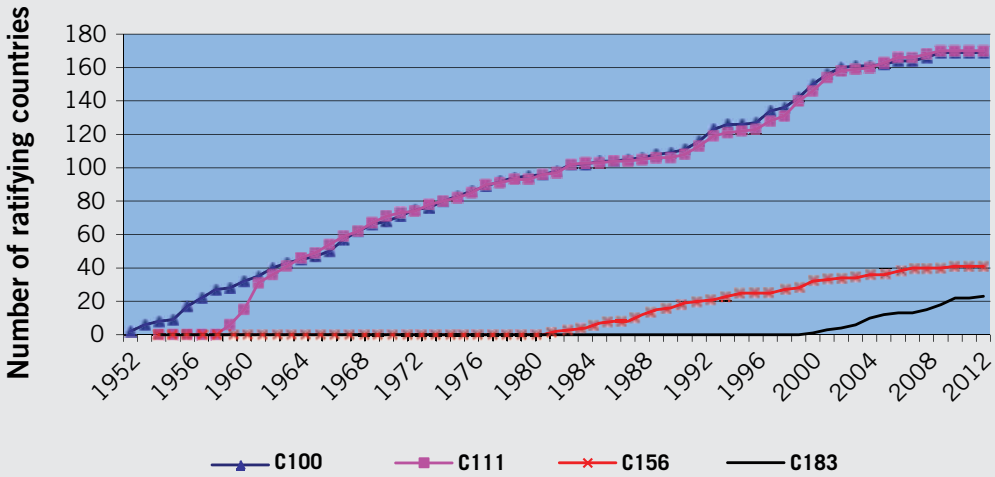
It is noted here that implementing a gender-mainstreaming strategy also entails gender-specific interventions that may target only women or only men, or women and men together, based on gender analysis. These gender-specific interventions continue to be necessary, and are most effective in reducing the accumulated past and continuing disadvantages certain groups of workers suffer from. **The key is how we define the most effective entry points and interventions by undertaking gender analyses, in order to identify existing gender gaps, both in terms of quality and quantity of employment.** Such analyses entail examining gender-differentiated, or women's and men's specific constraints and needs for enhancing access to employment and income, including the burden/constraints of unpaid care work that is mostly undertaken by women.

26 UNDP: *Evaluation of gender mainstreaming in the UNDP* (New York, 2006), and African Development Bank: *Evaluation synthesis – mainstreaming gender equality: Road to results or nowhere?* (Tunis, 2011).

3.3 International Labour Standards addressing gender equality in the world of work

While the ILO most often addresses sex-based discrimination, as it is one of the most important grounds of discrimination, there are additional aspects and grounds of discrimination in the world of work, which include race, colour, religion, political opinion, national extraction, social origin, age, and sexual orientation. The first six, in addition to sex, are covered as grounds not only under the International Labour Convention No. 111 on Discrimination, 1958 (Employment and Occupation), but also under Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122). Another International Labour Standard specifically addressing sex discrimination is the Equal Remuneration[27] Convention, 1951 (No. 100). This convention requires ratifying countries to ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers, for work of equal value. These two conventions form part of the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.[28]

Figure 3: Number of ratifications: Key equal rights conventions 1952–2012



Source: ILO web site on International Labour Standards - http://www.ilo.org/global/standards/lang--en/index.htm). Note: C100 – Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951, C111 – Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958; C156 – Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981; C183 – Maternity Protection Convention, 2000.

27 The term "remuneration" is broadly defined to include the ordinary, basic or minimum wage or salary, and any additional emoluments payable directly or indirectly, whether in cash or in kind, by the employer to the worker and arising out of the worker's employment (see ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/global/standards/subjects-covered-by-international-labour-standards/equality-of-opportunity-and-treatment/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 6 December 2013]).

28 The Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW) was adopted in 1998. The Declaration commits member States to respect and promote principles and rights in four categories, whether or not they have ratified the relevant Conventions. These categories are: freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of forced or compulsory labour; the abolition of child labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (see ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/declaration/thedeclaration/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 20 November 2013]).

Other International Labour Standards which are considered "core gender equality" legal instruments are: Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), and the Maternity Protection Convention, 1919 (No. 3), which was superseded by the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183).

Box 2: Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156)

With the aim of creating effective equality of opportunity and treatment for men and women workers, the convention requires ratifying states to make it a goal of national policy to enable persons with family responsibilities who are engaged, or wish to engage, in employment to exercise their right to do so without being subject to discrimination and, to the extent possible, without conflict between their employment and family responsibilities. The convention also requires governments to take account of the needs of workers with family responsibilities in community planning, and to develop or promote community services, public or private, such as childcare and family services and facilities.

(see ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C156*, [accessed on 6 December 2013])*

Applying the provisions of Maternity Convention addressing women's specific gender constraints, which arise out of their maternal and parental responsibilities, can protect the health of working mothers and their children, and enhance women's labour market attachment and participation. Provisions in the Workers with Family Responsibilities can help create a family-friendly work environment, so that those working women and men with family responsibilities are not discriminated against, both in access to employment and within the workplace. It can also help promote sharing of responsibilities for unpaid care work between women and men.

In particular, thanks to the push for ratification of the fundamental rights International Labour Standards, the first Fundamental Equal Rights Conventions No. 100 and No. 111 are almost universally ratified – reaching 90 per cent of all the ILO member States (see Figure 3, above). However, due to persistent gender norms in society, and the weak enforcement mechanisms of labour laws at the country level, combined with the high level of informality of employment in developing countries, this level of ratification has not yet been translated into a concrete reality. A list of relevant International Labour Standards can be found in Annex 4.




Box 3: Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)

Convention No. 183 provides for 14 weeks of maternity benefits to women to whom the instrument applies. Women who are absent from work on maternity leave shall be entitled to a cash benefit which ensures that they can maintain themselves and their child in proper conditions of health, and with a suitable standard of living, and which shall be no less than two-thirds of her previous earnings, or a comparable amount.

The convention also requires ratifying states to take measures to ensure that a pregnant woman or nursing mother is not obliged to perform work which has been determined to be harmful to her health or that of her child, and provides for protection from discrimination based on maternity. The standard also prohibits employers to terminate the employment of a woman during pregnancy or absence on maternity leave, or during a period following her return to work, except on grounds unrelated to pregnancy, childbirth and its consequences, or nursing.

Women returning to work must be returned to the same position, or an equivalent position paid at the same rate. It also provides a woman the right to one or more daily breaks or a daily reduction of hours of work to breastfeed her child.

(See ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO:12100:P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312328:NO [accessed on 6 December 2013])

© ILO/G.Palazzo

3.4 Exercise: National legislation and policies on gender equality

Objective:

To exchange information on national legislation and policies on promoting gender equality in general, and regarding the world of work in particular.

Tools:

Flip charts, big pens

Time:

30–45 minutes

Instructions:

1. Each group will discuss national legislation and policies on gender equality in the participants' respective countries, asking the following questions:

    a. Has your country ratified either or both of the ILO's Equal Rights Conventions (such as Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 100))?

    b. What about other two key Gender Equality Conventions: Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), and Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)?

    c. Do you know if your country has adopted a strategy to increase women's economic participation in the country's development plans?

    d. Are there any specific national policies aimed at promoting gender equality in the world of work? What are they?

2. Each group will report back on the results of discussion in the plenary.

3.5 Key concepts of gender, work and employment policies

3.5.1 Production, reproduction, and paid and unpaid work

Learning objective:

To better understand key gender concepts on paid and unpaid work, economy and the gender dimensions thereof.

Women and men are engaged in both paid and unpaid work. People are engaged in both unpaid work for **production** (market work) and for **reproduction** (taking care of household and families). The following diagram shows the boundaries of these two spheres.

Table 1. Production, reproduction, and paid and unpaid work

Sphere of Work	Paid Work	Unpaid Work
Production (SNA work) (This sphere tends to be regarded as the men's sphere in the traditional gender paradigm)	**(SNA work)** • Wage employment • Employer • Own-account work • Member of cooperative	**(SNA work)** • Unpaid contributory family work in an economic unit (family business or farm) • Voluntary work • Fetching water and fuel for own consumption
Reproduction (This sphere tends to be regarded as the women's sphere in the traditional gender paradigm)	**(SNA Work)** • Care work for pay: childcare, personal care, healthcare, domestic work	**(Non SNA work)** • Care work: childcare and personal care for the sick/ elderly, cooking, cleaning without pay.

Note: SNA = System of National Accounts.

Due to the continuing social norms of "man as breadwinner" and "woman as home caretaker", women spend more hours than men undertaking unpaid care work, or "reproduction" work such as cooking, cleaning, taking care of children, the sick, and older family members. Unpaid work contributes to well-being, and feeds into economic growth through the reproduction of a labour force that is fit, productive and capable of learning and creativity. However, because this work is not remunerated, it is invisible from a statistical point of view, and remains almost exclusively unaccounted for in the System of National Accounts (SNA).[29]

29 UN: System of National Accounts (New York, 2008), see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna2008.asp [accessed on 6 December 2013]. This is an updated version of 1993 publication on SNA.

However, there have been some efforts to give monetary and economic value to unpaid work, by creating satellite accounts.[30]

Gender division of labour permeates both paid and unpaid work. All labour markets are gender segregated both vertically, in terms of the levels of responsibilities, and horizontally, in terms of sectoral and occupational segregation. Furthermore, in many countries when their paid and unpaid work working hours are combined for both, women spend more hours working than men.[31] In particular, in poorer developing countries, because women typically spend more hours on unpaid care work than men, women often have bigger time and mobility constraints than men, rendering them less able to engage in economic activities. In many conservative societies, women are forbidden to work outside the home or to mix with men in public places, constraining women's engagement in remunerated work outside home. Unpaid SNA work can be undertaken for the market, but also for one's own or household consumption; for instance, working on a family farm undertaking subsistence agriculture work, or in a family enterprise. However, an unpaid family worker would not be an independent worker with control over her/his income and remuneration, and would thus remain vulnerable.

© ILO/G.Palazzo

30 Women perform the bulk of unpaid care work across all economies and cultures. It is estimated that if such work were assigned a monetary value it would constitute between 10 per cent and 39 per cent of GDP. See UNSRID: "Why care matters for social development", in *Research and Policy Brief* 9 (Geneva, 2010).

31 In Tanzania and Benin, women spend 14 and 17.4 working hours more than men per week in total (see Fontana, M. and Paciello, C., *Gender dimensions of rural and agricultural employment: Differentiated pathways out of poverty: A global perspective*, draft report for the FAO-IFAD-ILO workshop (Rome, FAO, 2009).

3.6 Exercise: Play with words of gender, work and employment policies

Objective:

The participants will become familiar with some selected words related to gender, economic policies and the world of work that have direct and indirect gender implications.

Tools:

Pens, small index cards, a box (or hat), chocolates/candies (optional) for rewarding getting "right" answers

Time:

30–45 minutes

Instructions:

1. The trainer should cut out the list of words in the following page, and put them in a hat/box for distribution among the participants.

2. The participants will pick one piece of paper with a given word(s) and write down both the chosen word(s) and the meaning of the given word(s) on a card.

3. The participants will write down the meaning of the word(s) on the index card.

4. Taking turns the participants will read out both the word(s) given, and the meaning written up at the back of the card.

5. After having repeated this a number of times, the trainer will distribute copies of the glossary found in **Annex 1** of this guide at the end of the exercise (giving a chocolate or candy to those who got the meaning right – this is optional).

List of Words in Glossary on Gender, Work and Employment Policies	
• Active labour market policies	• Income transfer
• Affirmative action	• Inflation targeting
• Care work	• Informal economy
• Decent Work	• Male breadwinner bias
• Discrimination	• Monetary policy
• Discouraged workers	• Neo-liberalism
• Economic-efficiency argument	• Passive labour market policies
• Feminist economics	• Pay equity
• Fiscal policy	• Pro-poor growth
• Flexi-security	• Remuneration
• Gender	• Reproductive work
• Gender bias	• Rights-based approach to development
• Gender/sex disaggregation	• Social floors
• Gender gap	• Social provisioning
• Gender mainstreaming	• Social safety nets
• Gender-predominated jobs	• System of national accounts
• Glass ceiling	• Time-use survey
• Human capital	• Unpaid care work

© ILO/M.Crozet

4. Gender and key labour market indicators[32]

People are engaged in work and economic activities which are either paid or unpaid. There are a number of labour market indicators for which data are collected through labour force surveys, or sometimes household surveys and national censuses. The following is a list of some key labour market indicators, and there are gender-related issues and dimensions that are relevant in understanding these indicators.

4.1 Gender dimensions of various key labour market indicators

Learning objective:

To learn about key labour market indicators, and in particular the gender dimensions thereof.

Economically active and inactive population

A given population in a country can be divided into two categories: those who are economically active, and those who are economically inactive.

The *economically active population* comprises all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of goods and services during a specified time-reference period. According to the 1993 version of the SNA,[33] production includes all individual or collective goods or services that are supplied to units other than their producers, or intended to be so supplied, including the production of goods or services used up in the process of producing such goods or services; the production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final use; the production of housing services by owner-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by employing paid domestic staff.

Two useful measures of the economically active population are the *usually active population*, measured in relation to a long reference period such as a year, and the *currently active population*, or, equivalently, the *labour force*, measured in relation to a short reference period such as one day or one week.[34]

As mentioned previously, due to the double burden of reproductive care and productive work that women are engaged in, the rate of women's economic activity is lower than men's across all countries. This is accentuated in countries where there are strong social norms (i.e., men as breadwinner and women as home caretaker) dictating women's and men's roles in homes and society, which in turn influences the gender division of labour.

32 For the complete set of Key Indicators of the Labour Market, see ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* (Geneva, 2011).

33 UN: *op. cit.*

34 See the ILO website of LABORSTA: http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/c1e.html [accessed on 6 December 2013].

There are also country variations on the definition of "economic activity"; for example, some countries do not take into account unpaid work undertaken on family farms or family enterprises, where many women are engaged in. Hence this creates a problem of international comparability of the relevant data.[35] Furthermore, women's work can be under-counted due to a gender bias in the way the questions are formulated in the survey instruments, and/or by the attitudes/perceptions of the surveyors who collect data through individual interviews –in other words, how the survey is actually conducted.

People can be economically inactive for various reasons; in school or training, due to sickness, disability, or old age, because they taking care of household on a full-time basis, and so on. From a gender perspective, we need to examine the reasons behind women's higher levels of inactivity across all the regions –many a time, mainstream social norms still affect how women are engaged in public life in general, and what they do as the primary activity in their lives. In more conservative societies, women are often not allowed to work outside homes or to leave the home, or need the permission of a male family member (a father or husband) to do so, limiting physical mobility. Such social norms can hinder women from being fully engaged in public life in general, and in economic activities outside the home, in particular. Furthermore, since it is most likely that men in such societies do not share the burden of undertaking reproductive work, if women are to also work outside the home, the hours that they put working both for market and household work are typically much longer than those of men.

Labour force participation rate

The labour force participation rate is a measure of the percentage of a country's working-age population (internationally defined as those between 16 and 64 years) that engages in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. As suggested earlier, across the globe, women's labour force participation rate is typically lower than men. Given that women have a different life-cycle from men, in terms of their childbearing responsibilities, the labour force participation rate for women who are of childbearing and rearing age tends to be lower than those of other age groups, making the overall participation-rate curve into an M-shape, according to their life-cycle. At a younger age when women do not yet have children, their participation can be higher, but as they reach childbearing and rearing age, the participation rate tends to go down. When their children become older, women are likely to increase labour market participation, though some women may also drop out of the labour market altogether once they have the first child. Hence women's labour force participation pattern is affected by their life-cycle, and becomes the M-shape mentioned previously.

Analysing the data by sector, sex, age, education level, skills level, as well as the urban–rural divide, can provide an insight into how and where people work, together with a profile of the workers themselves. Employment levels by economic sector and sex can provide the levels of labour market demand in various economic sectors, and by disaggregating the data by sex provides an insight on where women and men work in a given labour market. Age disaggregation of labour-force data can also inform policies to address low levels of employment for certain age groups, for instance, young and older workers.

35 *Ibid.*

Employment-to-population ratio

The employment-to-population ratio is defined as the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. This excludes those who are inactive and unemployed. As is the case with the labour-force participation rate, women's E-to-P ratio is smaller than men's. However, this disguises the fact that all women are in fact working, regardless of whether they are in production or reproduction.

Status in employment

Labour market indicators of status of employment include the following different types of employment categories: a) wage and salaried workers; b) own-account workers; c) employers; and d) (unpaid) contributing family workers. Each is measured as a proportion of the total employed. Combined statuses of own-account work and contributing family work constitute what we call "vulnerable employment".[36] This concept was introduced by the ILO as an employment-related indicator in relation to the Millennium Development Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; Target 1.b: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people.[37]

© ILO/M.Crozet

36 Here, the two categories of employment statuses "own-account work" and "contributory family work" are defined as "vulnerable employment", and such types of employment are prevalent in the informal urban and rural economies, which are characterized by low productivity, low remuneration, poor working conditions, and the lack of legal and social protection. This concept should be differentiated from "flexible", "precarious", or "casual" employment, such as part-time or short-term (in terms of contractual status) employment undertaken in the formal sector, which can provide some legal or social protection, if not as fully as regular full-time employment.

37 ILO: *Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment Indicators, including full set of Decent Work indicators* (Geneva, 2009).

Analysing the structure of labour force by status of employment by sex can help understand the levels of economic development and the levels of security and independence of workers in a given economy for women and men. Wage and salaried workers are better covered by social security, and normally work under the direct purview of national labour laws. Employers of an enterprise with wage and salaried workers are also typically in better economic situations than those who are self-employed. Furthermore, those who are working as (unpaid) contributing family workers are fully dependent on the owner of the family business or farm. What employment status one works in, therefore, also influences the levels of security, the application of labour laws, and economic security.

Wage and salaried workers:

The share of women in wage employment in non-agriculture sectors is one of the indicators under **MDG 3 – Gender equality and women's empowerment**. While globally the share of wage and salaried workers for women and men is almost equal, there are wide regional variations in the overall figures, as well as gender gaps. The share of wage and salaried workers tends to be higher in more developed countries, and lower for poorer developing countries. A large majority of the labour force in industrialized countries is wage and salaried workers, and interestingly in 2012, the share was higher in women's employment, compared to men's. Whereas the share of wage and salaried workers in total employment in poorer sub-Sahara Africa and South Asia was generally lower than other regions, and lower still for women than for men, with 13.9 and 7.6 percentage-point gap between the two sexes respectively (ILO, 2012a).

Employers:

Globally speaking, the share of employers or owners of business with employees as a share of total employment is small. Men have a greater tendency than women to be the owner of businesses with employees across all regions in the world (ILO, 2010a).

Contributory (unpaid) family workers:

The share of contributory unpaid family work status is typically higher in women's employment than men's. As contributory family workers are totally dependent on the owner of the business, their economic situation is less secure and their decision-making power lower. The share of contributory family work in total employment significantly varies across regions, but gender gaps are substantial in poorer and more conservative regions, such as South Asia and North Africa.

Own-account workers:

Higher levels of own-account work in employment are related to lower levels of development and higher poverty. Globally the share of own-account work in men's employment is higher than for women's employment. In the poorest region of sub-Saharan Africa, the share of own-account work was as high as 44.7 per cent and 50.4 per cent respectively for women and men in 2012. In South Asia, the share was an even higher 64.2 per cent for men, compared to 44.5 per cent for women –an indication that the level of informality of employment is also high in these regions (ILO *op. cit.*).

Employment by sector

This labour market indicator disaggregates employment into three broad economic sectors; agriculture, industry and services –each of which is expressed as a percentage of total employment and the structure of employment by sector is related to levels of development. Globally, services have the highest share of women's employment, followed by agriculture and manufacturing. Generally speaking, the higher the share of agriculture in employment, the poorer the region; for example, some 62 per cent of employment was in agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa, divided almost equally for women and men. In South Asia, almost 69 per cent of women's employment was in agriculture, compared with men's 44.3 per cent in 2012 (*ibid.*). Since agriculture work in poor regions is closely associated with "working poverty",[38] both women and men in the sub-Saharan region, and women particularly in South Asia, were affected by higher levels of working poverty. In the regions where the share of agriculture of women's employment is higher than that of men's, the "feminization" of agriculture remains a concern from the point of view of both women's economic empowerment and income poverty.

Part-time work

This indicator is the share or a percentage of those workers who work less than statutory full-time hours as a share of total employment. However, since there are no internationally agreed defined "full-time work" hours per week, the threshold is determined either on a country-by-country basis, or through the use of special estimations (ILO, 2008a). There are an increasing number of women who work on a part-time basis, in particular in industrialized countries; for instance, in all EU countries, more than 62 per cent of part-time workers were women, while the share of part-time work in women's employment varied widely between 13 to 62 per cent, as compared to two to 16.2 per cent for men in 2009 (*op. cit.*, ILO, 2010a). One aspects of this is that it allows workers to combine market work with reproductive work (or family responsibilities); but it also has implications for the overall levels of income they earn, as well as the social security benefits and entitlements they accumulate during their lifetime, which are normally attached to their employment.

Informal employment

Informal employment refers to the number of workers in the informal economy as a share of the total number of employed persons.[39] Informal employment is an important indicator for measuring how the economies are performing, whether they are creating quality employment or not, especially in developing countries but also in developed ones. Those who are in informal employment, such as domestic workers, are not typically

38 "Working poverty" is defined as a situation where workers earn income less than US$1.25 a day, or which is insufficient to lift themselves and their families out of poverty. Regarding the issues of rural work and gender, see also ILO, Gender equitable work to reduce poverty and boost economic growth (Geneva, 2011), see http://www.ilo.org/employment/Whatwedo/Publications/WCMS_150830/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

39 See the full statistical explanation of informal employment in ILO: Guidelines concerning a statistical definition of informal employment, 17th ICLS (Geneva, 2003) (http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/guidelines-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS_087622/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013]).

covered by any social protection or labour laws. Informal employment is also undertaken in small establishments, without premises or a fixed location, or in one's own home or farm. Such work is typically with low productivity, without protection and, undertaken in poor working conditions. In many countries, the share of informal employment of women's non-agriculture employment is higher than for men, although this is not always the case.

Unemployment

The unemployment rate is the proportion of the total labour force that does not have a job but is actively looking for work. In countries where the poor cannot afford to be unemployed, and have no choice but to be engaged in any economic activity available, the rate of unemployment is not the only indicator that can inform policies regarding the health of labour markets or economies. After a decade of so-called "jobless growth" and in the aftermath of global economic crises the sheer lack of jobs has become not only a temporary labour market issue, but increasingly a more perennial economic, political, and social issue. Globally speaking, women's unemployment rate remains higher than for men, while across the globe, youth unemployment rates are much higher than for the adults, and young women's unemployment rate tends to be higher than young men's, except for Europe and industrialized regions.

The circumstances and reasons for higher female unemployment rates could be many: the range of jobs that women work is often narrower than for men due to gender segregation of the labour market. For educated women, their reserve wage is higher than what the market can offer, but men are likely to take up any jobs in order to support families; women tend to have more insecure and precarious employment contracts than men, and accordingly tend to be affected more negatively in the downsizing of companies; women tend to work in sectors that are more susceptible to economic downturns, such as export-oriented manufacturing; women tend to go in and out of the labour market due to their childbearing and rearing responsibilities; the discriminatory attitudes of employers, as well as a number of other reasons. Those who remain unemployed in the long term can become discouraged workers, become unskilled and unmotivated, and may end up dropping out of the labour market altogether. This is not only a waste of human resources, but can be a cause of personal frustrations as well as social distress. When many young men are unemployed, there is a high risk that it will become a source of political instability.

Nevertheless, countries can adopt "employment targets", including the unemployment rate, as one of their key development targets (in this respect it would be a reverse target, which would target a rate lower than the current one), or a baseline. In this context, it would be more useful if the targets were also gendered, and broken down by age group, such as youth (15–24 years), or older workers (50 years and above), as they tend to experience higher unemployment than other age groups.

Under-employment

Under-employment is normally defined as those who are working less than a specified number of hours, who are willing and available to work more hours; employed but with low earnings; employed but with under-utilized skills; discouraged workers (those who

have sought work over the past 6 months, but did not actively seek employment during the last 4 weeks, due to discouragement from the failure to find a job); and those who are not economically active but available for work, but not actively seeking work for reasons other than discouragement. The ILO is currently developing a composite indicator of labour "under-utilization", which would be the sum of all these, in addition to the unemployed, as part of the Decent Work indicators.[40] Across countries where data are available, women usually tend to be affected by higher labour under-utilization, as compared to men, if not in all the relevant countries (*ibid.*).

Monthly average wages

Monthly wages (the value of all the monetary payments and other benefits accruing to an employee) are measured in two ways: the average monthly nominal wages, and employers' average compensation costs for the employment of workers; these two indicators differ in their nature and primary objectives. Wages are important from the workers' point of view, and represent a measure of the level and trend of their purchasing power, and an approximation of their standard of living, while the second indicator provides an estimate of employers' expenditure toward the employment of its workforce. These indicators are complementary, in that they reflect the two main facets of existing wage measures: one aiming to measure the income of employees, the other showing the costs incurred by employers for employing them. Information on average wages represents one of the most important aspects of labour market information; wages are a substantial form of income, accruing to a high proportion of the economically active population, namely persons in paid employment (employees). It is noted that users of this indicator would need to take into account that there are limitations in the comparability of wages, and care should be taken in cross-country comparison of wage data, as sources of data can vary from one country to the other (*ibid.*; ILO 2010a; ILO 2011a).

Across various countries, gender wage gaps persist – the gender wage differential for occupations at the highest skills level (university degrees) reached as high as 32 per cent for computer programmers (in Bahrain), and 33 per cent for accountants (in the Republic of Korea). For mid-skills level (secondary-school level) occupations, the gender wage differential for salespersons reached over 40 per cent in Bolivia, with the majority of countries in the range of 10–30 per cent. Furthermore, the cross-country analysis shows that gender wage differentials are even larger in male-dominated occupations, compared to female-dominated occupations (*op. cit.*, ILO, 2010a).

40 ILO. *Tripartite Meeting of Experts on the Measurement of Decent Work* (Geneva, 2008).

4.2 Exercise: Gender dimensions of Key Labour Market Indicators

Objective:

To better understand/appreciate the key labour market indicators from a gender perspective.

Tools:

- Flip chart
- Pens

Time:

1½ hours – 45 minutes for group work, 45 minutes for discussion

Instructions:

The participants will share their respective country labour market situations based on some of the key labour market indicators in general, and from a gender perspective in particular.

1. What are the general labour market characteristics in a given country?
2. Which ones stand out for further understanding/appreciating gender gaps?
3. Share the results of group discussion in the plenary.

4.3 Analysing gender dimensions of the world of work

Learning objective:

To understand/appreciate the importance of gender disaggregation of labour-force data and in undertaking gendered analysis of the data.

We have seen key concepts related to gender and the world of work, and labour market indicators in the previous section. This section will demonstrate how to disaggregate labour market data by sex, and analyse them. Data are frequently presented in an aggregated manner in the overall analysis of labour market data. However, given various social groups participate in the labour market with different labour market outcomes in all countries, it is crucial to present the overall data disaggregated not only by sex, but also by age, which is the minimum requirement to be able to understand the key characteristics of a given labour market and economy. Where there are other factors and personal attributes which are known to be affecting the patterns of employment, and the access to resources and services, it would also be useful to analyse various aspects of labour market by not only sex but also other factors such as ethnicity, colour, religion, national origin, in addition to education and age.

Further, it is important to note that in order to understand the key employment characteristics of a given country, it is necessary to take into account the trends in a set of multiple labour market indicators. For instance, analysing only the rate of unemployment is not sufficient to understand the key employment challenges in a given country, particularly in developing countries, where being unemployed is not an option for many working poor.

4.3.1 Sex and age disaggregation of labour market indicators

In this sub-section some data sets are presented as examples, in order to demonstrate the importance of sex-disaggregation of data, which should in turn trigger the need to identify the reasons behind gender differences in the given data set.

Example 1 – Measuring gender gaps in unemployment: Global and regional trends

The following Table 2 presents unemployment rates in various regions between 2005 and 2011. What are the gender differences in unemployment rates in the various regions? Are there also regional differences in the gendered patterns of unemployment?

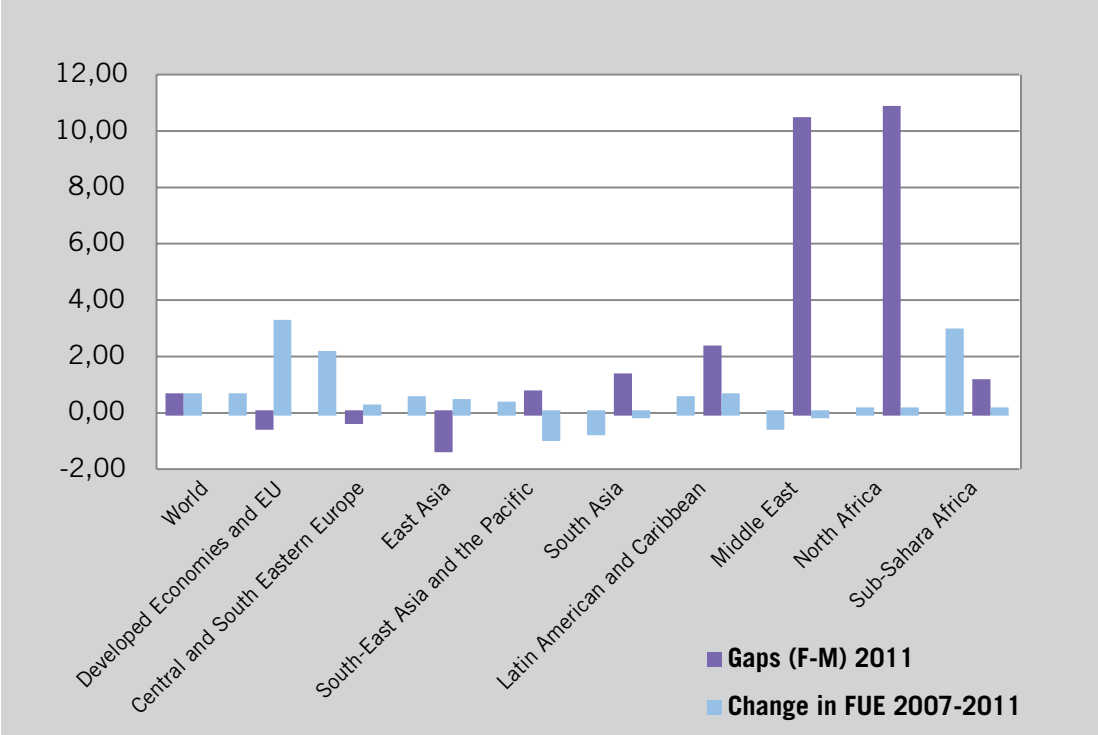
Table 2. Unemployment rates by region and sex, 2005–2011 (percentage)

		2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
World	Men	5.80	5.20	5.40	6.00	5.80	5.80
	Women	6.60	5.80	5.90	6.40	6.50	6.40
Developed Economies and EU	Men	6.60	5.50	6.00	8.70	9.10	8.70
	Women	7.30	6.10	6.20	7.90	8.40	8.20
Central and South Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS	Men	9.40	8.60	8.60	10.60	9.80	8.80
	Women	9.00	8.00	8.10	9.70	9.20	8.50
East Asia	Men	4.60	4.30	4.80	4.90	4.70	4.70
	Women	3.40	3.10	3.60	3.60	3.50	3.40
South-East Asia and the Pacific	Men	6.00	5.30	5.20	5.20	4.50	4.40
	Women	7.00	5.80	5.50	5.20	5.20	5.10
South Asia	Men	4.20	3.60	3.50	3.70	3.50	3.50
	Women	5.70	4.30	4.20	4.40	5.00	4.80
Latin America and Caribbean	Men	6.40	5.60	5.30	6.40	5.90	6.20
	Women	10.10	9.00	8.60	9.60	9.10	8.50
Middle East	Men	9.30	8.40	8.60	8.20	8.10	8.30
	Women	19.30	18.60	18.90	18.70	18.50	18.70
North Africa	Men	9.00	8.10	7.50	7.30	7.40	8.20
	Women	19.60	16.10	16.00	16.50	16.40	19.00
sub-Saharan Africa	Men	7.80	7.60	7.60	7.70	7.70	7.70
	Women	9.00	8.80	8.80	8.70	8.70	8.80

Source: ILO: Global employment trends, 2012 (Geneva, 2012).

As noted in Table 2, there are gender differences in unemployment rates and these also vary from one region to another. Globally speaking, women's unemployment rate was higher than for men by 0.6 percentage points, and in most developing regions women's unemployment rate was also higher than men's, although in varying degrees. In both the Middle East and North Africa, women's unemployment rate was more than double that of men's in 2011. Whereas in the East Asia region, women's unemployment rate was lower by 1.0 percentage point than men's in 2011 –in fact both male and female unemployment rates remained relatively low.

Figure 4. Gender gaps in unemployment and changes in female unemployment by region, 2007, 2011 (percentage)



Source: ILO: op. cit.

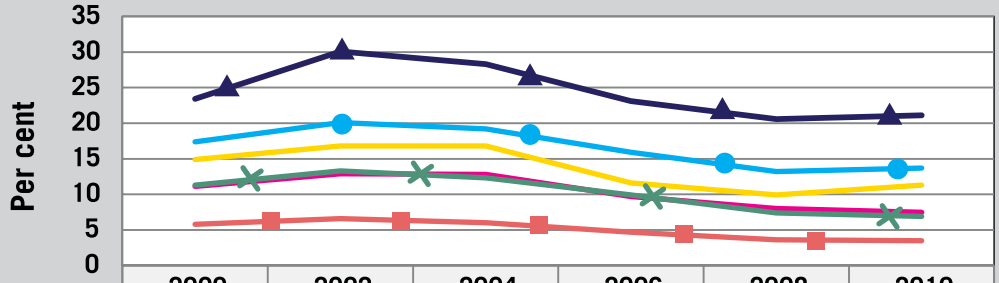
Figure 4 presents the changes in female unemployment between 2007 and 2011, and gender gaps in 2011 by region. It is noted that the gender gaps in unemployment remained substantially higher in 2011 in the Middle East and North Africa, where more traditional gender paradigm continues to inhibit women's labour market participation –far more than in other regions. In the advanced economies and Europe, where the unemployment increased substantially in general, female unemployment also shot up by more than 2 percentage points between 2007 and 2011. However, it is interesting to note that despite the global economic crisis which had tremendous impacts on labour markets across the globe, female unemployment declined in all sub-regions in Asia and the Pacific, displaying a resistance to the crisis. It is therefore important to analyse both trends and changes over time, and specific levels of unemployment for women and men at a specific time given, in both gender-differentiated and comparative terms.

Example 2 – Measuring unemployment trends by sex, age and education: The case of Sri Lanka

It is also very important to ensure that the relevant available data are disaggregated not only by sex, but also by age. This is also because youth (15–24 or 15–29 years) and older workers (over 50 years) participate in the labour market differently, as compared to the middle-aged adult labour force (25–49 or 30–49). In fact, these age groups typically face higher unemployment, compared to the middle-aged adult group.

The following Figure 5 shows unemployment trends in Sri Lanka, with disaggregation by sex, age, and education level, between the years 2000 and 2010. By plotting the data in a chart by gender, we can also see the clear gender differences in the rates of unemployment over the years. In addition, by plotting the data by age group, you will also note that the youth unemployment rates are substantially higher than either the male or female unemployment rate, and it is thus possible to see that education levels matter in how people participate in the labour market in Sri Lanka.

Figure 5: Unemployment trends in Sri Lanka, 2000–2010 (percentage)



	2000	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010
Men	5.8	6.6	6.0	4.7	3.6	3.5
Women	11.1	12.9	12.8	9.7	8.0	7.5
15-19	23.4	30.1	28.3	23.1	20.6	21.1
20-29	17.4	20.1	19.2	15.9	13.2	13.7
GCE (O/L)	11.3	13.3	12.3	9.9	7.4	6.9
GCE (A/L)	14.9	16.8	16.8	11.6	9.9	11.3

Note: GCE – General Certificate of Education, O/L – Ordinary Level, A/L – Advanced Level)
Source: Ministry of Finance and Planning, Department of Census and Statistics: Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey Report, 2011 (Colombo, 2011).

Example 3 – Measuring gender gaps in global trends of vulnerable employment

Table 3 and Figure 6 both present a pattern of vulnerable employment by sex and region between the years 2005 and 2011. Vulnerable employment is a relatively new concept that combines both "own-account work" and "contributing family work", both of which are employment statuses that are correlated to low levels of development and high levels of poverty. The level of vulnerable employment is also related to the level of working poverty and informality of employment.

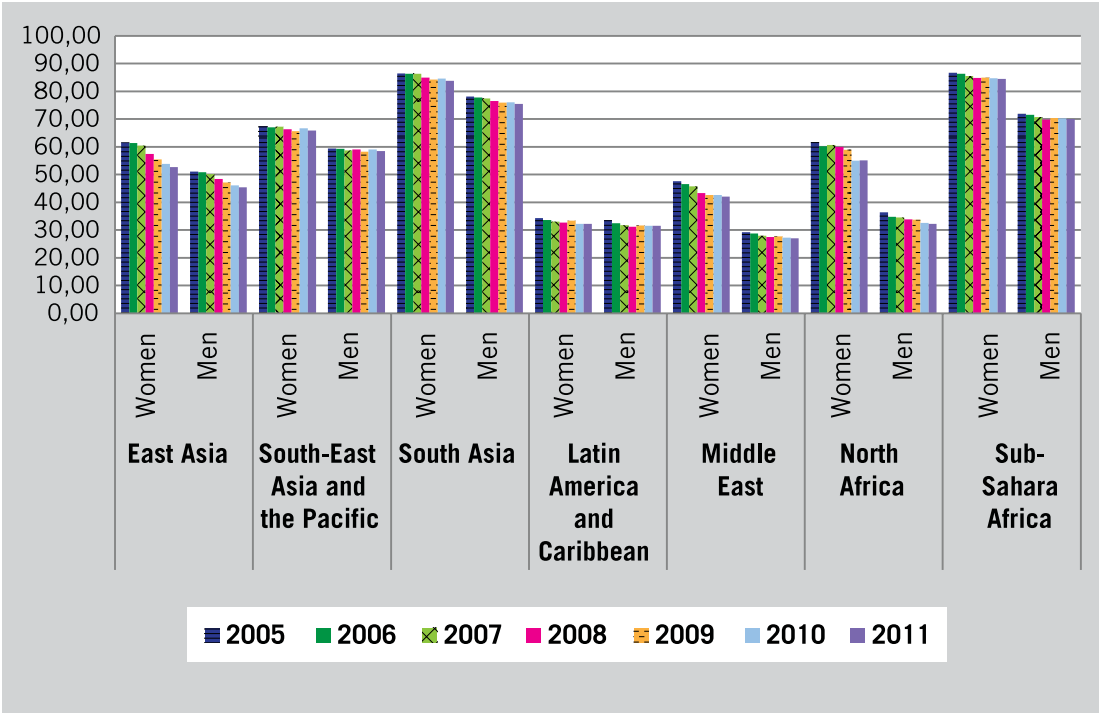
Table 3. Vulnerable employment by region and sex, 2005–2011 (percentage)

		2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
World	**Women**	54.5	53.5	52.0	51.5	51.0	50.5
	Men	50.4	49.5	48.5	48.7	48.6	48.2
Developed Economies and EU	**Women**	9.1	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.4
	Men	11.3	10.9	10.7	10.8	11.2	11.0
Central and South Eastern Europe (non-EU and CIS)	**Women**	21.8	20.1	19.9	19.8	20.5	20.2
	Men	23.4	21.1	20.7	21.2	21.2	20.9
East Asia	**Women**	61.6	60.5	57.4	55.5	53.9	52.7
	Men	51.1	50.2	48.4	47.2	46.1	45.4
South-East Asia and the Pacific	**Women**	67.5	67.3	66.3	65.6	66.7	65.9
	Men	59.4	58.7	59.1	58.3	59.1	58.5
South Asia	**Women**	86.5	86.3	85.0	84.3	84.6	83.8
	Men	78.1	77.5	76.5	75.9	76.1	75.5
Latin America and Caribbean	**Women**	34.3	33.1	32.7	33.4	32.3	32.3
	Men	33.6	31.8	31.2	31.7	31.6	31.6
Middle East	**Women**	47.6	45.8	43.3	42.7	42.7	42.1
	Men	29.2	28.0	27.5	27.7	27.3	27.0
North Africa	**Women**	61.7	60.7	60.0	59.0	55.0	55.1
	Men	36.4	34.6	33.9	33.7	32.6	32.2
sub-Saharan Africa	**Women**	86.7	85.5	84.8	85.0	84.7	84.5
	Men	71.9	70.8	69.8	70.4	70.3	70.0

Source: ILO, op. cit.

Given substantial gender gaps across some of the poorer developing regions, and varied patterns of gender gaps among various regions, it would also be very important and necessary to analyse the gender gaps here to search for reasons for such patterns. In which region are the rates the highest for women and men, and what are the gender gaps? While the overall rates have been on the decline, are there differences between women and men?

Figure 6: Vulnerable employment in selected developing regions by sex, 2005–2011 (percentage)



Source: ILO, op. cit.

Example 4 – Measuring gender wage gaps

Table 4 and Figure 7 present monthly wages of selected occupations by sex in Bangladesh in 2007. As can be seen there are substantial gender wage gaps (between 55.87 and 8.26 per cent) for the various occupations given. It is likely both the gaps in hours of work as well as gender discrimination are factors affecting such gender wages gaps.[41]

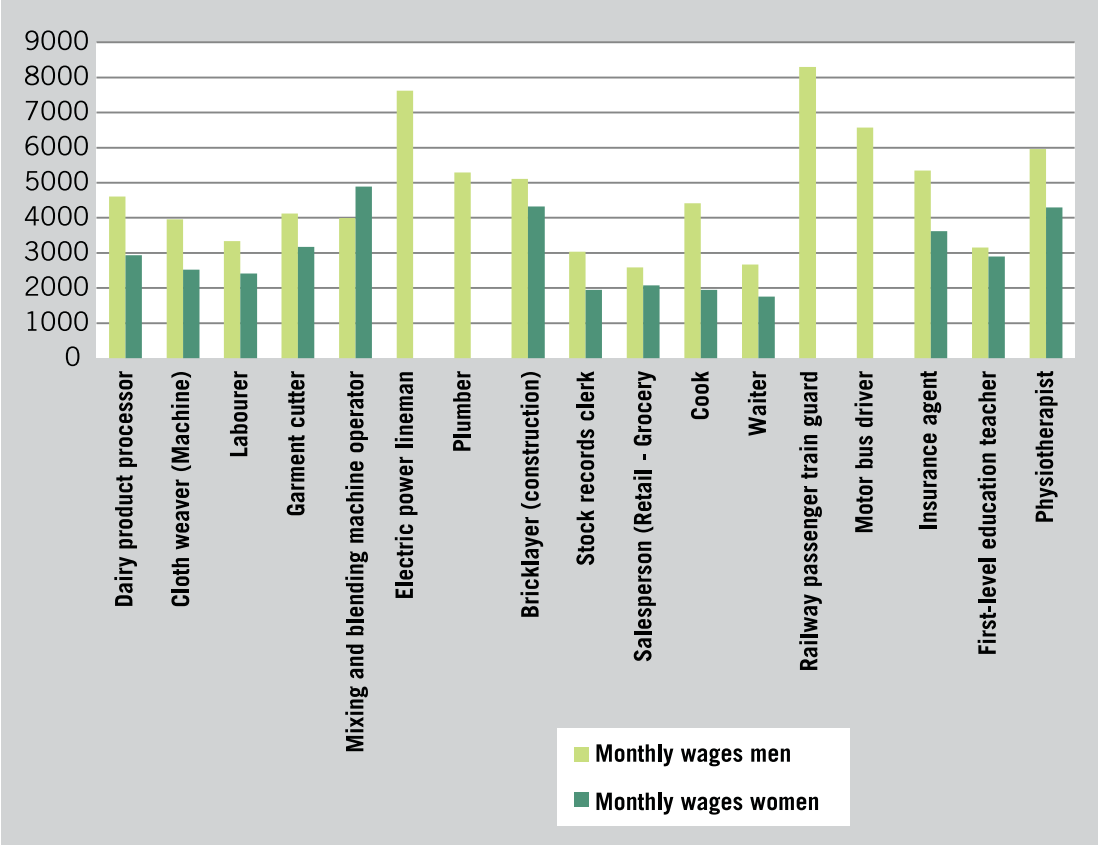
Table 4. Bangladesh: Monthly wages of selected occupations by sex, 2007 (BGD Taka)

Occupation	Men	Women	Wage gap (M-W)/M (%)
Dairy product processor	4609	2938	36.26
Cloth weaver (Machine)	3962	2520	36.40
Labourer	3337	2413	27.69
Garment cutter	4121	3173	23.00
Mixing and blending machine operator	3999	4888	-22.23
Electric power lineman	7619	-	
Plumber	5289	-	
Bricklayer (construction)	5111	4320	15.48
Stock records clerk	3035	1950	35.75
Salesperson (retail/grocery)	2589	2075	19.85
Cook	4412	1947	55.87
Waiter	2667	1758	34.08
Railway passenger train guard	8294	-	
Motor bus driver	6572	-	
Insurance agent	5346	3625	32.19
First-level education teacher	3159	2898	8.26
Physiotherapist	5955	4293	27.91

Source: ILO LABORSTA online (Geneva), see http://laborsta.ilo.org [accessed on 9 December 2013]

41 See also Kapsos, S.: *Gender wage gap in Bangladesh* (Bangkok, ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 2008). In Bangladesh, in 2007 the percentage of hourly wage for women compared to that of men ranges between 59.6 in the construction sector and 84.6 per cent in the education sector.

Figure 7. Monthly wages by sex, selected occupations in Bangladesh, 2007 (BGD Taka)



Source: ILO LABORSTA online (Geneva), see http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/c1e.html [accessed on 9 December 2013].

Across the world, there remain gender wage gaps with varying degrees; indeed in the EU there have been widening gender gaps in wages over the years. According to the ILO's analysis, there is a negative relationship between female labour-force participation and gender wage gaps. There is also an association between high unemployment and wide wage differentials, although this is not the case for all regions (*op. cit.* ILO, 2010a). ILO's KILM[42] analysed the pay gaps by skills, which found that the average wages in the top five occupations were more than double the average in the remaining 14 occupations analysed.[43] The same study also concludes that earning gaps had been widening since the 1980s. The wages of highly skilled workers had increased, while those of low-skilled workers had increased more slowly, remained stagnant, or decreased. While gender wage gaps vary across countries, even in the same occupation, gender wage gaps are strongly influenced by the occupational sex segregation. In countries where the data were available, the average wage differences between those male-dominated occupations and female-dominated occupations ranged between none in Cuba and 43.1 per cent in Moldova – and the gap was more than 20 per cent in 8 of the 14 countries analysed.[44]

42 ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* (Geneva, 2008).

43 The top 5 occupations were: power distribution engineer; accountant; computer programmer; first-level education teacher and professional nurse.

44 See Table 4 in ILO: *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges* (Geneva, 2010), p. 57.

Receiving decent and living wages is very important for ensuring that workers and their dependants can live decent and dignified lives. In this respect, the fact that women on average continue to receive lower wages than men has significant importance and relevance to what is called "feminization" of poverty.

4.3.2 Analysing sex disaggregated data: What does it mean?

In the previous sub-section, we have seen how some labour market data can and should be disaggregated not only by age, but also by sex. Labour-force data should also be analysed following the urban-rural divide as well. For formulating inclusive employment policies, a better understanding of gender and age disaggregated employment patterns is the point of departure. Without sex and age disaggregation of the data, it would be very difficult to formulate informed effective employment policies, i.e., reducing unemployment and under-employment rates for some social groups which are affected by such rates. This would require well-considered and targeted policy interventions in order to remove the labour market barriers which are often specific to particular social groups, as these can vary from one group to another. This would also mean that the disaggregated data would also need to be analysed, in order to identify the reasons underlying such gaps and differences.

For instance, some presumed reasons for women's higher inactivity – lower economic activity, unemployment, and generally lower quality of employment, have been explained in the earlier sections. However, we need to always ask specific questions as to **whether there are any gender differences** in available data on the labour market indicators in the first instance, and **why there are such gender gaps or differences** either positive or negative, in order to find answers and identify reasons behind such gaps and differences. Furthermore, as earlier mentioned, sex and other personal attributes such as colour, race, religion and age could also be additional grounds for causing double or triple discrimination, or for creating higher barriers to access to the labour market. For instance, where there are multi-ethnic groups in a given labour market it is also crucial not only to gather but also to analyse the labour market data by sex and ethnicity. It is most likely that women in a more discriminated group (such as an ethnic minority) face higher labour market barriers, both compared to respective cohort male groups or to women of the majority ethnic group.

In addition, where data are available, it is also important to analyse, for instance, unemployment patterns not only by sex but also by education-attainment levels (see Example 2). While it is assumed that the higher the education levels, the lower the unemployment rates, this is not always the case in all countries. For instance, among youth in Sri Lanka, young women's unemployment rates are much higher than for men, and this is even more accentuated among educated young women. Many reasons can explain such a situation: women prefer to wait for job vacancies in the public sector, where jobs are better remunerated than those in the private sector, come with higher social protection and which are covered under labour laws; the choice of occupations for educated women remains limited due to the underdevelopment of the private-sector job market; there is gender-based discrimination on the part of employers in the private sector; and there is a mismatch between the skills and education that women possess and the jobs offered in the private sector.

4.4 Exercise – Analysing gender dimensions of labour market data

Objective:

Participants will learn how to analyse labour market data, putting forward underlying reasons for gender gaps in the given data.

Tools:

Flip charts, big writing pens

Time:

Total of 1 hour – ½-hour group work, ½-hour presentation (depending on the number of groups).

Instructions:

Each group will select one of the examples in Section 5: Analysing gender dimensions of the labour market indicators.

1. Explain gender differences in the example given/chosen.
2. Explain/speculate the underlying reasons for such gender gaps.
3. Present the results of group work in the plenary.

© ILO/M.Crozet

4.5 Use and outcome of the gendered analysis of the labour market indicators for policy-making

Once we undertake a gender analysis of the labour market data, those groups that are most affected by **unemployment, under-employment, working poverty, vulnerable employment, informality, as well as involuntary inactivity**, would naturally be the priority target(s) for employment policies. This would mean women in poor developing countries should often be part of the primary targets for employment policies and strategies, in addition to **youth** and **older workers, as well as those with disabilities** who are typically more likely to experience higher levels of **un-** and **under-employment, informality,** and **working poverty**.

However, more micro-level analysis might be needed, if a country is to formulate direct employment-promotion programmes or design targeted active labour market measures, which would require structured interviews or surveys, such as School-to-Work Transition surveys[45] or socio-economic surveys, in order to find the exact constraints such groups face. Such enquiries can address the type of economic activity if any; hours of work (for both paid and unpaid work, and both SNA and non-SNA activities); income; education and skills type and levels; working experiences and past occupations (if any); distance to the nearest market, and so on. Such a structured survey can also be complemented with focus-group discussions of the target population in targeted geographical regions, which are most affected by high levels of unemployment, under-employment and poverty. However, specific methods for undertaking such analyses are outside the scope of this guide.

45 See ILO's resources on School-to-Work transition survey at: http://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/WCMS_140862/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].




5. Identifying key policy entry points and integrating gender concerns in employment policy measures[46]

Learning objective:

To better understand how gender-equality concerns should be integrated in the various intervention measures in employment policies. The framework is broadly based on the checklist contained in the Vision Document of Global Employment Agenda (see Annex 2)[47]

5.1 Integrating gender concerns into macroeconomic policies

The macroeconomic policies of the past 20 years have focused on the control of inflation, while structural adjustment policies have been applied to reduce the role of the State, promote private-sector development, deregulate domestic markets and liberalize international trade and capital flows. Under the increasing international integration of economies, external factors have increasingly determined the "policy space" available to governments. Income inequality between and within countries has also increased, while the workers' wage share in GDP has been declining across countries (ILO, 2008b). The need to attract and retain internationally mobile capital has placed countries under pressure to maintain high interest rates, low rates of inflation, flexible labour markets and tax incentives to attract foreign direct investments. However, such policy prescriptions are now being increasingly questioned, since the policy space, especially in poor developing countries, has been shrinking and adequate counter-cyclical responses are being constrained (UN, 2009).

Furthermore, during the past two decades of market liberalization in the aegis of globalization, macroeconomic policies have been mostly insensitive to gender dimensions and issues. Given the unequal access for women and men to various resources, economic incentives provided by macroeconomic policies can have gender-differentiated impacts on the distribution of resources (such as natural resources, capital, and land). This leads to sectoral change, and hence, changing patterns and distribution of the workforce (composed of women/men), as well as hours spent on both productive and unpaid care work by both women (and girls) and men (and boys).

46 Otobe, N.: *Global economic crisis, gender and employment: the impact and policy response* (Geneva, ILO, 2011).

47 ILO: *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of Decent Work, "Vision document"* (Geneva, 2006) (see: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_103335.pdf [accessed on 7 December 2013]. See also ILO: *Guidelines on gender in employment policies* (Geneva, 2009), for further discussion on gender mainstreaming in employment policies.

It is important, therefore, to monitor the differentiated impacts of various macroeconomic policies on women and men in the world of work, as different macro policies can have different outcomes for them, depending on where they are, that is, in which sectors they work and under what particular economic environments. In undertaking the analysis of social content of macro policies, it is fundamental that such analysis be gendered, and potential implications of such policies analysed through a gender specific manner, so that gendered policy implications can be drawn for women and men in the world of work.

Many developing countries have been negatively impacted upon by the recent declines in trade, foreign direct investments and remittances in the aftermath of the 2008–09 global economic crisis. Given the high concentration of women in labour-intensive export sectors in a number of developing countries, creating a conducive macroeconomic environment, both in terms of macroeconomic stability and monetary policy to keep exports competitive would be beneficial for maintaining and boosting employment in the export sector, particularly for women (Heintz, 2006).

Macroeconomic policies can also include employment objectives, rather than solely aiming at an inflation target and macroeconomic stability. Furthermore, expansionary fiscal policies are more conducive for increasing employment than tighter fiscal policies, particularly for women, as a counter-cyclical measure (*ibid.*). Creating a more favourable fiscal space for public investment in social-sector development, such as health and education, can also create more jobs for women, given women's higher concentration in these sectors.

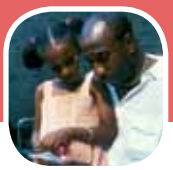
Evidence shows that the female labour supply is more sensitive to taxes than the male labour supply. Reducing the tax burden for secondary earners (mostly women) by taxing on individuals rather than at the family level can potentially result in improvements in aggregate labour market outcomes (IMF, 2013).

Tax cuts, for instance of value added taxes and maintaining/enhancing public subsidies for key basic foods and production inputs (such as fertilizer and fuel), are also useful for enhancing the purchasing power of the poor, particularly women in economic downturns. Women farmers are responsible for 60–80 per cent of staple crops in developing countries, and they also work longer hours than men, if hours for both productive and unpaid reproductive work (such as taking care of families) are combined. In order not to exacerbate poor women's work burdens, such fiscal support measures are extremely useful, especially in the wake of quadruple food, fuel, economic, and job crises.

Many developing countries have also undertaken gender-responsive budgeting,[48] which can be undertaken in the design and review of stimulus packages. Gender budgeting can enhance the chances of women equitably benefiting from counter-cyclical measures, both in public investment for job retention and creation, and expanding social protection, in particular for the poor and the most vulnerable (see Box 4).

48 See also UNIFEM's website on Gender Responsive Budgeting, http://www.gender-budgets.org/ [accessed on 7 December 2013].

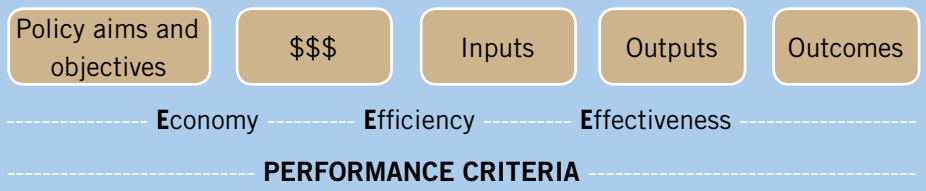


Box 4: Gender budgeting within the framework of outputs and outcomes budgeting

Motivated by considerations of transparency and efficiency, more and more countries are moving towards performance-oriented budgeting. This trend away from line-item budgeting has resulted in a number of variations, including activity-based budgeting; programme budgeting, outputs and outcomes budgeting. Broadly speaking, the approach involves the incorporation of performance information in the budget process, thus seeking to influence budget decisions.

The diagram below illustrates how the **"3Es"** performance criteria are applied within the conventional framework of outputs and outcomes budgeting.



- Inputs are measured according to issues related to economy
- Outputs are measured according to their efficiency, and
- The performance of outcomes is measured in relation to their effectiveness.

In *Budgeting For Equity*, Sharp[49] explores the potential within this framework for the introduction of gender budgeting, and points to three dimensions of the task:

- the inclusion of gender-disaggregated measures of input, outputs and outcomes;
- the addition of equity as a performance indicator –that is, a fourth "E" added to the existing concerns of economy, efficiency and effectiveness;
- a radical critique of conventional output and outcomes budgeting, to allow for performance indicators capable of tracking progress toward gender equality.

The addition of the fourth "E" presents challenges, in particular because the measurement of the existing "3Es" is done on a ratio function, that is, the economy of inputs refers to the minimum cost; efficiency refers to ratio of inputs to outputs; and effectiveness refers to ratio of outputs to outcomes. Nevertheless, Sharp[50] presents concrete examples of how equity indicators can be added at all three stages of budget activity.

Source: Quinn, S.: Gender budgeting: Practical implementation (Strasbourg, Directorate of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, General Council of Europe, 2009), p. 43.

49 Sharp, R.: Budgeting for equity: Gender budget initiatives within a framework of performance oriented budgeting (New York, UNIFEM, 2009).

50 See also Budlender, D. & Sharp, R. with Allen, K.: How to do a gender-sensitive analysis: Contemporary research and practice (London, Commonwealth Secretariat, Australian Agency for Development, 1998).

Box 5: Policy check questions on macroeconomic policies

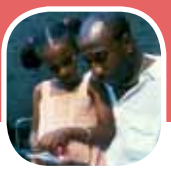
- Have the proposed macroeconomic policies taken into consideration potential gender-differentiated direct and indirect impacts on women, men, boys, and girls?
- If not, what are the critical issues that need to be taken into account to ensure that both the female and male population would benefit from such macroeconomic policies? Could the proposed policy measures result in further enforcing gender gaps that already exist in the economy and labour market?
- How are the current tax systems working? – Could the proposed tax system discriminate against and/or have a negative impact on women, as consumers and workers?
- Have the public expenditures been allocated taking into consideration the potentially different impacts on women, men, girls, and boys?

5.2 Sectoral policies

Countries undergo economic transformation as they develop. Such economic transformation also brings about sectoral transformation of the labour market. In order to create more productive jobs and decent work, various sectors of the economy need to move up the ladder of value chains and diversify in branches of economy. Given that the labour market is gender-segregated, and given women's predominance in labour-intensive manufacturing –typically assembly-type industries (such as textiles and clothing (T&C), food processing, electronic equipment, and so on), and in the service sector in developing countries, how the government provides incentives for "growth-oriented sectors" would impact on where women and men would work.

Should a country pursue a sectoral growth path which is likely to hire more men, such as developing a mining sector, women are likely to suffer from lack of employment growth. It is therefore important to take into account not only the employment content of the on-going and expected sectoral growth, but also the potential impacts on various segments of workforce. For this reason, it is good to also promote services and social sectors (such as health and education) among others, where women tend to be employed more frequently, especially if there is substantially higher unemployment for women than for men in a given country. At the same time, women should also be encouraged and given equal opportunities for training and retraining, given the opportunity to acquire new skills in emerging and innovative technologies, and especially to be able to capture new sectors, such as the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) sector. As earlier discussed, the higher the skills and knowledge content of jobs, the higher the wages. Therefore, it is also important to promote the breaking of gender stereotypes in occupations and skills, not only for women but also for men.



Box 6: Policy response to global economic crisis on the T&C sector in Cambodia[51]

Due to the global downturn, and with a drastic decline of US imports by late 2009, over 70,000 jobs were lost in the T&C sector (some 90 per cent of the workforce in the sector were young women, from rural areas). The share of T&C sector in total employment was 4 per cent,[52] but for women workers this had been the largest formal sector employer. What was even worse was that a substantial number of women (estimated to be between 80–100,000) were engaged in the sex sector,[53] and there was a high risk for some of the retrenched garment sector female workers to be lured into the sex sector due to the lack of alternative employment and income opportunities.

The ILO undertook a tracer survey on the impacts of the global economic crisis on the workers in the T&C sector between 2009 and 2010. At the onset of the crisis, a substantial share of workers said that their working conditions had deteriorated since 2008, in terms of safety and health, due to delays in salary payments, as well as more difficulty in asking for a day off. More than half of workers (55 per cent) expressed difficulties in being able to meet expenses for food; while only 28 per cent felt this way one year ago. A majority of workers (58 per cent) felt that they did not have enough money to send home today, compared to 43 per cent one year ago.[54] Of the 60 per cent of those 958 workers retrenched in 2009 who were surveyed, 60 per cent were still looking for a job; 55 per cent tried to seek employment in the garment sector, while 30 per cent had sought jobs in other sectors.[55]

The government was intending to implement the following measures:

- Suspend the 1 per cent advance profit tax;
- Announce the reduction of 10 per cent in export management fees and other costs;
- Plan to negotiate with the EU for the relaxation of the tight rules of origin, which would lower the required local input content from 45 per cent to 25 per cent;
- Plan to continue seeking preferential treatment with the USA or a reduction in import tariffs for General System of Preferences (GSP) projects;
- Recommend the following at the January 2009 meeting of the ASEAN Federation of Textiles and Apparels (the current Chairmanship was held by the Garment Manufacturers Association in Cambodia (GMAC)):
  - Source raw materials less from China and more from the ASEAN region;
  - Exploit duty-free arrangements not only with the EU, but also with Japan and Canada;
  - Strengthen links with Vietnam (they already have a bilateral agreement) and reach a similar agreement with Laos and Thailand;
  - Apply the ASEAN Single Window Programme that can significantly expedite customs clearance and provide traders with access to the whole ASEAN region through Sihanoukville port.

Source: Jalilian, H., et al., Global financial crisis discussion series, Paper 4: Cambodia, (London, ODI, 2009).

51 The ILO also provided technical advisory support through undertaking a tracer study on the impact of the crisis on the garment sector, other analytical work and the Better Work Programme. See Dasgupta, S.; Poutianen, T. and Williams, D.: *From downturn to recovery: Cambodia's garment sector in transition* (Bangkok, ILO, 2011)

52 Dasgupta, S., *The impact of the economic crisis on women workers in Cambodia's garment sector*, presented at 4th ASEAN+3 High-Level Seminar on Poverty Reduction. See also ILO: *Asia-wide Regional High-level Meeting on The Impact of the Global Economic Slowdown on Poverty and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific* (Bangkok, 2009).

53 *Phnom Penh* Post, 14 February 2003.

54 Chandarot, K. and Dannet, L., *Tracking study of Cambodian garment sector workers affected by the global economic crisis: Benchmarking survey report* (draft mimeograph) (Bangkok, ILO, 2009).

55 Ibid. p. 12.

Box 7: Policy check questions on sectoral development policies

- How are the current economic structure and labour market structure shaped? Are there sectors which are male or female dominated?
- Where employment growth is expected, would those economic sectors more likely employ women or men?
- If women are more highly unemployed and under-employed, could the development of social sectors be considered, as part of sectoral development strategies?

5.3 Investing in girls and women for enhancing knowledge, skills and employability

Investing in human development of female population not only makes good economic sense, but is also good for sustainable development and breaking the intergenerational cycle of poverty. The health and nutrition of children of educated mothers is often better than those of uneducated mothers and their girls' chances of education are also higher. Evidence has shown that ensuring equal opportunities for access to education and training is critical towards increasing the chances of girls to be productively employed in the later stages of their life (UN, 2012).

In the design of employment policies, stimulus packages and anti-crisis measures, girls and young women can be targeted for education and skills development respectively, in response to the current and future labour market needs. Counter-crisis measures in particular can target those women workers retrenched from the formal sector through re-skilling, so that they can better adapt to new technologies and jobs in other sectors, in economic and labour market adjustments.




Box 8: Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE)

TREE is an ILO community-based training programme implemented in Asia and Africa. It promotes income generation and employment opportunities for disadvantaged women and men by providing them with skills and knowledge they can use in their communities. Its strategy involves planning with local partner institutions; careful identification of economic opportunities, and training-needs assessment in the community; designing and delivering relevant skills training; and post-training support to facilitate trainees' access to wage or self-employment.

In Bangladesh, TREE encouraged women to enter non-traditional trades, such as the repair of appliances and computers. The approach combined technical and business training with training in gender issues and gender-sensitization sessions for trainees' families, communities and partner organizations. In rural Pakistan, where social norms restricted women's participation in training outside their homes, female resource persons went to villages and trained rural women at home. The increased income-generating activities of trainees also generated greater respect for women in the community, and many experienced increased mobility, self-esteem and socio-economic empowerment.

Source: ILO: A generic Manual on Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE) (Geneva, 2009), see http://www.ilo.org/skills/projects/WCMS_103528/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

In many developing economies job opportunities for women are found in a narrower range of occupations and sectors (often those considered as "feminine"), compared to those for men. There also remains gender-based discrimination in the labour market; hence, it is justifiable to provide specific targeted support, in particular, for women workers in distress, especially in job crises.[56]

56 ILO: *Brochure Skills and entrepreneurship: Bridging the technology and gender divide* (Geneva, 2008). See: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@gender/documents/publication/wcms_100840.pdf [accessed on 7 December 2013].

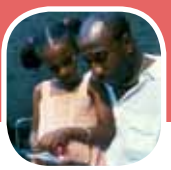
Box 9: Policy check questions on employability and skills development

- How gender responsive is the current national vocational education and technical training system in the country?
- Is the curricula used in the vocational training centres gender sensitive, or is it enforcing traditional gender stereotypes?
- Are young women and men given equal training opportunities for occupations that meet the labour markets' demands?
- What about in the area of scientific and technological skills – are women participating equally as men?
- Are women and men given equal opportunities to train in the areas where they can gain non-stereotyped occupational skills?
- Are women and men equally motivated and offered skills training in ICT areas?

5.4 Supporting women's access to credit and entrepreneurship development

Even when setting up their own business to be self-employed, women face higher barriers in access to credit, technology, business services, as well as to the market. It is therefore important to take into account specific gender constraints that poor women face in strategies that support small and medium enterprises (SMEs) development. Such constraints include: non-conducive social legal and policy environments for women to do business, lack of socially accepted mobility (in traditional and conservative families, women are not allowed to work outside the home, or mix with men in public places), long hours spent on unpaid work (taking care of families, fetching water and fuel, as well as engaged in subsistence agriculture), low levels of education and lack of numeric literacy, lack of access to institutional credit, lack of business knowledge, lack of information, lack of access to innovative technologies, and lack of organizations and institutions that can help women in establishing small businesses.



Box 10: ILO's Women's Entrepreneurship Development (WED) Programme

The ILO's Women's Entrepreneurship Development programme (ILO-WED) is part of the **S**mall **E**nterprise **D**evelopment Programme (SEED). ILO-WED works on enhancing economic opportunities for women by carrying out affirmative actions in support of women starting, formalizing, and growing their enterprises, and by mainstreaming gender-equality issues into the ILO's work in enterprise development. This approach to WED is highlighted in the ILO-WED Strategy that was adopted by the Governing Body in March 2008.

The ILO-WED approach is threefold – working with governments, employers' organizations, trade unions and local community-based organizations to create an enabling environment for WED that generates quality jobs; build institutional capacity in WED; and develop tools and support services for women entrepreneurs. It does so both through targeted approaches and gender mainstreaming, with a clear objective towards contributing towards gender equality and women's economic empowerment.

Source: ILO website on Women's Entrepreneurship Development. http://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/womens-entrepreneurship-development-wed/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013]

The recent crisis seems to have slowed down the long-term decline of vulnerable employment in some regions. In poorer developing countries where formal sector jobs are scarce, to run a small informal business would be the only alternative for many of those who have been retrenched from the formal sector or unemployed. Rather than working as a contributing family worker, it would be better for women workers to engage in a small business, to earn an income for themselves and their households. While the crisis has also constrained the financial markets for micro-credit, under the overall reduced financial liquidity, employment policies and stimulus packages in times of crises can include a special window for providing credits to SMEs, and for business training for those who are retrenched or unemployed, especially women.

Box 11: Policy check questions on entrepreneurship development

- Do the legislation and policies on SMEs development promote women's entrepreneurship development? If not, what are the critical gender barriers in the legislation and policies, including in their application?
- Do various business-service providers extend their services equally to women and men? If not, what are the critical constraints?
- Do the formal financial institutions provide credits equally to women and men? If not, what needs to change in the practice and procedures of financial services providers?
- Is the principle of equal-employment opportunities (occupation and employment) adopted and promoted by enterprises?
- Is the legislation on cooperatives inclusive, and does it provide equal opportunities to both women and men?

5.5 Promoting employment intensive public investments: a gender-responsive approach[57]

Public investments in the development of infrastructure, which is often regarded as a "male" sector, can also create jobs for women. In India, the government has adopted a National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA). The Act established a policy of providing the rural population with "a right to work", or "employment of the last resort", for 100 days of work per year, mostly for the development of rural infrastructure, including the greening of communities (see Box 12). In the Republic of Korea in the post-Asian financial crisis, women eventually reached 50 per cent of the beneficiaries, when the government relaxed both the types of work offered (to include social services and greening) and the restriction on eligibility of "heads of household" (UN, 2009).

57 The ILO's Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EMP/INVEST) also advises countries on employment intensive methodologies for various public works. See: http://www.ilo.org/emppolicy/areas/employment-intensive-investment/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

Box 12: National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme in India

The main feature of the programme promoting women's employment and income opportunities entails:

- One-third of jobs should be given to women;
- Equal wages for work of equal value;
- Requiring the provision of a crèche when there are more than five women in a programme.

The national average of women's participation was 49 per cent. In 20 States, women made up at least 30 per cent of participants in 2008. The programme reduced distressed migration, and improved income and nutrition in the workers' households. Due to the wage payment at post offices or through banks, the programme has encouraged some sections of the community to use formal financial institutions for the first time.

Source: UN: World survey on role of women in development: Women's control over economic resources and access to financial resources, including microcredit (New York, 2009), pp. 74–75.

Box 13: Policy check questions on employment intensive investment programmes

- Does the government provide for public investments in infrastructure development (roads, irrigation, reforestation, development of community centres and schools, etc.)? If so, is labour intensity considered in the choice of technologies used?
- For community-based public works, have equal voice and the specific needs of women and men been taken into account for planning on the type of public infrastructures and their location?
- Are women as equally informed as men about the wage-employment opportunities provided under public works programmes?
- Is there consideration of distance from the living location to the work sites?
- Does the programme provide for maternity protection and equal wage for work of equal value?
- Does the project provide for breastfeeding facilities for working women and crèches for working mothers/fathers with young children?
- Are women equally trained in skills' upgrading as men – in particular in becoming leaders and independent contractors?
- Where a Public Employment Programme is considered, is supporting social services (such as child and elderly care) considered as part of the programme design?

5.6 Labour market policies

Countries can adopt both **active and passive labour market policies**, while ensuring equity at the same time. Labour market policies should facilitate matching demand and supply of labour, providing **flexi-security** for workers, and basic safety nets for those who are un- and under-employed.

a) Active labour market policies

Active labour market policies are a set of policies that the government can adopt and implement in order to facilitate those who are un- and under-employed to find a job. Countries can adopt and implement the following measures:

- *Public employment services*, such as job centres and labour exchanges, help the unemployed improve their job-search effort by collecting and disseminating information on vacancies, and by providing assistance with interview skills and writing curriculum vitae through job counselling.[58]
- *Training schemes*, such as classes and apprenticeships, help the unemployed improve their vocational skills, and hence increase their employability.
- *Employment subsidies*, either in the public or private sector, directly create jobs for the unemployed. These are typically short-term measures, which are designed to allow the unemployed to build up work experience and prevent under-development of skills. Providing publicly (or privately) motivated/incentivized credit schemes for business start-up can also be implemented.

These measures are, in particular, useful for those youth, particularly young women, who typically face higher barriers in the entry to the labour market, in their school-to-work transition, as well as in times of job crisis (as seen in the aftermath of 2008–09 global economic crises). In developed countries, for instance in Europe, a study undertaken by Bergermann and Van den Berg has shown that active labour market policies have positive effects on women's employment, and the impacts are often larger than for men, especially in economies where women's labour-force participation rates are low (Bergermann; Van den Berg, 2006).

In many poorer developing countries, labour market policies geared towards job facilitation and labour market insertion to attain formal jobs are typically under-developed by the sheer fact that the share of formal sector jobs in the labour market is rather limited. Nonetheless, it is important to take into account the literacy levels of women and men, and that women also tend to be less mobile than men (due to social and cultural restrictions on women's physical mobility), hence less capable of accessing relevant information and employment service centres. In poorer developing countries where ICT network is underdeveloped, rather than relying only on computer-based labour market exchanges, it would also be useful to use public posting and newspaper announcements to post job vacancies. Public venues, such as post offices, community centres and youth centres can also be used for posting job vacancies and vocational training courses. Inclusion of specific gender preferences in job vacancies should also

58 See, for instance, Corbanese, V.: *Gender mainstreaming in the Public Employment Service in Ukraine: Trainer's guide* (Ukraine, ILO, 2011).

be forbidden by law. Enhancing the gender awareness of job counsellors should be undertaken, to ensure that both women and men will have equal access to active labour market measures. Where there are substantial gender gaps in labour-force participation rates, and a higher unemployment rate affecting women, government and enterprises can consider adopting **affirmative actions** to give priorities to women who are equally qualified as men in filling various job vacancies. In a similar light, countries could focus equally on the poorest women who are available and wish to work in paid/remunerated work in employment-promotion strategies and policies for poverty reduction, just as they may with poor men.

© ILO/M.Crozet

b) Passive labour market policies

Passive labour market policies include unemployment insurance for the unemployed, and provision of social benefits for those who are poor and excluded from the labour market.

In poorer developing countries, unemployment insurance is not well developed. As women in developing countries are typically in jobs that are more precarious, temporary, or informal than men, their access to unemployment insurance, where it exists, is likely to be more constrained than for men. It is important, therefore, for governments to ensure and enhance women's equal access and entitlements to passive labour market measures as well.

Box 14: Policy check questions on labour market policies

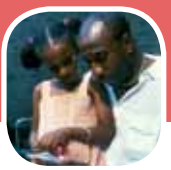
- Does the country have a specific legislation on equal wages for work of equal value? What about prohibiting gender based discrimination in wages?
- Can women and men have equal access to various active labour market measures? If not, what are the critical barriers?
- Are the Employment Services gender-aware and sensitive, so that they do not discriminate women in rendering their services?

5.7 Promoting women's equal access to social protection

At the onset of the global economic crisis in 2008–09, governments expanded the coverage of various social-protection measures. However, with the sovereign debt crisis in the major economies looming (at the time of writing this guide), such social measures are at risk of being curtailed. Given the precarious and "atypical" nature predominantly affecting women's employment, women (and youth) are more likely to lose their jobs in times of crisis. Specific measures should be taken to ensure that those who have been working under precarious and part-time contracts are able to claim unemployment benefits, where unemployment insurance exists. In most developing countries, there is no unemployment insurance and a substantial part of the labour force works in the informal economy. In addition to ensuring that legally applicable severance payments are made promptly to the retrenched workers by employers, various income-support schemes, such as conditional cash transfers (CCTs, see box below) and publicly funded social pension systems can be introduced/further expanded, especially for poor women. In particular, poor single mothers or widowed-women household heads could be targeted, since they are likely to be more economically vulnerable than those in households with two workers or those with a male worker.

© ILO/M.Crozet



Box 15: Definitions of social protection

Social transfers:

Social transfers represent a transfer from one group in a society to another (e.g., from the active age groups to the old), either in cash or in kind (access to goods and social services). The recipients qualify because they have earned entitlements through fulfilling obligations (e.g., paying contributions) and/or meeting certain social or behavioural conditions (e.g., being sick; being poor; carrying out public works). In recent years, this term has been used to describe schemes for all residents that provide benefits under the single condition of residence (universal cash transfers) or social assistance schemes that require additional behavioural conditions as prerequisites (CCTs, see below).

Social protection:

Social protection is often interpreted as having a broader character than social security (including, in particular, protection provided between members of the family, or members of a local community). It is also used in some contexts with a narrower meaning than social security (understood as comprising only measures addressed to the poorest, most vulnerable, or excluded members of society). Thus, unfortunately, in many contexts the terms "social security" and "social protection" are used interchangeably. Pragmatically, the term "social protection" is used to mean protection provided by social security systems in the case of social risks and needs.*

Social security:

The notion of social security adopted here covers all measures providing benefits, whether in cash or in kind, to secure protection from, among other things:

- lack of work-related income (or insufficient income) caused by sickness, disability, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, old age, or death of a family member;
- lack of access or unaffordable access to health care;
- insufficient family support, particularly for children and adult dependants;
- general poverty and social exclusion.

Social security schemes can be of a contributory (social insurance) or non-contributory nature.

Social assistance:

Social security benefits that are conditional on the level of income of recipient, i.e., are means-tested or based on similar forms of targeting (e.g., proxy means tests, geographical targeting), are generally called social assistance and are generally a device meant to alleviate/reduce poverty. Benefits can be delivered in cash or in kind.

>

"Conditional" social assistance schemes require beneficiaries (and/or their relatives or families), in addition to other conditions, to participate in prescribed public programmes (e.g., specified health or educational programmes). In recent years, schemes of this type have become known as *conditional cash transfer (CCT)* schemes.

Social assistance schemes are usually tax-financed and do not require a direct contribution from beneficiaries or their employers as a condition of entitlement to receive relevant benefits.

Social protection floor:

The term "social floor" or "Social Protection Floor" (SPF) is used to describe a basic set of social rights, services and facilities that every person should enjoy. The term "social floor" corresponds in many ways to the existing notion of "core obligations", to ensure the realization of minimum essential levels of rights embodied in human rights treaties.

The UN suggests that a social protection floor could consist of two main elements that help to realize human rights:

- services: geographical and financial access to essential services such as water and sanitation, health, and education;
- transfers: a basic set of essential social transfers, in cash or in kind, to provide minimum income security and access to essential services, including health care.

[*] *For further reference, see: ILO: Extending social security to all: A guide through challenges and options (Geneva, 2010), pp. 125–128.*

Source: ILO: Social security for social justice and a fair globalization, Report IV: Recurrent discussion on social security (social protection) under the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, 2011 (Geneva, 2011).

5

As part of social protection, countries can also provide legal provisions and social expenditures to cover the cost of maternity protection and childcare. Providing public support for maternity protection, particularly with pay and employment protection (non-discrimination) of pregnant women can enhance women's attachment to the labour market.[59] In addition, making provisions for parental leave for fathers can reduce the hours spent on childcare by women, which can enhance the balancing of work and family responsibilities, not only for women but also for men.[60] Furthermore, public support for providing affordable quality childcare is extremely useful for enhancing working mothers' labour-force participation in particular. Allowing some flexibility in working hours for those working parents with young children (both women and men) is another measure that enterprises can adopt.

59 ILO Maternity Protection Resource Package: http://mprp.itcilo.org/pages/en/index.html [accessed on 7 December 2013].

60 ILO Wise-R Training guide on family-friendly measures: http://www.ilo.org/travail/whatwedo/instructionmaterials/WCMS_145387/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

Box 16: Key elements of maternity protection:

The key elements of maternity protection reflect the concern that women's work not pose risks to the health of the woman and her child and that women's reproductive roles do not compromise their economic and employment security. These elements include the right to:

- maternity leave;
- cash benefits to ensure the mother can support herself and her child during leave;
- medical care;
- protection of the health of pregnant and breastfeeding women and their children from workplace risks;
- protection from dismissal and discrimination; and
- concessions for breastfeeding upon their return to work.

Source: See the ILO's Maternity Protection Resource Package, http://mprp.itcilo.org/pages/en/index.html [accessed on 7 December 2013]

© ILO/G.Palazzo

Box 17: Reducing maternal mortality in Guinea and Bangladesh

In Guinea, the CIDR (Centre International et Développement et de Recherche) launched a "safe motherhood" HMI product to cover deliveries at hospitals. The product also included emergency evacuation by ambulance and value-added services, such as antenatal visits. In the first period of cover, the product's largest impact was on maternal mortality: two deaths out of 1,271 deliveries were recorded, resulting in a maternal mortality rate of 0.26 per cent, compared with a rate of 4.52 per cent as measured by a household survey of the same population before the product launch.

The SAJIDA Foundation in Bangladesh is a microfinance programme with 500,000 members. SAJIDA offers a mandatory insurance package consisting of health, life, education and disaster (mainly fire) cover. The microfinance programme includes rapidly expanding value-added services where health workers provide on-the-doorstep primary and preventive health services, with a focus on maternity care and safe deliveries. Health workers perform simple diagnostic tests (pregnancy, blood pressure, blood sugar) for clients and their households at subsidized rates, identify needs by conducting regular health surveys, encourage and refer expectant mothers to hospitals to deliver, and follow up after discharge. Members assisted by the health worker to have a hospital delivery have experienced a child mortality rate of 1 per cent and with no maternal deaths, compared with births at home where the child mortality rate has been 5 per cent and the maternal mortality rate has been 0.6 per cent. Mothers delivering at a hospital without the prenatal attention of the health worker experience a child mortality rate of 1.6 per cent. The indications are, as might be expected, that hospital births significantly reduce mortality risks, but also that the involvement and attention of the health worker during pregnancy lowers even further the child mortality risk for hospital births.

Source: ILO: Micro-Insurance Facility; 2012 Annual report (Geneva, 2012).

Box 18: Policy check questions on social protection

- What are the social protection measures provided? How inclusive and equitable are they, in terms of access by both women and men, and in addressing women's special needs, in particular, maternity protection?
- What are the critical constraints for women's equal/equitable access to social protection?
- Are women, in particular, more vulnerable to life-cycle risks, as compared to men, for instance?

5.8 Enhancing women's equal participation and voice in social dialogue for policy-making

Generally speaking, across countries, women's share in membership in trade unions and employers' organizations is low, and even lower than men's in the leadership positions in various tripartite organizations. In the formulation of employment policies/strategies, it is important to ensure that not only gender-disaggregated data are collected and accordingly analysed, and critical employment challenges addressed through a gender lens, but that both women's and men's voices and needs are equally reflected and taken into consideration in the formulation of employment policies/strategies.

In the organization of tripartite discussions and dialogue that should take place as an employment policy is developed, it is very important to invite the Ministry of Women/Gender, and the women's branch of workers' and employer's organizations (where one exists), as well as women's organizations, into the policy dialogue. The ILO can also encourage the tripartite institutions (government, workers' and employers' organizations) to specifically designate women to attend workshops and meetings held for the policy dialogue.[61]

Box 19: Setting a quota in social dialogue institutions – The case of Belgium

In Belgium, two decrees on quotas were issued, in 1997 and 1999, imposing a balanced composition in statutory consultative organs. These established a maximum of two-thirds of members of the same sex for all consultative organs created by law, decree or decision, that were of a consultative nature to the concerned government or ministry. After 1 January 2002, those organs that did not satisfy the decrees on quotas became ineligible from providing advice, according to the law. This might explain the 26.92 per cent of women participants in the Belgian National Labour Council, almost reaching the target by law, and one of the highest percentages among the 48 institutions analysed.

Source: Breneman-Pennas, T. and Rueda Cartry, M.: Women's participation in social dialogue institutions at national level (Geneva, ILO, 2008).

Box 20: Policy check questions on social dialogue

- What is the rate of participation of women and men in the social dialogue institutions – employers' organizations and workers' organizations? What about the rate of women in their leadership structure?
- Do women equally participate in the policy dialogue? If not, what are the critical constraints in their equal participation?

61 See ILO's website on gender equality in social dialogue and industrial relations: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/areas/gender.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

5.9 Promoting gender equality, and preventing discrimination against women in migration

Women are migrating for employment on almost the same scale as men, accounting for about half of the total migrants worldwide. For many women, as for men, migration is a positive experience, leading to a better life and improvement of their economic and social position. In many instances, however, migrant workers, and in particular women, constantly experience discrimination and barriers in accessing labour rights and protection. It would be useful for the receiving countries to maintain the levels of migrant labour forces equitably for women and men, rather than restricting them, especially in times of economic crisis. Where a system exists, countries can also extend unemployment-insurance coverage to long-term migrants on the same terms as for citizens who are entitled to benefits, as a transitory measure in times of crisis.

Furthermore, national labour laws should provide for equal protection of migrant workers as that of citizens in law and practice. Given women's higher vulnerability, national authorities should provide for specific protection and legislation to address vulnerable categories of women workers, such as domestic workers[62] for instance.[63]

Box 21: Policy check questions on labour-migration policies

- Do policy measures take into account the specific vulnerability of girls and women in migration?
- Does the policy ensure that both women and men have equal access to migration facilitation services (pre-departure training and awareness raising on key labour rights, etc.)?
- Do the policy and legislation provide for equality of treatment in occupation and employment between nationals and immigrant labour in law and practice in receiving countries?
- Does the policy provide for measures for cultural, social and economic integration of migrant workers in the receiving/destination countries?
- Does the policy provide for social and economic reintegration of returning women and men migrant workers equally in the sending countries?

62 The ILO-adopted Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189) – https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:2551460 [accessed on 7 December 2013].

63 For full gender and migrant labour issues, see ILO: *Preventing discrimination, exploitation and abuse of migrant women workers: An information guide* (Geneva, 2003). See also: http://www.ilo.org/employment/Whatwedo/Instructionmaterials/WCMS_116358/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].




5.10 Exercise: Formulating gender-responsive employment policy/ strategy options

Objective:

To learn how to formulate gender-responsive measures in employment policies/ strategies.

Tools:

Flip charts, big writing pens, large-size index cards, which can be posted on the flip charts

Time:

2 hours for both group work and presentations (1-hour group discussion, 1-hour presentations)

Instructions:

1. Use the country case *Future Land*, found in the guide, or choose one of the countries which participants are from (if there are relevant information/data available).

2. Each group will discuss/articulate the key employment challenges in general, and from a gender perspective in particular. You can also identify information/data gaps you may find in the information given.

3. Each group will formulate policy options/strategies to meet some of those employment challenges identified, at the same time integrating gender concerns, as follows:

   a. Identify key employment challenges, in particular on gender dimensions: list 3–4 issues.

   b. Identify the underlying causes of these challenges/issues/problems

   c. Propose policy measures to meet these challenges – to promote employment and income opportunities equally for women and men and to meet such key employment challenges with the following structure:

      – Objectives
      – Strategy
      – Specific socially inclusive and gender-responsive employment policy measures to be taken

4. The groups will report back at the plenary.

Case: Future Land

In the open economy of Future Land, women make a substantial contribution to the exports, foreign reserve earnings and to the overall economy. They form a large majority of workers in key export sectors, such as textile and clothing (T&C), as well as in foreign employment. However, most of the women in these sectors work in occupations that are characterized by low wages, arduous and poor working conditions. Only a minority of women who are highly educated have made inroads into better-quality employment, in particular in the public sector.

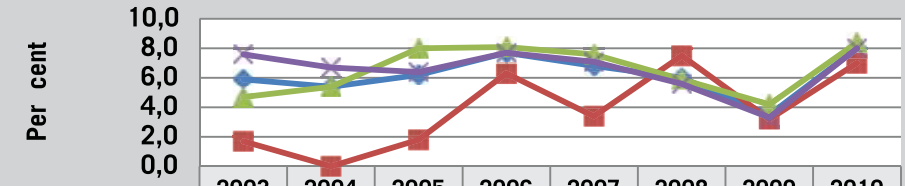
Despite overall progress made in improving the status of women, promoting women's rights and access to education, and accordingly advancing in the overall gender equality, substantial gender gaps persist in Future Land, both in terms of quantity and quality of employment. Gender, combined with ethnicity and class, still influence the quality and quantity of employment that women and men are engaged in, and recruitment often happens through patronage and connections along political, ethnic and other social lines.

The recent global economic crisis caused a substantial number of retrenchments in the light manufacturing, construction, and services sectors. More men lost jobs than women in Future Land in the immediate aftermath of the economic crisis, but the T&C sector – an important export sector – was also hard hit, where a large majority of workers were women. After the economic deceleration between 2008 and 2009, however, the country saw a quick economic recovery. Economic growth rate bounced back to over 8 per cent between 2010 and 2011.

While the overall unemployment rates have been declining over the last 10 years, the youth-unemployment rate, in particular for women, has remained stubbornly very high. At the same time, thousands of workers departed to work abroad, contributing a huge amount of remittances to the foreign exchange and to the economy as a whole. During the last decade almost one and half times as many women as men departed to work abroad, mostly engaged in domestic work, and often subjected to harsh working conditions, or even physical abuse and sexual violence.

© ILO/M.Crozet

Figure 8: Future Land: GDP and sectoral growth rates, 2003–2010 (percentage)



	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
GDP	5.9	5.4	6.2	7.7	6.8	6.0	3.5	8.0
Agriculture	1.7	0.0	1.8	6.3	3.4	7.5	3.2	7.0
Industry	4.7	5.4	8.0	8.1	7.6	5.9	4.2	8.4
Services	7.6	6.7	6.4	7.7	7.1	5.6	3.3	8.0

Table 5: Future Land: Sectoral output and employment, 2000, 2010 (percentage)

	2000			2010		
	Growth[a]	Share of GDP	Share of Employment	Growth[b]	Share of GDP	Share of Employment
GDP	4.0			8.0		
Agriculture	0.5	19.7	36.0	7.0	11.9	32.5
Industry	3.3	25.7	23.7	8.4	28.7	24.6
Services	5.4	54.6	40.3	8.0	59.3	42.9

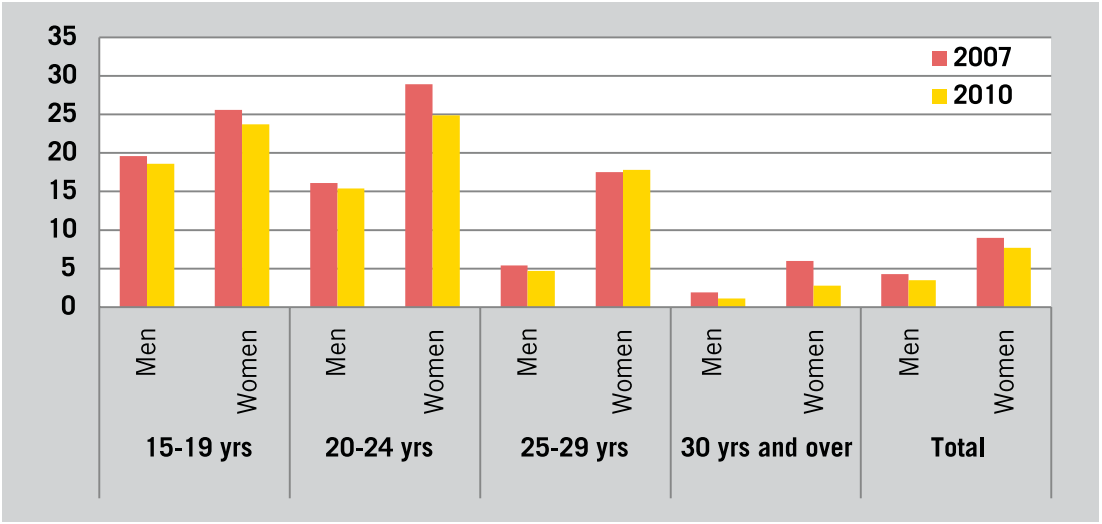
Notes: (a) Annual average for 2000–04; (b) Annual average for 2005–10.

Table 6: Future Land: Demographic and labour force trends

	2000	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010
Population ('000 persons)	19,102	19,007	19,462	19,886	20,217	20,653
Labour force ('000 persons)	6,827	7,145	8,061	7,599	7,569	7,610
LFPR (%)	50.3	50.3	48.6	51.2	50.2	48.6
Male	67.2	67.9	66.7	68.1	67.9	67.3
Female	33.9	33.6	31.5	35.7	34.3	32.1
Unemployment rate (%)	7.6	8.8	8.3	6.5	5.2	4.9
By sex:						
Male	5.8	6.6	6.0	4.7	3.6	3.5
Female	11.1	12.9	12.8	9.7	8.0	7.5
By age group:						
15-19	23.4	30.1	28.3	23.1	20.6	21.1
20-29	17.4	20.1	19.2	15.9	13.2	13.7
By education level:						
GCE (O/L)	11.3	13.3	12.3	9.9	7.4	6.9
GCE (A/L)	14.9	16.8	16.8	11.6	9.9	11.3
Under-employment rate (%)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.3	4.0	3.8
Male	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	4.8	3.4	3.3
Female	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.3	5.2	4.9

Source: Central Bank of Future Land, Annual Report, various issues.
Notes: LFPR=Labour Force Participation Rate; n.a. = data is not available.

Figure 9: Future Land: Unemployment rate by age and sex, 2007 and 2010 (percentage)



6. Monitoring and evaluating National Employment Policies/Strategies: Gender dimensions

Learning objective:

To learn how to integrate gender dimensions in the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of national employment, and labour market policies and strategies.

There are two levels when monitoring the results and impact of employment and labour market policies/strategies: one is at the intervention level, which typically is monitored by a similar approach to the results-based management (RBM) framework; the other is by monitoring the trends and changes in regional or/and national level labour market information. In this section the focus will be placed more on the monitoring and evaluation at the labour market level.

6.1 Gender dimensions of monitoring and evaluation of a National Employment Action Plan

Once the employment and labour market policies are articulated, a country can develop an implementation plan (ILO 2012e, p. 145). Accordingly, each policy-intervention area can articulate specific immediate outcomes, activities, and outputs. To the extent that this includes women/men as specific outputs/targets, a consideration should be made as to whether specific sex-disaggregated benchmarks/targets should be included in such an operational plan. For instance, in relation to skills' development policies, there can possibly be a specific target of the number of women/men who will undergo certain types of vocational training. As for the SMEs development, the monitoring and evaluation framework can include the number (or percentage) of small and medium enterprises established/owned by women, and so on (see Table 7 below, as an example).

Table 7: Example of a National Employment Action Plan			
Policy measures	**Outputs/Action**	**Indicator**	**Source of verification**
Outcome 1: More women and men have skills in non-traditional occupations responding to the labour market demands			
Reform and modernization of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system	1.1.1. Review of current TVET system (with gender disaggregation and analysis of the trainees) 1.1.2 Skills needs mapping (including potential occupations where both women/men can engage in) 1.1.3 Introducing training on green and new technologies	1.1 The number and percentage of women and men who successfully complete non-traditional skills training 1.2 Percentage of those graduates (women/men) of training who will be placed in regular jobs	Benchmark and follow-up reports with gender disaggregation by TVET Authority

Policy measures	Outputs/Action	Indicator	Source of verification
Outcome 2: More young women and men are engaged in SMEs			
2.1 Reform of legislation and policy on SMEs development 2.2 Integration of SMEs development material into secondary education and TVET curricula 2.3 Enhancing access to micro-credit for young women and men	2.1.1 Review of current legislation and policies on SMEs (including those impacting on women doing business) 2.2.1 Mapping of institutions that can engage in SMEs training activities. 2.2.2 Development of training material (ensuring that the materials are gender responsive and inclusive of youth) 2.2.3 Conducting the training using the training material 2.3 1. Establish a special window for providing micro-credit to youth and women	2.1 Number and percentage of young women and men who have established or increased the size (change in income levels and number of employees) of their business 2.2 Number and percentage of young women and men who will have completed the business-development training 2.3 Number and percentage of women and men who will have access to micro-credit for doing business	2.1 Benchmark survey on SMEs run by young women/men 2.2 Tracer survey of SMEs run by young women/men

Policy measures	Outputs/Action	Indicator	Source of verification
Outcome 3: Public Employment Services (PES) are fully operational			
3.1 Reform and strengthening of PES	3.1.1 Review of the current PES 3.1.2 Strengthening of capacities of Employment Service Centres	3.1 Number of women/men employment services staff who are trained in employment services 3.2 Number of women/men who will have been placed in regular jobs through PES	3. Benchmark and tracer survey reports on both the training activities and job placements-disaggregated by sex/occupation

© ILO/M.Crozet

6.2 Monitoring the impact of employment and labour market policies: labour market indicators

At the labour market level, employment policies need to be informed by the analysis of regular labour market data and trends. Similarly, the evaluation of employment and labour market policies also needs to rely on data provided by the labour market information system. The overall sex- and age-disaggregated labour market changes need to be monitored over time. One of the key challenges in this respect is that in many poorer developing countries, labour force surveys are not conducted frequently enough to allow such regular monitoring of the labour market trends. Labour force data are typically collected through labour-force surveys, censuses, establishment surveys, household surveys, as well as administrative records. Since labour force data pertain to the status and characteristics of the workers, the collected data should be not only disaggregated by sex and age in compilation, but also more importantly, specific analyses are undertaken in order to fully understand specific labour market and employment constraints some groups face (see also Section Four).

6.3 Labour Market Information System (LMIS)

Labour market information (LMI) is usually defined for operational purposes as:

"[LMI] includes any quantitative or qualitative information and intelligence on the labour market that can assist labour market agents in making informed plans, choices, and decisions related to business requirements, career planning and preparation, education and training offerings, job search, hiring, and government policy and workforce investment strategies." (Woods; O'Leary, 2006)

This description of the concept shows that it can be defined as comprising distinct activities, which in turn is useful in the study and analysis for practical purposes as comprising any information concerning:

- Size and composition of the labour market, or any part of it.
- Manner or ways in which it functions.
- Opportunities that are available, and internal and external problems and issues.
- Employment-related intentions and aspirations of its stakeholders.

LMI is information concerning conditions in, or the operation of, the labour market. This information may be statistical or narrative in form. It may be related to historical, current or projected circumstances. Particular types of LMI include data on employment and unemployment, job vacancies, qualifications, compensation and working conditions.[64]

The LMIS refers to the overall mechanisms of collecting, analysing and disseminating the LMI, involving a network of public and private institutions. The system is to facilitate the labour market transactions – i.e., job and workers search, placements, as well as sharing and disseminating information on the labour market situation (employment and unemployment, vacancies, qualifications), working conditions, training opportunities,

64 See Making Career Sense of Labour Information – http://makingcareersense.org/tofcontents.htm [accessed on 11 November 2011].

and so on). A functional and efficient LMIS is very important for ensuring that labour market policies are effectively implemented, and that policy impacts are also regularly monitored and evaluated.

As we saw in Section Four, the labour market is by nature sex- and age- segregated, and those various social groups (rural women, youth, older workers, those with disability, or affected by HIV and AIDS, or similar). Who tend to be excluded from the labour market have similar or different constraints. It is important to ensure that labour-force data are collected and analysed with disaggregation by sex and age, as the primary level of data collection and analysis. This can also be supplemented with further disaggregation by ethnicity, social origin, and other factors affecting the labour market participants, as well, depending on the national context. One of the important aspects of a functional LMIS is that the data are current and up-to-date.

6.4 Gathering data: Importance of gender dimensions

In gathering labour force data, there tends to be gender bias on the part of the survey questionnaire (instrument) and/or the surveyors. It is important that all the members of a given household surveyed are recorded through individual interviews, and ensure that questions are formulated in such a manner to accurately capture the nature and status of employment of the interviewees. For instance, a woman subsistence agricultural worker may answer that "she did not work", when she is asked whether she has worked in the reference period, if she does not consider subsistence farming as an "economic activity" (or SNA activity). Or a "head of household", often a man, in the recording of a given household may answer to the surveyor that his wife did not work. Such omission can be avoided by enlisting economic activities in the questionnaire to choose from, rather than asking for a yes/no answer, as well as conducting a direct interview with the woman herself. Raising gender awareness of the surveyors would also be able to increase accuracy in capturing all aspects of employment and work undertaken by women.

Time-use (TU) surveys[65] can also be useful for measuring hours spent on both production and reproduction, and unpaid and paid work. There have been increasing efforts to undertake regular TU surveys in many countries, including those developing. TU surveys could help not only valuating unpaid reproductive work, but also better capturing of informal employment.[66]

6.5 Which labour market indicators are best for monitoring the gender dimensions of policy impacts?

The monitoring of the impact of employment policies needs to be undertaken with some key labour market data and other relevant indicators to capture both the quantity and quality of employment. In general, as earlier indicated in Section Five, it is important to sex-disaggregate data, and keep track of gender differentials of all the labour market

65 The purpose of a time-use survey is to capture how people spend their time for various activities: paid and unpaid work, as well as leisure and personal care and so on.

66 See UN: *Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-use Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work (New York, 2005). See also Allocation of Time and Time Use,* http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/ [accessed on 11 November 2011].

indicators for which data are gathered. However, countries can choose specific labour market indicators, such as rates of labour-force participation, unemployment, employment status (employer, employee, own-account worker, and contributory family worker), informality, level of working poverty, or the share of women in vulnerable employment, share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors, or occupational categories –and so on– as part of key gender-sensitive labour market indicators which are most adapted to gendered pattern in a given labour market (or the world of work).

© ILO/M.Crozet

The UN Millennium Development Goals under Goal 3 – Gender equality and women's empowerment (UN, 2012), have monitored the share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors. The rate of working poverty,[67] if sex disaggregated, would also be a useful indicator to capture, for instance, whether "feminization" of poverty is occurring in a given country. In order to better capture discrimination (including gender dimensions) of labour market patterns, the ILO has come up with some related decent work indicators. These include: occupational segregation by sex; female share of employment in senior and middle management (ISCO88 groups 11 and 12); gender wage gap; indicator for Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation) being developed by the ILO; measure of discrimination by race/ethnicity/of indigenous people/ of (recent) migrant workers/of rural workers, where relevant and available at the national level; measure of dispersion for sectoral/occupational distribution of (recent) migrant workers; and measure for employment of persons with disabilities (ILO, 2009a).[68]

Since women often tend to be even more disadvantaged than men in the respective categories cited here, such Decent Work indicators can also be gathered and analysed by gender as part of the overall monitoring and evaluation of the impact of various employment and labour market policies and programmes.

67 The rate of those workers who themselves or whose family earn less than US$1.25 or US$2 a day.

68 See also ILO website: http://www.ilo.org/integration/themes/mdw/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013].

6.6 Exercise: Developing gender indicators

Objective:

To learn how to develop specific gender dimensions of the key labour market and other indicators, to monitor and evaluate the implementation of employment policies/strategies.

Tools:

Flip charts, big writing pens, large-size index cards, which can be posted on the flip charts

Time:

1 hour for both group work and presentations (½-hour group discussion and ½-hour presentations)

Instruction:

1. Using the results of the Exercise under 5.10, each group will brainstorm on achievement indicators (either or both at the results/labour market levels) that will be used for monitoring the gender dimensions of the implementation of employment policies/strategies.

2. Explain and justify the rationale behind the selection of the indicators.

3. Present the results of group work in the plenary.

7. Summary and conclusions

This guide has demonstrated the key gender concepts related to the world of work, highlighting the importance of understanding how the social and cultural norms impact upon the patterns of the world of work and employment. Accordingly, gender gaps in the world of work persist across all countries. The paper has also outlined various concepts of work, labour market indicators, and related gender dimensions, thereof. It has also highlighted the importance of sex-disaggregating labour market data, in general, in order to both identify the key gender-specific employment challenges, and to find solutions, or to formulate employment policies and strategies. In order for the policy-makers to ensure that the polices formulated promote employment in an inclusive and equitable manner, and target the most unemployed, under-employed, and vulnerable, it is essential that they not only analyse the labour market data with sex-disaggregation, but also analyse the underlying causes of identified gender gaps.

The guide has also shown the ILO's perspectives on gender issues, and how gender concerns can be integrated into various measures of the GEA – relevant gender issues to be addressed in various policy measures. It is also important that countries choose some gender-specific labour market and decent work indicators for the overall monitoring of labour market trends in general, but also more precisely for the monitoring and evaluation of national employment policies.

Despite substantive progress made in promoting gender equality in the world of work, and overall poverty reduction during the last 50 years, women continue to be disproportionately more affected by decent work deficits and poverty than men, and hence a large majority of the world's poor are women. The goal of Decent Work and the targets on poverty reduction can only be fully achieved when there is no longer gender-based discrimination and inequalities across countries, but there is still a long way to go in this respect. In particular, the 2008–09 global economic crisis has undone some of the overall progress made in the promotion of gender equality and economic empowerment of women.

Integrating gender equality concerns in poverty alleviation is essential for various actors in development (governments, the donor community, the UN –including the ILO–, and civil society organizations), given the persistently more disadvantaged position of millions of women compared to that of men in developing countries. We need to pay particular attention to the nexus between economic growth, employment trends (or work trends), and poverty reduction, especially gender dimensions of the overall trends. Given how the past economic policies have not yielded satisfactory results in development and poverty reduction, in particular for women, the recent crisis has provided us with a golden opportunity to push for a feminist economics perspective and an alternative paradigm of more inclusive development, increasing the social content of macroeconomic policies. This will need to entail more equitable resource distribution and appropriate rewarding of labour – those who work (both paid and unpaid), in relation to capital, and enhanced consideration of those who are economically disadvantaged.

While there are both multi-level dimensions to poverty and multiple measures for reducing poverty, promoting better access to employment and economic opportunities for the poor, particularly women, is one of the most effective means of lifting them out of income and material poverty, and promoting their socio-economic empowerment. In designing direct pro-poor intervention, gauging potential impact on women's both paid and unpaid work is key to ensuring that the support provided would further empower them, rather than disempowering them, in its outcome.

The world is far from achieving poverty eradication, especially for women. Given the negative impact of the 2008–09 global economic crisis on the poor, particularly women in developing countries, providing for the most vulnerable groups should be the most critical element of the crisis-response packages – they need to bail out the working poor, and not just large banks. Since addressing gender dimensions of poverty alleviation is critical for the promotion of the ILO's Decent Work agenda and the achievement of MDGs, it would be useful to have an integrated approach towards gender and poverty issues, specifically targeting those in the rural and informal economies. Such a strategy may combine the normative approach with other instruments of employment creation, social protection and social dialogue, which can be implemented at multiple levels: macro; legislative; institutional; programme and project levels; this can be done by building on past experiences and lessons learned. Gender-responsive national employment policies could certainly provide a national policy framework for such an integrated approach. Furthermore, such an approach could be tested and delivered within the framework of "operationalizing" Decent Work at the national level and jointly implemented with donors and other sister UN organizations.

Annexes – Resources

Annex 1 – Glossary: gender, work and employment policies[69]

Active labour market policies: (ALMPs) are governmental programmes/policy measures 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. ALMPs can be very effective in enhancing the level of women's labour market participation, assisting in the transition from school-to-work, and in countering unemployment.

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 current discrimination.

Care work: Looking after the health and well-being needs 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. There is both paid and unpaid care work.

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.

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

Article 1 of the Discrimination Convention, 1958 (No. 111) states:

"1. For the purpose of this Convention the term **discrimination** includes –

(a) any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin, which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation;

(b) such other distinction, exclusion or preference which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation as may be determined by the Member concerned after consultation with representative employers' and workers' organizations, where such exist, and with other appropriate bodies.

2. Any distinction, exclusion or preference in respect of a particular job based on the inherent requirements thereof shall not be deemed to be discrimination."

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

69 See Glossary in ILO: *Guidelines on gender in employment policies* (Geneva, 2010), p. 67.

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.

Economic efficiency argument: Gender equality contributes to economic efficiency by fully utilizing "female" human resources for the society and economy, the economy would grow faster and poverty will be better reduced, advocating that gender equality makes good economic sense.

Feminist economics: Broadly refers to a developing branch of economics that applies feminist lenses to economics. Research under this heading is often interdisciplinary or heterodox. It encompasses debates about the relationship between feminism and economics on many levels: from applying mainstream economic methods to what feminist economists claim are under-researched "women's" areas, to questioning how mainstream economics values the reproductive sector, to examinations of economic epistemology and methodology.

One prominent claim that feminist economists make is that the GDP does not adequately measure the **unpaid labour** predominantly performed by women, such as housework, childcare, and care for the elderly. Since a large part of women's work is rendered invisible, they argue that policies meant to boost GDP can, in many instances, actually worsen the impoverishment of women, even if the intention is to increase prosperity. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist_economics).

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

Flexicurity: 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: "Sex" refers to the biological differences between males and females, and "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 we become girls, boys, women and men by learning 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/sex disaggregation: To break the whole into smaller parts, based on gender/sex.

Gender gap: In the context of economic inequality, the 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 about to what extent this is the result of gender differences, lifestyle choices, or because of discrimination.

Gender mainstreaming: The process of assessing the implications for women and men, of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes, in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. **The ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.**

Gender-predominant jobs: Jobs that 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.

Human capital: The quality of labour resources (the knowledge, skills and apttitudes of the workforce). This can be improved through investment, education and training.

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

Inflation targeting: 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: An economic activity that is neither taxed nor monitored by a government, and is not included in that government's Gross National Product (GNP) –as opposed to a formal economy. Informal economy workers can include wage workers, own-account workers and unpaid contributing family members. Work in the informal economy is characterized by small or undefined work places, poor working conditions, low level of skills and productivity, irregular incomes, long working hours and lack of access to information markets, finance, and training. Informal employment is not covered under legislation, and largely uncovered under social protection.

Male breadwinner bias: The bias that comes from assuming that the non-market sphere of social reproduction is articulated with the market economy of commodity production through a wage which is paid to a male breadwinner, and which largely provides for the cash needs of a set of dependants (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, lifelong working-age participation in the market-based labour force. Those whose participation does not fit this norm typically have lesser rights, which they can

frequently only exercise as dependants 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.

Monetary policy: The process by which the State, 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, neo-liberalism seeks to transfer control of the economy from the State to the private sector. The definitive statement of the concrete policies advocated by neo-liberalism is often taken to be John Williamson's "Washington Consensus",[70] a list of policy proposals that appeared to have gained consensus approval among the Washington-based international financial organizations (such as 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 or other grounds.

Pro-poor growth: A pattern of growth that is conducive towards reducing poverty. 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 actually is should be judged by how fast the incomes of the poor are rising on average. 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.[71]

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

Reproductive work: All the work that is undertaken to take care of children, elderly and families, or daily work to maintain the well-being of household members, much of which is undertaken by women in households.

70 See Williamson, J., *A Short History of the Washington Consensus,* Paper commissioned by Fundación CIDOB for a conference, "From the Washington Consensus towards a new Global Governance" (Barcelona, 2004). See http://studentorgs.law.smu.edu/getattachment/International-Law-Review-Association/Resources/LBRA-Archive/15-1/SMB118.pdf.aspx [accessed on 9 December 2013].

71 See the World Bank website, www.worldbank.org [accessed on 9 December 2013].

Rights-based approach to development: A strategy used by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to reduce local communities' dependency on aid by improving government capacity. This practice blurs the distinction between human rights and development. There are two stakeholder groups in rights-based development, **the rights' holders**, or the group who does not experience full rights, and **the duty bearers**, or the institutions which are obligated to fulfil the rights of the rights holders. Rights-based approach aims at strengthening the capacity of duty bearers, and empowering the rights' holders (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rights-based_approach_to_development [accessed on 7 December 2013]).

Social protection floors, or social floors: A basic set of social rights, services, and facilities that every person should enjoy. The UN suggests that an SPF could consist of two main elements that help realize human rights:

1. Universal access to **essential services** (such as health, education, housing, water and sanitation, and other services as nationally defined);
2. **Social Transfers** in cash or in kind, to guarantee income security, food security, adequate nutrition, and access to essential services.

The ILO adopted **Social Floors Recommendation, 2013 (No. 202)**, which provides guidance to Members to: (a) establish and maintain, as applicable, social protection floors as a fundamental element of their national social security systems; and (b) implement SPFs within strategies for the extension of social security that progressively ensure higher levels of social security to as many people as possible, guided by ILO social security standards.

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 care and unpaid labour 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: These 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 programmes, run by governments, donors or NGOs that provide additional income or in-kind transfer programmes, subsidies, and labour-intensive public works programmes.
Programmes which ensure access to essential public services, such as fee-waivers for health-care services, or scholarships for schooling costs are other examples of safety nets.

System of National Accounts: (often abbreviated as "SNA" or "UNSNA") An international standard system of national accounts, the first international standard was published in 1953; handbooks have been released for the 1968 revision, the 1993 revision, and the 2008 revision. The aim of UNSNA is to provide an integrated, complete system of accounts, enabling international comparisons of all significant economic activity. The suggestion is that individual countries use UNSNA as a guide in constructing their own national accounting systems, in order to promote international comparability.

Time-use survey (TU 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, TU surveys can reveal the amount of unpaid household work, and voluntary work performed beyond paid work. They can also better capture women's informal productive work, which is often undertaken within the home.

Unpaid care work: All the work that is undertaken to maintain the well-being of household members, such as cooking, cleaning, taking care of children, or elderly and sick family members. Much of unpaid work is unrecognized, both statistically and economically. Poor working women are typically engaged in long hours of unpaid work. In order to better capture the patterns of work (both paid and unpaid), **time-use surveys** can be undertaken (see above). Unpaid care work is also called **reproductive work**.

Annex 2 – Global Employment Agenda – Checklist

National Employment Strategy: Checklist of Key Policy Areas[72]

Gender-mainstreaming and poverty reduction as crosscutting priorities

Economic Policies that influence the demand side

- Macroeconomic policies
- Financial policies
- Trade and regional integration

Questions:

- Have the proposed macroeconomic policies taken into consideration the potential gender-differentiated direct and indirect impacts on women, men, boys and girls?
- If not, what are the critical issues that need to be taken into account to ensure that both the female and male population would benefit from such macroeconomic policies? Is there a risk that the proposed policy measures could result in further enforcing existing gender gaps in the economy and labour market?
- How are the current tax systems structured – could the proposed tax system discriminate against and/or have negative impacts on women, as consumers and workers?
- Have the public expenditures been allocated, taking into consideration the potential different impacts on women and men, girls, and boys?

Investment policies and investment climate, including infrastructure

Questions:

- Does the government provide for public investments in infrastructure development (roads, irrigation, reforestation, development of community centres and schools, etc.)? If so, is labour intensity considered in the choice of technologies used?
- For community-based public works, have equal voice and the specific needs of women and men taken into account when planning on the type of public infrastructures and their location?
- Are women as equally informed as men about the wage-employment opportunities provided under public works programmes?
- Is there consideration of distance to the living location to the work sites?
- Does the programme provide for maternity protection and equal wage for work of equal value?
- Does the project provide for breastfeeding facilities for working mothers and crèches for working mothers/fathers with young children?

72 In order to fully understand various policy measures, see ILO: Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work "Vision Document" (Geneva, 2006). See http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/download/vision-e.pdf [accessed on 8 December 2013].

- Are women equally trained in skills' upgrading as men – in particular to become leaders and independent contractors?
- Where a Public Employment Programme is considered, is supporting social services (such as child and elderly care) considered as part of the programme design?

Sectoral policies: industries, services, agriculture, environmental industries and services enhancing employment intensity of growth

Questions:

- How are the current economic structures and labour market structures? Are there sectors which are male- or female-dominated?
- Where employment growth is expected, would those economic sectors be more likely to employ women or men?
- If women are more highly unemployed and under-employed, could the development of social sectors be considered as part of sectoral development strategies?

Labour mobility and migration

Questions:

- Do policy measures take into account the specific vulnerability of girls and women in migration?
- Does the policy ensure that both women and men have equal access to migration facilitation services (pre-departure training and awareness-raising on key labour rights, etc.)?
- Do the policy and legislation provide for equality of treatment in occupation and employment between nationals and immigrant labour, in law and practice, in receiving countries?
- Does the policy provide for measures for cultural, social and economic integration of migrant workers in the receiving/destination countries?
- Does the policy provide for social and economic reintegration of returning migrant workers, both women and men equally in the sending countries?

Skills and Employability

- 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 apprenticeships
- Technology
- Improving training delivery through ICT
- Improving the capacity to innovate and invest
- Improving access to ICT to reduce the skills gap
- Improved access to training and employment opportunities (targeted approach)
- Informal economy workers (in particular poor rural youth, and women)
- Persons with disabilities and other vulnerable groups

Questions:

- How gender-responsive is the current national vocational education and technical training system in the country?
- Is the curricula used at the vocational training centres gender sensitive, and not enforcing traditional gender stereotypes?
- Are young women and men given equal opportunities in occupations that can meet the labour market demands?
- What about in the scientific and technological skills – are women equally participating as men?
- Are women and men given equal opportunities to train in the areas where they can gain non-stereotyped occupational skills?
- Are women and men equally motivated and offered skills training in ICT areas?




Enterprise Development

- An enabling business environment: the national or crosscutting themes
- Governance and political conditions
- Infrastructure
- Regulations and the cost of doing business
- Entrepreneurship
- Access to finance
- Value chain upgrading and clustering
- Local economic development
- Promoting good workplace practices
- Targeting groups of enterprises and entrepreneurs:
- SMEs
- Multinational enterprises
- Cooperatives
- Entrepreneurs in the informal economy.
- Access to finance for SMEs development
- Green jobs

Questions:

- Do the legislation and policies on SMEs development promote women's entrepreneurship? If not, what are the critical gender barriers in the legislation and policies, including in their application?
- Do various business service providers extend their services equally to women and men? If not, what are the critical constraints?
- Do the formal financial institutions provide credits equally to women and men? If not, what needs to change in the practice and procedures of financial services providers?
- Is the principle of equal employment opportunities (occupation and employment) adopted and promoted by enterprises?
- Is the legislation on cooperatives inclusive and provide equal opportunities to both women and men?

Labour Market Institutions and Policies

- Institutions and policies, including wages
- Labour market adjustment policies and programmes
- Passive and active labour market policies
- Employment Services development and reform
- Reform of public employment services
- Role of private employment agencies
- Career guidance
- Industrial relations/social dialogue

Questions:

- Does the country have a specific legislation on equal wages for work of equal value? What about prohibiting gender-based discrimination in wages?
- Do women and men have equal access to various active labour market measures? If not, what are the critical barriers?
- Are the Employment Services gender-aware and sensitive, so that they do not discriminate women in providing their services?

Social Protection

- Social transfers
- Social security (income replacement -unemployment insurance, maternity protection, injury insurance, etc.), health care, child and family allowances, old age and social pension)
- Social assistance (typically means-tested).

Questions:

- What are the social protection measures provided? How inclusive and equitable are they, in terms of access by both women and men, and in addressing women's special needs, in particular maternity protection?
- What are the critical constraints for women's equal/equitable access to social protection?
- Are women, in particular, more vulnerable to life-cycle risks, compared to men?

Governance, Empowerment and Organizational Capital

- Representation, participation and advocacy
- Freedom of association/collective bargaining
- Institution building
- Social dialogue

Questions:

- What is the rate of women/men in the social dialogue institutions – employers' organizations and workers' organizations? What about the rate of women in their leadership?
- Do women equally participate in the policy dialogue? If not, what are the critical constraints to their equal participation?

Annex 3 – Further readings and tools

Research papers:

- Goulding K. 2013.*Gender dimensions of national employment policies: A 24 country study* (Geneva, ILO).
- Otobe, N. 2011. *Global economic crisis, gender and employment: The impact and policy response*, Employment Working Paper No. 74 (Geneva, ILO).
- ILO. 2011. *Assessment of the environment for the development of women's entrepreneurship in Cameroun, Mali, Nigeria, Rwanda and Senegal* (Geneva).
- ILO. 2010. *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges* (Geneva).
- Chant, S. and Pedwell, C. 2008. *Women, gender and the informal economy: An assessment of ILO research and suggested ways forward* (Geneva, ILO).
- Heintz, J. 2006. *Globalization, economic policy and employment: Poverty and gender implications*, Employment Strategy Paper No. 06/3 (Geneva, ILO).
- Rubery, J. 2005. *Mainstreaming gender into the Global Employment Agenda* (Geneva, ILO).

Tools:

- ILO. 2012. *Upgrading informal apprenticeship: A resource guide for Africa* (Geneva).
- ILO. 2010. *Gender Mainstreaming in Local Economic Development Strategies: A guide* (English and Spanish) (Geneva).
- Ameratunga-Kring, S. and Kawar, M. 2009. *Guidelines on Gender in Employment Policies* (ILO, Geneva) (also available in French and Spanish).
- ILO. 2009. *Micro-insurance that works for women: making gender-sensitive micro-insurance programmes* (Geneva).
- ILO. 2009. *Assessment framework for growth-oriented women entrepreneurs* (Geneva).
- ILO. 2007. *FAMOS Check, 2007 (Service Quality Check for Supporting Female and Male Operated Small Enterprises)* (Kiswahili, English) (Geneva).
- ILO. 2004. *GET Ahead gender and entrepreneurship together* (Geneva). (Available in Kiswahili, English, Bemba and Nyanja, Arabic, Kurdish, Khmer, Lao, Vietnamese).
- ILO. 2004. *Assessing the enabling environment for women in growth enterprises: An AfDB/ILO Integrated Framework Assessment Guide* (Geneva).
- Employment Sector. 2006. *Measuring gender dimensions of the world of work in Bangladesh: A training guide* (Geneva, ILO).
- Gender Promotion Programme. 2004. *A Guide on employment of older women workers in Estonia*, Series on Gender and Life Cycle (Geneva, ILO).
- Gender Promotion Programme, 2003. *Preventing discrimination, exploitation and abuse of migrant women workers: An information guide* (Geneva, ILO).

Annex 4 – List of International Labour Standards and other documents related to employment, gender equality and non-discrimination

Key Conventions on Gender Equality[73]

- The 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).

Other International Labour Standards related to non-discrimination and specific groups of workers

- Indigenous and Tribal People's Convention, 1989 (No. 169)
- HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200)
- Older Workers Recommendation, 1980 (No. 162)* [74]
- Special Youth Scheme Recommendation, 1970 (No. 136)*
- See also the ILS related to disabled persons, below.

Other Conventions that have specific bearing on women workers

- Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177) and Recommendation, 1996 (No. 184)
- Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189) and Recommendation, 2011 (No. 201)

Employment Policy related Conventions[75]

1) Economic policies for market expansion and increase in labour demand

- Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122), and Employment Policy Recommendation, 1964 (No. 122).
- Employment Policy (Supplementary Provisions) Recommendation, 1984 (No. 169).
- Employment Promotion and Protection against Unemployment Convention, 1988 (No. 168), and Employment Promotion and Protection against Unemployment Recommendation, 1988 (No. 176).

73 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 [accessed on 8 December 2013].

74 * Instrument has been given interim status by the Governing Body.

75 For a complete list of instruments of particular relevance for the work on employment promotion, see http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/empframe/practice/download/vision-e.pdf [accessed on 8 December 2013], p. 22.

2) Labour market policies

- The employment policy standards, including vocational rehabilitation and security of employment (listed above).
- Standards related to labour market access for groups traditionally discriminated against:
  - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Recommendation, 1958 (No. 111);
  - Older Workers Recommendation, 1980 (No. 162);
  - Special Youth Schemes Recommendation, 1970 (No. 136); *
  - Instruments addressing the needs of persons with disabilities (listed below);
- Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169), and Indigenous and Tribal Populations Recommendation, 1957 (No. 104);
- HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200);
- ILO code of practice on HIV/AIDS and the world of work, 2001;
- Standards addressing equal remuneration:
  - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and Equal Remuneration Recommendation, 1951 (No. 90).
- Instruments concerning migration policies:
  - Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), and Migration for Employment Recommendation (Revised), 1949 (No. 86);
  - Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No.143);
  - Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (No. 151).
- Instruments concerning social security/social protection:
  - Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102);
  - Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202).

3) Skills, technology and employability

- Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142).
- Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195).
- Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159) and Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Recommendation, 1983 (No. 168); Vocational Rehabilitation Recommendation, 1955 (No. 99).
- ILO code of practice on managing disability in the workplace, 2002.

4) Enterprise and cooperatives development

- 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[76]

Freedom of association and collective bargaining:

- The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87);
- The Right to Organize 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).

Conventions related to improved governance

- Instruments related to building institutions for employment promotion include:
  - Employment Service Convention, 1948 (No. 88), and Employment Service Recommendation, 1948 (No. 83);[77]
  - Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181), and
  - Private Employment Agencies Recommendation, 1997 (No. 188).

- Instruments providing guidance on governance issues related to multinational enterprises and their impact on economic and social development include:
  - Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy, 1977 (amended 2000).

76 For more on the ILO's Programme for the Promotion of the Declaration, see http://www.ilo.org/declaration/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 8 December 2013].

77 Instrument has been given interim status by the Governing Body

References

African Development Bank. 2011. *Evaluation synthesis – mainstreaming gender equality: Road to results or nowhere?* (Tunis).

Baulch, B. 1996. "Neglected Trade-offs in Poverty Measurement", in *IDS Bulletin: Poverty, Policy and Aid*, 27(1) (Sussex, Institute of Development Studies).

Bergermann, A. and Van den Berg, G. 2006. Discussion Paper No. 2365, October 2006, *Active labour market policy effect for women in Europe: Survey* (Bonn, Institute for the Study of Labor).

Breneman-Pennas, T. and Rueda Cartry, M. 2008. *Women's participation in social dialogue institutions at national level* (Geneva, ILO).

Budlender, D. and Sharp, R., with Allen, K. 1998. *How to do a gender-sensitive analysis: Contemporary research and practice* (London, Commonwealth Secretariat, Australian Agency for Development).

Carr, M.; Chen, M. A.; and Tate, J. 2000. "Globalization and home-based workers", in *Feminist Economics*, 6(3): 123–42 (Philadelphia, Taylor & Francis online).

Chandarot, K. and Dannet, L. 2009. *Tracking study of Cambodian garment sector workers affected by the global economic crisis: Benchmarking survey report* (draft mimeograph) (Bangkok, ILO).

Chen, M.; Sebstad, J.; and O'Connell, L. 1999. "Counting the invisible workforce: the case of homebased workers", in *World Development* 27(3): 603–10 (Elsevier Science Ltd).

Corbanese, V. 2011. *Gender mainstreaming in the Public Employment Service in Ukraine: Trainer's guide* (Ukraine, ILO).

Dasgupta, S. 2009. *The impact of the economic crisis on women workers in Cambodia's garment sector*, presented at 4th ASEAN+3 High-Level Seminar on Poverty Reduction.

—. Poutianen, T.; Williams, D. 2011. From *downturn to recovery; Cambodia's garment sector in transition* (Bangkok, ILO).

Elson, D. and Cağatay, N. 2000. "The social content of macroeconomic policies", in *World Development*, 28(7): 1347–64 (Elsevier Science Ltd).

Fontana, M. with Paciello, C. 2009. *Gender dimensions of rural and agricultural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty – a global perspective*, draft report for the FAO-IFAD-ILO workshop (Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization).

Heintz, J. 2006. *Globalization, economic policy and employment: Poverty and gender dimensions*, Employment Strategy Paper No. 06/3 (Geneva, ILO).

Hemmings-Gapihan, G. 2008. “Climate change, Subsistence Farming, Food Security and Poverty: The consequences of agricultural policies on women and men farmers in Burkina Faso and Cote d’Ivoire”, in *African Policy Journal* (IV) (Boston, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University).

See: http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/98thSession/texts/WCMS_115076/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 6 December 2013.]

ILO. 2013. *Global employment trends, 2013* (Geneva).

—. 2012a. *Global employment trends for women, 2012* (Geneva).

—. 2012b. *Statistical update on employment in the informal economy* (Geneva).

—. 2012c. *Global employment trends, 2012* (Geneva).

—. 2012d. *Micro-Insurance Facility; 2012 Annual report* (Geneva).

—. 2012e. *Guide for the formulation of national employment policies* (Geneva).

—. 2011a. *Key labour market indicators* (Geneva).

—. 2011b. *Social security for social justice and a fair globalization, Report IV: Recurrent discussion on social security (social protection) under the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization* (Geneva).

—. 2011c. *Gender equitable work to reduce poverty and boost economic growth* (Geneva). See: http://www.ilo.org/employment/Whatwedo/Publications/WCMS_150830/lang--en/index.htm [accessed on 7 December 2013]

—. 2010a. *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges* (Geneva).

—. 2010b. *Extending social security to all: A guide through challenges and options* (Geneva).

—. 2010c. *Guidelines on gender in employment policies* (Geneva).

—. 2009a. *Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment Indicators, including full set of Decent Work indicators* (Geneva).

—. 2009b. *Guidelines on gender in employment policies: information resource book* (Geneva).

—. 2009c. *Asia-wide Regional High-level Meeting on The Impact of the Global Economic Slowdown on Poverty and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific* (Bangkok).

—. 2009d. *Recovering from the crisis: A Global Jobs Pact, adopted by the ILC at its 98th Session* (Geneva).

—. 2009e. *Programme and Budget for the Biennium 2010–2011* (Geneva).

----.2009f.Generic manual on training for rural economic empowerment (TREE)" (Geneva).

—. 2008a. *Key Indicators of the Labour Marekt* (Geneva).

—. 2008b. *World of Work Report 2008; Income inequalities in the age of financial globalization* (Geneva).

—. 2008c. *Tripartite Meeting of Experts on the Measurement of Decent Work* (Geneva).

—. 2008d. Brochure: *Skills and entrepreneurship: Bridging the technology and gender divide* (Geneva). See, http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@gender/documents/publication/wcms_100840.pdf [accessed on 8 December 2013].

—. 2006. *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment strategies in support of decent work, "Vision Document"* (Geneva).

—. 2003a. *Guidelines concerning a statistical definition of informal employment*, 17th International Conference of Labour Statistics (ICLS) (Geneva).

—. 2003b. *The time for equality at work: Global report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work* (Geneva).

—. 2003c. *Preventing discrimination, exploitation and abuse of migrant women workers: An information guide* (Geneva).

—. 2002. *Decent Work and the informal economy. Report VI*, presented at the 90th Session of the ILC (Geneva).

—. 1999. *Decent Work* (Geneva).

IMF. 2013. *Women, work and the economy: Macroeconomic gains from gender equity* (Washington, DC).

Jalilian, H., *et. al*. 2009. *Global financial crisis discussion series, Paper 4: Cambodia* (London, Overseas Development Institute).

Kazemi, F. 2000. "Gender, Islam and Politics – Iran", in *Social Research* 67(2), Iran: Since the Revolution, pp. 453–474 (New York, The New School).

Kapsos, S. 2008. The *gender wage gap in Bangladesh* (Bangkok, ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific).

Korale, R. B. M. 2011. *Labour market and employment services* – paper submitted as an input to National Human Resources and Employment Policy in Sri Lanka (mimeograph) (Colombo, ILO).

Laczko, F. 2005. "Data and research on human trafficking: A global survey", in *International Migration*, 43(1–2), pp. 5–16 (Geneva, International Organization for Migration).

Making Career Sense of Labour Information – http://makingcareersense.org/tofcontents.htm (accessed on 11 November, 2011).

Ministry of Finance and Planning, Department of Census and Statistics: *Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey Report, 2011* (Colombo).

Otobe, N. 2011a. *Global economic crisis, gender and employment: The impact and policy response*, Employment Working Paper No. 74 (Geneva, ILO).

—. 2011b. "Gender dimensions of the world of work in a globalized economy" in by Elson, D. and Jain, D. (eds), *Harvesting feminist knowledge for public policy*: *rebuilding progress* (New Delhi, SAGE, Ottawa, IDRC).

Porter, K. H. and Dupree, A. 2001. "Poverty Trends for Families Headed by Working Single Mothers, 1993 to 1999", see http://www.cbpp.org/cms/?fa=view&id=595 [accessed 6 December 2013] (Washington, DC, Center on Budget and Policy Priorities).

Quinn. S. 2009. *Gender budgeting: Practical implementation* (Strasbourg, Directorate of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, General of Council of Europe), p. 43.

Rahman, R. I. with Otobe, N. 2005. *The dynamics of the labour market and employment in Bangladesh: A focus on gender dimensions* (Geneva, ILO).

Razavi, S. and Miller, C. 1995. "From WID to GAD: Conceptual Shifts in the Women and Development Discourse", in *Occasional Paper* (Geneva, UNRISD).

Rubery, J. 2005. *Mainstreaming gender into the Global Employment Agenda* (Geneva, ILO).

Sharp, R. 2003. *Budgeting for equity: Gender budget initiatives within a framework of performance oriented budgeting* (New York, UNIFEM).

UN. 2012. *The Millennium Development Goal Report* (New York).

—. 2009. *World survey on role of women in development: Women's control over economic resources and access to financial resources, including microcredit* (New York).

—. 2008. *System of National Accounts*. An updated online version of 1993 publication, see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna.asp [accessed on 6 December 2013] (New York).

—. 2005. *Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-use Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work* (New York).

UNDP. 2006. *Evaluation of gender mainstreaming in the UNDP* (New York).

UNICEF. 2006: *Children affected by AIDS; Africa's orphaned and vulnerable generations* (New York).

UNIFEM. Website http://www.unifem.org/ [accessed on 20 November 2011].

UNRISD. 2010. "Why care matters for social development", in *Research and Policy Brief* 9 (Geneva).

University of Washington. 2010. Website http://depts.washington.edu/wcpc/Inequality [accessed in August 2013].

Wadley, J. 2008. "Study: More frequent, but shorter, poverty spells among single mothers after welfare reform" (Ann Arbor, MI, University of Michigan News Service).

Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist_economics [accessed on 21 November 2013].

Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rights-based_approach_to_development [accessed on 21 November 2013].

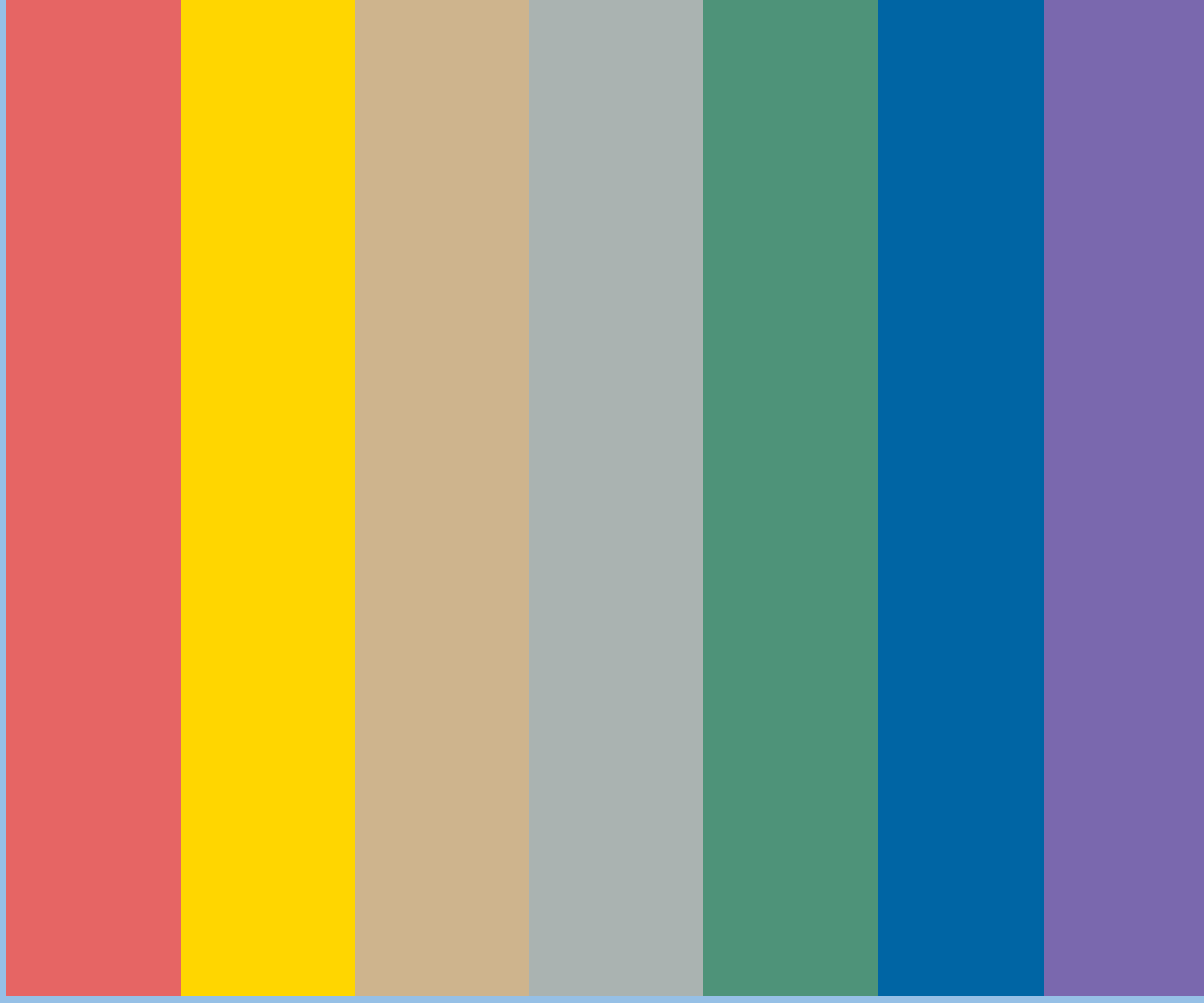
Williamson, J. 2004. *A Short History of the Washington Consensus*, Paper delivered at "From the Washington Consensus towards a new Global Governance" conference, September 2004 (Barcelona, Fundación CIDOB). See http://www.iie.com/publications/papers/williamson0904-2.pdf [accessed on 9 December 2013].

Woods, J. F. and O'Leary, C. J. 2006. *Conceptual framework for an optimal labour market information system* (Quebec, Human Resources and Social Development Canada, and Michigan, W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research).

World Bank. 2013. Website: http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTPOVERTY/EXTPGI/0,,contentMDK:20292383~menuPK:524081~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:342771,00.html [accessed on 21 November 2013].

—. 2011. *World Development Report, 2011: Gender equality and development* (Washington, DC).

—. 2001. *World Development Report, 2001: Engendering development through gender quality in rights, resources and voice* (Washington, DC).



International Labour Office

4, route des Morillons
CH-1211 Geneva 22,
Switzerland

www.ilo.org

ISBN: 978-92-2-128362-1