Report I

General report

Seventeenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians

Geneva, 24 November-3 December 2003
Report I

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGS</td>
<td>Advisory Group on Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIS STAT</td>
<td>Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of Independent States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPI</td>
<td>consumer price indices</td>
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<td>DWI</td>
<td>Decent Work Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>economically active population</td>
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<td>ECE</td>
<td>Economic Commission for Europe</td>
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<td>EEA</td>
<td>European Economic Area</td>
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<td>EFTA</td>
<td>European Free Trade Area</td>
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<td>ELFS</td>
<td>Enterprise Labour Flexibility and Security</td>
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<td>EUROSTAT</td>
<td>Statistical Office of the European Communities</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>GATS</td>
<td>General Agreement on Trade in Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>GESMES</td>
<td>GEneric Statistical MESsage</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICLS</td>
<td>International Conference of Labour Statisticians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICSE</td>
<td>International Classification of Status in Employment</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>information and communication technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>IER</td>
<td>Institute of Employment Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFP</td>
<td>InFocus programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFP/SEED</td>
<td>InFocus Programme on Boosting Employment through Small Enterprise Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFP/SES</td>
<td>InFocus Programme on Socio-Economic Security</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILC</td>
<td>International Labour Conference</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>ILM</td>
<td>International Labour Migration</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>IPEC</td>
<td>International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour</td>
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<td>ISCO</td>
<td>International Standard Classification of Occupations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISIC</td>
<td>International Standard Industrial Classification</td>
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<td>ISSA</td>
<td>International Social Security Association</td>
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<td>IWGPS</td>
<td>Intersecretariat Working Group on Price Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>KILM</td>
<td>Key Indicators of the Labour Market</td>
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<tr>
<td>LABORSTA</td>
<td>See list of databases in Annex B</td>
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<tr>
<td>LABMINW</td>
<td>See list of databases in Annex B</td>
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<tr>
<td>LMI</td>
<td>labour market information</td>
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<tr>
<td>LMIL</td>
<td>Labour Market Information Library</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSMS</td>
<td>Living Standards Measurement Surveys (World Bank)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>MECOVI</td>
<td>Program for the Improvement of Surveys and the Measurement of Living Conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOC</td>
<td>national occupational classifications</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARIS21</td>
<td>PARtnership In Statistics for development in the 21st century</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPPs</td>
<td>purchasing power parities</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRSPs</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSSs</td>
<td>People’s Security Surveys</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAP-FL</td>
<td>Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDA</td>
<td>Statistical Development and Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEGREGAT</td>
<td>See list of databases in Annex B</td>
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<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>socio-economic security</td>
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<tr>
<td>SFP</td>
<td>Social Finance Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIMPOC</td>
<td>Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>SNA</td>
<td>System of National Accounts</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPER</td>
<td>Social Protection Expenditure and Performance Review</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSPTW</td>
<td>Social Security Programs Throughout the World</td>
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<tr>
<td>STAT</td>
<td>Bureau of Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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UNICEF: United Nations Children’s Fund
UNSD: United Nations Statistics Division
WHO: World Health Organization
1. Statistical work of the ILO since the Sixteenth ICLS

1.1. Introduction

(a) New Policy Integration Department

1.1.1. In January 2002, the Director-General created a new department entitled the Policy Integration Department. This Department comprises the Bureau of Statistics, Statistical Development and Analysis Unit, International Policy Group, National Policy Group, and the World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization.

1.1.2. The new Department works with other ILO units (including the field structure) to develop consistent and complementary policy positions in key aspects of ILO work. It supports intersectoral perspectives and teamwork and supports the planning, programming and evaluation of ILO activities from the point of view of policy integration.

(b) Bureau of Statistics (STAT)

1.1.3. The ILO Bureau of Statistics (STAT) is a unit of this new Department. STAT continues to be the unit in the ILO mainly responsible for statistical activities of the Office, and covers the following main areas: (i) the development of international statistical standards, based on the experience and needs of the member States; (ii) the provision of technical advice to member States, by providing expert consultancies, technical manuals and guidelines, and training to assist them in the application of these standards in the effective production of reliable statistics; and (iii) the dissemination of key national labour statistics and methodological information through publications and electronic methods.

1.1.4. In 2003, there are 26 officials working in STAT (including secretarial and support staff, some of whom are part time), ten of whom are in the Professional category. In 1998 there were 13 Professionals and a total of 27 officials. As from September 2002, a Professional statistical computing official on secondment from the German Government has also been working for STAT. Two Professionals from STAT (not included in the previous figure for 2003) have been seconded to the new Statistical Development and Analysis Unit (see below).

1.1.5. There are two field positions of Senior Specialist in Labour Statistics, one based in Abidjan and the other based in Bangkok, but both of these have been vacant for over two years. A position in Addis Ababa was reactivated in 2003. Some of the ILO multidisciplinary advisory teams (Lima, for example) have positions that combine statistical support with other technical responsibilities (mainly in labour market policy and economics). The Abidjan and Addis Ababa posts were expected to be filled during 2003, and action may soon be taken to fill the Bangkok post.

(c) Statistical Development and Analysis Unit (SDA)

1.1.6. Under the new Policy Integration Department, the new Statistical Development and Analysis (INTEGRATION/SDA) Unit has the role of promoting and supporting the development of new data systems and capabilities needed for the medium-term programme of the Office, including: (i) internationally comparable gender-sensitive
core indicators and instruments to measure progress in decent work; (ii) world and regional estimates for selected indicators; and (iii) analytical reports. This Unit also reinforces statistical activities within the ILO and supports and guides the use of statistical data in ILO communications strategy.

### Advisory Group on Statistics (AGS)

1.1.7. The Advisory Group on Statistics (AGS) was created in 2000 by the ILO Director-General to guide the development of an Office-wide strategy on statistics. Members of the AGS come from across the Office including the technical sectors, the new Policy Integration Department (especially the Bureau of Statistics and the Statistical Development and Analysis Unit) and the regions. The AGS was initially mandated to make recommendations to the Director-General on: (a) priorities among statistical activities in the Office; (b) major division of responsibilities in the Office on statistical activities; and (c) mechanisms for increasing communication and collaboration on statistical activities throughout the Office. The chairperson of the AGS presented his first report to the Director-General in 2001.

1.1.8. In 2002, it was decided to reconvene the AGS to help coordinate, guide, and improve communication and information on statistical activities in the ILO, and to undertake or support common projects on specific topics. Four working groups were created to examine the following topics in depth: the Decent Work Index; world estimates of labour phenomena; data collection; and measuring and monitoring the application of standards and fundamental principles and rights at work. Each of these topics is described elsewhere in this report.

### Decent work as a framework for ILO statistical activities

1.1.9. In his first Report to the International Labour Conference in 1999, the ILO Director-General introduced a comprehensive concept of work and the workplace, which he called decent work. He described decent work as “opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (ILO, 1999). Decent work has subsequently become the organizing framework for ILO activities.

1.1.10. As for the ILO statistical activities, decent work provides a conceptual framework for integration and development of statistics both within and outside the ILO. Because decent work is a cross-cutting notion it concerns all the four major sectors of the ILO and acts as a central concept integrating standards and fundamental principles and rights at work; employment; social protection; and social dialogue. It also acts as a framework for statistical development because it introduces new concepts requiring development of new statistical indicators to measure progress made in reducing decent work deficits in ILO member States.

### Developments in methods of labour statistics

#### Statistics on demand for labour

1.2.1. When reporting to the Sixteenth ICLS (Geneva, October 1998) on developments concerning statistics on imbalances in the demand for labour it was observed that with some notable exceptions this was a topic that had been neglected by most national statistical offices, and it had never been discussed at the ICLS, even though there
had been significant concerns with the issue among analysts and policy-makers. Developments in countries since then have confirmed that: (i) there is an important demand for such statistics; and (ii) in a significant number of countries initiatives have been taken to initiate surveys of the demand for labour. One consequence of a decision to introduce such surveys in all member countries of the European Union from 2003 is that almost all member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) will have surveys of this type, covering a significant part of their labour markets. That the interest in such statistics is not limited to these countries is demonstrated, e.g. by the “labour demand survey” conducted in Yemen in 2002-03 with technical support from the ILO.

1.2.2. The experience gained in countries having undertaken surveys on imbalances on the demand side or “vacancies” have demonstrated that two different concepts would be relevant: “job openings” (JOs) and “unmet demand” (UD). JOs can be seen as corresponding to “jobseekers” on the supply side in the labour market, while UD can be seen as corresponding to “unemployed persons”. The experience seems to indicate that it is easier to obtain some form of JO measure in an establishment survey than a measure of UD, but this may be a function of the way that most of the surveys have been constructed. The experiences also show that certain types of needs for statistics are significantly easier to satisfy than others. Thus statistics that can be used to monitor overall short-term developments by industry, e.g. as a basis for macroeconomic policies and business-cycle analysis, are significantly easier to provide than statistics that can be used to project future demand for particular skills and occupations. There is good reason to expect that a substantial amount of national experience with different types of surveys and from countries at different stages of development will become available in the coming years. The Conference may therefore want to consider whether it wants this topic to be the subject of a more in-depth discussion at a future ICLS.

(b) Statistics on place of work

1.2.3. “Place of work” designates two important characteristics of employment frequently collected in labour force surveys and population censuses: (1) The geographic location of the place of work. This is the variable that is recommended for population and housing censuses, see, e.g. United Nations (1998a), and ILO and United Nations (2002). (2) The type of physical location where the work is done, e.g. on the street, in a factory or office, etc. No international recommendations exist for the latter variable; and although many countries, especially in Latin America, have collected information on this topic for a long time and on a continuous basis, not much use has been made of the results for in-depth analyses or examination of whether there are any significant methodological issues involved in defining and distinguishing relevant “place of work” situations. ILO (2002d) reports on a project undertaken for UNDP to investigate the role that this variable can play in the identification of “homeworkers” and “street workers”, two groups of workers with particularly precarious employment situations and in which women tend to be over-represented. Examining experiences reported from five countries (Bolivia, Colombia, Jordan, Mexico and South Africa) the participants at a meeting of experts recommended that “an appropriate typology of ‘place of work’ should be developed based on a conceptual framework” and encouraged other countries to undertake similar studies. These recommendations were seconded by a meeting of the Delhi Group. The delegates at the Seventeenth ICLS may wish to take note of these recommendations and indicate whether the ILO should be requested to follow up the work done.
(c) **Statistics on the informal economy**

1.2.4. The ILO is an active member of the Expert Group on Informal Sector Statistics (Delhi Group), which was established in 1997 by the United Nations Statistical Commission as one of the City Groups. STAT prepared a number of technical papers for the annual meetings of the Delhi Group and hosted the meeting in 2000. It contributed to the preparation of the publication *Measuring the non-observed economy – A handbook*, which was published in 2002 jointly by the OECD, International Monetary Fund (IMF), ILO and the Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS STAT). STAT also participated in the development of a conceptual framework for defining the informal economy, which was included in the ILO report *Decent work and the informal economy* prepared for the ILC in 2002 (see section 3.1 below).

(d) **Child labour statistics**

1.2.5. The Sixteenth ICLS gave unanimous support for the ILO’s work in designing and testing alternative survey methodologies for the measurement of the activities of children, and for the development of draft guidelines concerning statistics on child labour for consideration at the Seventeenth ICLS.

1.2.6. The Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) was created in 1998 as an interdepartmental programme of the ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). This was in response to the growing need for reliable, comparable and gender-sensitive data and information on child labour for research, programme design and monitoring, and advocacy purposes. Over the period since 1998, SIMPOC has provided technical assistance for child labour data collection and analysis to more than 40 countries. More details of the methodological issues and challenges in measuring child labour are given in section 2.5.

1.2.7. SIMPOC has also commenced the preparation of a set of guidelines on the measurement of child labour as requested by the Sixteenth ICLS and it is possible that these guidelines will be available at the Seventeenth ICLS.

1.2.8. In view of responding to a number of challenges which have emerged in the course of SIMPOC’s work, an External Advisory Committee was established in April 2003. The SIMPOC External Advisory Committee (SEAC) is a multidisciplinary body whose mission is to: (a) offer technical and strategic advice and guidance regarding child labour statistics – ranging from concepts and measurement issues to data processing, dissemination and analysis; (b) help SIMPOC keep abreast of the latest research techniques in the field of social statistics and network with renowned institutions and experts; (c) advise SIMPOC on development of a new and more needs-oriented product range; and (d) assist in advocacy and promotion of SIMPOC work to give it greater visibility in the policy and research communities. The Committee’s first meeting was held on 14-15 April 2003. It was established that it will meet twice a year (for more information, see www.ilo.org/ipec/simpoc).

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1 SIMPOC has since 1999 been an integral part of the InFocus Programme on Child Labour (IPEC).

2 List of participating countries is available on the IPEC web site www.ilo.org/childlabour
(e) Consumer price indices (CPI)

1.2.9. The work on the revision of the Fourteenth ICLS resolution on consumer price indices is described in Report III. In parallel with this, the Bureau of Statistics has, as part of the Intersecretariat Working Group on Price Statistics (IWGPS), 3 undertaken additional developmental work to revise the 1989 ILO manual on CPI (ILO, 1989). The need to revise, update and greatly expand the ILO manual was gradually recognized and accepted during the late 1990s and, as a result, the IWGPS was established in 1998 to coordinate the efforts and expertise of the major organizations concerned with prices. The revised CPI manual produced by the IWGPS 4 provides considerably more detail, information, explanation and rationalization of CPI methodology and the relevant economic and statistical theory than can be included in the new CPI resolution. It also presents an overview of conceptual and theoretical issues that should be considered when making decisions on the various problems in the daily compilation of the CPI. The manual documents different practices currently in use and points out alternatives to existing practices whenever possible, along with their advantages and disadvantages. The electronic version on the Web is intended to be a “living document”, which will be amended over time to address emerging issues in the future.

(f) International labour migration statistics

1.2.10. In September 1999 the ILO’s International Migration Programme launched an experimental International Labour Migration (ILM) database. The objective was to systematically collect and disseminate important statistical information related to international labour migration through the Internet by maintaining it as an online database at the address: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/ilmdb/index.htm

1.2.11. The ILM database is designed to contain 13 tables on migration-related labour statistics, covering flows and stocks of emigrants and immigrants, and a profile of migration by gender, origin/destination, employment status, occupation and economic activity. The tables provide for inclusion of time series data from 1986 onwards. In early 2003 the database included some statistics for 86 countries, including all OECD countries except Iceland. To the extent possible the statistics are obtained through cooperation with other regional and international agencies, in particular EUROSTAT and OECD. The statistics are currently limited to statistics on regular (documented) migrant workers, as few countries can provide reliable estimates on irregular (undocumented) migrant workers.

1.2.12. The statistics on OECD countries for the database were provided by EUROSTAT, and the ILO is collaborating with the joint migration questionnaire survey administered by EUROSTAT in cooperation with the United Nations Population Division and OECD. For other countries, the ILO has used a similar questionnaire in 1998, 2000 and 2001, but the response has been poor. In addition the database was designed to provide for relevant persons and organizations in different countries to submit updates directly. The

3 The IWGPS is composed of representatives from the International Labour Office, the International Monetary Fund, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the United Nations Economic Commission of Europe, the World Bank and the Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT). The Technical Expert Group (TEG-CPI) was established to provide IWGPS with technical advice on the revision of the 1989 ILO manual on CPI.

4 At the time of writing this report, the manual is undergoing final editing, and is expected to be published towards the end of 2003. It will also be available in electronic form on the Web.
new postings were to be added to the ILM database – if found to be of acceptable quality. Due to staff constraints, this option has not been maintained.

1.2.13. Constituents have also received advisory services and training in the collection and analysis of statistics on international migrations. A three-day Regional Training Seminar on Migration Statistics in Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries was held in Warsaw, Poland, in June 1999 for the purpose of improving migration statistics in CEE countries (see ILO (2000d)). The ILO also provided advisory services to Ukraine and Croatia for improving migration statistics, reported in Verma (2000a and 2000b).

(g) ILO-comparable annual employment and unemployment estimates

1.2.14. This dataset of 11 indicators for 27 countries from all regions of the world continues to be published annually in the Bulletin of Labour Statistics. Ten-year time series of annual averages from 1992 up to 2001 were published in 2002 (Lawrence, 2002). The ILO-comparable rates of labour force participation and of unemployment are computed and presented for men, women and both sexes together for all countries covered, providing a quick insight into their relative labour market situations. Separate country tables describe the ILO-comparable methodology for adjustments to harmonize the indicators, the annual averaging method used, and all available ILO-comparable estimates, specifically: working-age population; total and civilian labour force and employment; employment and unemployment by age group and employment by industry. The time series in the LABORSTA database start in 1981 and are now also disseminated over STAT’s Internet statistical web site: http://laborsta.ilo.org.

(h) Labour accounting

1.2.15. The ILO’s work on a labour accounting (LAS) was used as a basis for presenting a report to the thirty-second session of the United Nations Statistical Commission (2001) providing a supplement on relevant labour statistics to the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) to the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA). A presentation of the LAS has also been incorporated into the Handbook on Social Accounting Matrices that is being prepared by a working group reporting to EUROSTAT. A handful of countries has informed the ILO that they have established ongoing programmes to prepare statistics for the labour market that integrates information originating from different sources, but so far only Denmark, the Netherlands and Switzerland seem to be publishing such estimates regularly. The ILO expects to continue to follow the national work in this area, hoping to draw on the experiences gained to improve the current LAS framework and to see whether: (i) it can be expanded to include, e.g. training activities; and (ii) the same basic principles can usefully be applied when trying to enhance the usefulness and coherence of available statistics in other areas (again, statistics on training activities are a good example).

(i) Data quality assessment framework

1.2.16. In cooperation with the Statistics Department of the IMF, the ILO Bureau of Statistics is currently developing a data quality assessment framework for principal labour market statistics (employment, unemployment and wages/earnings). The framework covers

5 See ILO (2000a) and also section 3.6 on statistics related to the ILO’s sectoral programme.
prerequisites of quality and the following five dimensions of quality: integrity; methodological soundness; accuracy and reliability; serviceability; and accessibility. Each dimension is broken down into several elements, indicators, focal issues and key points. Once it has been finalized, the framework will provide a comprehensive set of guidelines for employment, unemployment and wages/earnings statistics that include the latest recommendations adopted by the ICLS and others on these topics.

(j) Other developmental work

1.2.17. Developmental work on the following areas is described elsewhere in this report:

(a) statistics on the employment situation of disabled workers (see section 3.7);
(b) statistics on occupational safety and health (see section 4.1); and
(c) statistics on trade unions and collective bargaining coverage (see section 4.4).

1.3. Data collection, estimation and dissemination

(a) Data collection – General

1.3.1. Until recent years, the ILO has been mainly a secondary gatherer of statistics from countries by asking ministries of labour and/or national statistical offices to work with other national institutions to provide the ILO with labour statistics that the national institutions have collected or compiled. The main vehicles for this have been the annual questionnaires for the Yearbook of Labour Statistics and the October Inquiry (see more details about revisions to this data gathering below). In addition, the Bureau of Statistics has gleaned statistics from printed national publications and web sites and included these data in the Bulletin of Labour Statistics and its quarterly supplements. Information on the methodologies for the national data sources have been gathered periodically from countries for the Sources and methods publications (see also below under data dissemination).

1.3.2. The burden on national statistical agencies and ministries of labour of providing labour statistics to the ILO has long been a matter of concern to the Bureau of Statistics, particularly in recent years when the number of requests by different regional and international organizations for similar data has been growing. The need for more coordination, as well as the possibility of collaboration, in data gathering with other international and regional organizations has been raised informally on a number of occasions. However, while informal agreements have been reached and the Bureau of Statistics has provided labour statistics and other methodological information to the UNSD, IMF, FAO, OECD and EUROSTAT in particular, until recently there have been no institutional arrangements for this. Faced with increasing difficulties in meeting the statistical demands of the international and regional organizations, many national statistical offices have put pressure on the international organizations to introduce more collaboration in data gathering and sharing. The United Nations Statistical Commission at its thirty-third Session (New York, March 2002) noted the problems in this field, and stressed the need for international organizations to strengthen the coordination of their statistical activities (see UN, 2002). The Conference of European Statisticians at its 50th plenary session (Paris, June 2002) also discussed the need for coordination of international data collection (see ECE, 2002), and examined different approaches in this regard. Finally, there was a new exchange of letters in May 2001 between the Director-General of the ILO and the European Commissioner for Employment and Social Affairs in which it was
agreed to develop cooperation by focusing on certain priority areas, including social protection.

1.3.3. In June 2002, the ILO Bureau of Statistics and EUROSTAT initiated discussions with a view to collaboration between the two organizations in gathering data from, and exchanging data about, the Member States of the European Union. The first official contact identified subject areas for possible collaboration, and a general agreement was reached on procedures to be followed. Statistics on accidents at work, employment and unemployment were selected as three of the areas for collaboration (see also section 4.1).

1.3.4. While taking care to minimize the reporting burden on countries, STAT has begun a review of its methods of data gathering to improve the country coverage, the range of data obtained from each country, and the speed between the time that these data are available in the country and the time that they are available to the ILO. Methods to achieve these aims include the use of:

(i) electronic data gathering (completion of STAT questionnaires electronically via the Worldwide Web as was done for the 2001 and 2002 October Inquiries and/or submission of electronic files as attachments to emails);

(ii) ILO’s field offices to identify when data are available in a country but missing from ILO databases and to encourage countries to complete STAT questionnaires as promptly and completely as their availability permits;

(iii) data gathering to be aimed at updating the LABORSTA statistical database, rather than for printed publications as in the past.

1.3.5. With increasing frequency during the last decade or so, units of the ILO other than the Bureau of Statistics have found that their user needs for statistics are not satisfied by the data gathering exercises of the Bureau of Statistics, and have conducted their own secondary data gathering directly with national institutions (for example labour migration statistics) and sponsored and promoted special purpose surveys as primary data collectors through national institutions (for example labour flexibility surveys and socio-economic security surveys). A new unit (Key Indicators of the Labour Market, KILM) also uses statistics gathered by other international and regional agencies and adds these to information extracted from STAT’s statistical database, LABORSTA, to create and maintain its own separate statistical database.

(b) Data dissemination by STAT

1.3.6. The main methods for data dissemination of statistics gathered by the Bureau of Statistics continue to be:

(i) Printed publications, namely the annual Yearbook of Labour Statistics, the quarterly Bulletin of Labour Statistics and its supplements including the annual October Inquiry (which is a special supplement to the Bulletin of Labour Statistics), and the Sources and methods volumes of meta-data. The October Inquiry and the Sources and methods volumes are covered in more detail below.

(ii) Electronic databases, especially the LABORSTA database that is freely available on the Internet (http://laborsta.ilo.org). The LABORSTA database has data from 1969 for tables from all the printed STAT publications (except table 1B) and estimates and projections for the economically active population for 1950 to 2010. Other electronic databases, for example, on employment in finely detailed occupational groups
classified by sex (SEGREGAT), on minimum wage rates in selected countries (LABMINW), are also available on request – for more details, see Annex B.

(iii) **Answers to user requests:** Each day, STAT answers user requests for information by post, email and telephone.

1.3.7. STAT conducted two user surveys during 2002 to investigate user needs in respect of STAT data dissemination. Recipients of the *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* and the *Sources and methods* publications were contacted in January and June 2002, and recipients of the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics* and its supplements (including the *October Inquiry*) were contacted in July 2002. More details of the results of these surveys are available on request. Response rates were relatively low with only 324 replies from recipients of the *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* and 122 replies from recipients of the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics* but, in summary, the surveys showed that about 70 to 80 per cent of respondents wanted the STAT publications in their current printed format with about 10 per cent willing to accept a more limited printed publication. In terms of electronic release, about 85 per cent of respondents also wanted access to these data electronically, preferably through the Worldwide Web (almost 80 per cent of those answering the question), but also by CD-ROM (45 per cent of respondents to the *Bulletin* survey answering the question, and 69 per cent of *Yearbook* subscribers answering the question).

1.3.8. STAT is now preparing to introduce annual CD-ROMs of statistical data. It is hoped that the first of these might be available for presentation at this Seventeenth ICLS.

(c) **SEGREGAT database**

1.3.9. The SEGREGAT database on employment by sex and detailed occupational groups was created with the purpose of analysing the occupational segregation between men and women in the world. Following its updating in 2002, it at present covers about 85 countries and territories (of which: 26 are industrialized economies, 18 transition economies, 13 other countries in Asia and the Pacific, 13 in Latin America and the Caribbean; nine in sub-Saharan Africa and six in the Middle East and North Africa) for years around 1970 (37 countries), 1980 (52), 1990 (57) and 2000 (31). Most of the statistics that have been provided for SEGREGAT are census results. A first presentation of results from the latest updating of the database can be found in ILO, 2003a. The statistics provided by countries to the ILO and stored in SEGREGAT are available to researchers and other users upon request. An effort will be made to add statistics for 2000 for more countries as they become available. The experience in the ILO has demonstrated that these statistics can be used for many other applications than just the description and analysis of occupational segregation.

(d) **Sources and methods: Labour statistics publications**

1.3.10. STAT produces the *Sources and methods: Labour statistics* series, providing methodological information on the sources and methods used in each country to compile

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6 See, e.g. Anker (1998).

7 Statistics for all four periods are available for 11 countries.

8 A detailed documentation of SEGREGAT will be available at the Seventeenth ICLS.
labour statistics. Information collected for Sources and methods: Labour statistics are also summarized in the notes accompanying the online LABORSTA database. The descriptions are presented under standard headings that allow for easy comparison of the various characteristics. Ten volumes have so far been issued, of which four have already been revised and two others are being revised in 2003. Since the Sixteenth ICLS in 1998, a new volume was issued on occupational injuries (1999) and a special edition was issued for transition countries (1999). During 2003 it is expected that revised editions would be released for statistics based on household surveys and for statistics based on administrative records and related sources. Also during 2003, work on revising the volumes relating to population censuses and household income and expenditure statistics was well advanced.\(^9\) Attention is being given to using electronic means for gathering and disseminating the information from countries upon which these volumes are based. Such methods are also hoped to reduce reporting burden, speed processing and minimize translation which is both expensive and the cause of delays.

(e) Revision and updating of the October Inquiry

1.3.11. The ILO October Inquiry on occupational wages and hours of work and on retail food prices is a worldwide survey of wages and hours of work relating to 159 occupations in 49 industry groups and of retail prices of 93 food items, conducted with reference to the month of October of each year. It was initiated in 1924 to give effect to a resolution of the First ICLS (1923), with the initial objective of making comparisons of real wages and of the food purchasing power of wages for workers in member countries. The occupational scope of the Inquiry and the types of wages and hours covered were progressively extended, and the number and types of articles for which prices were collected were progressively increased on the recommendation of various ICLS. The last major revision and expansion of the Inquiry was introduced in October 1985.\(^10\)

1.3.12. The ILO receives a large and increasing number of requests for internationally comparable information on prices and occupational wages every year. To a certain extent, the October Inquiry provides the necessary statistics, but it has become evident that information relating to a wider range of occupations and item prices is needed.

1.3.13. Detailed statistics on occupational wages and on prices are required to strengthen analyses and initiatives in support of decent work policies, including the linking with poverty reduction and gender equality. The various ILO industrial committees and similar bodies make use of these statistics to assess the conditions of work in the industries and occupations that fall within their scope. Repeatedly they have drawn attention to the need for statistics for new industries and occupations. Some of the covered occupations are no longer as important as they used to be, and other occupations have grown in importance over time (for instance in technology-driven sectors and some services). A large number of occupations found mostly in primary industries and labour-intensive manufacturing have lost importance in some countries while they have gained importance in others.

1.3.14. The retail prices part of the October Inquiry is potentially one of the most important sources of broadly comparable international price data on food items. Prices can be used to analyse price relatives and annual price changes in various countries and

\(^9\) These four Sources and methods volumes are expected to be available at the Conference.

regions. The possibility of harmonizing the prices part of the *October Inquiry* and the International Comparisons Program (ICP) is being investigated. This could provide a useful input into validation of the data collected for the ICP and imputation of the missing data. Other possible uses of the price data which are being considered are: (i) annual calculation of purchasing power parities (PPPs) for food; (ii) estimates of the cost of food baskets in local terms; and (iii) comparisons of living standards of workers across countries based on the time needed in order to purchase some items.

1.3.15. The combination of wages and food prices provides a basis for international comparisons of living standards of different groups of workers. However, consumption patterns have evolved over the last 20 years. The importance of food items in the total consumption has been reduced in many countries, and the inclusion of non-food items with reasonably stable quality across countries and time should therefore be considered seriously. The updating of occupations and consumption items would provide users of these statistics with greater possibilities for comparisons of differences in relative wages and their purchasing power over time and between countries. Periodic collection of the relevant weights, respectively based on employment statistics and the relative importance of the items in the consumption baskets, would also improve the usefulness of the statistics for international and inter-temporal analyses.

1.3.16. The ILO is therefore undertaking a substantial review of the *October Inquiry*. A preliminary examination of the importance of existing and potential occupations on the basis of trends and projections in labour force structures in various countries has been carried out, in consultation with various interested departments within the ILO and a number of international organizations, economists, etc. The next steps will involve the preparation of the relevant descriptions and the testing of the availability of employment, wages and hours statistics for the new and revised occupations in a number of industrialized and developing countries. On the basis of the results a list of occupations will be selected for the revised *Inquiry*. A similar exercise will take place to review and update the list of consumption items covered by the *Inquiry*, including collection of the relevant weights. The ILO is also examining ways of improving coverage for these statistics, particularly in Africa and Asia.

(f) Data gathering and dissemination of statistics on the informal economy

1.3.17. A database with statistics on employment in the informal sector was established in 1998 to meet an increasing user demand for such statistics, and is available on request. It was updated in 2001 and 2003. This database (see point 12 in Annex B) contains official national statistics on employment in the informal sector (or small or micro-enterprises or related concepts), as well as methodological information relating to these statistics, for more than 60 countries, virtually all of them being developing or transition countries. On the occasion of the 2002 ILC, the database was used to prepare an *ILO Compendium of official statistics on employment in the informal sector* (STAT Working Paper No. 2002-1). The database also serves as a source for the ILO KILM, and to support the work of the Delhi Group.

(g) Production of estimates and projections

1.3.18. The ILO *Estimates and projections of the economically active population 1950-2010* (fourth edition) (ILO, 1996) is now available through the ILO LABORSTA web site and in CD-ROM. The projections are based on the United Nations Population Estimates and Projections produced in 1998 and 2000, respectively as part of an inter-agency programme of collaboration on demographic and sectoral estimates and
projections. The ILO *Estimates and projections* refer to activity rates and the labour force
disaggregated by sex and five-year age groups (from 10 to 64 years and 65 years and over)
for the period 1950-2010, at ten-year intervals plus 1995. The 1950-90 data include
estimates of the labour force by sex and major economic sectors (i.e., agriculture, industry
and services), with separate results for manufacturing for 1980 and 1990. The data cover
178 countries and territories with a 1990 population of at least 200,000, plus their
aggregations into regions, major areas and the world, a total of 207 geographical units. The
underlying methodology has been published in 2000 as Volume 10 of the ILO series on
Sources and methods: Labour statistics. The fifth edition of the ILO *Estimates and
projections* is under preparation. The projection horizon will be extended to 2020 and a
revised methodology will use an updated and richer dataset. The work is planned to be
completed by the end of 2003.

1.3.19. The ILO has been experimenting with several methods for producing world
and regional estimates of key labour variables. One method, applied for estimating world
unemployment (Mehran, 1999) and estimating the number of children at work in the world
(ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, 2002), borrows from
sampling theory and estimates the world aggregate on the basis of a carefully selected
sample of countries, chosen to mimic a stratified random sample, with probability of
selection proportional to the size of the labour force. An alternative method, applied for
estimating world and regional employment level (Berger et al., 2002), unemployment rate
and employment-population ratio (Schaible, 2000), is based on missing value theory and
attempts to impute values for countries without the necessary data by using regression-type
models in which size of population or gross domestic product are correlated variables. In
addition, other ad hoc methods have been developed for making world and regional
estimates based on incomplete data, such as estimates of fatalities caused by work-related
diseases and occupational accidents (see section 4.1). Under the auspices of the ILO
Advisory Group on Statistics, guidelines are being developed for the production and
dissemination of world and regional estimates of major labour phenomena.

(h) *Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)*

1.3.20. The United Nations Millennium Summit, 2000, agreed to a set of eight
measurable goals and related targets on combating poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy,
environmental degradation and discrimination against women. These MDGs with their 18
targets and 48 indicators are to provide a coherent framework for the entire United Nations
system to work together, to be assessed in an annual report of the Secretary-General to the
United Nations General Assembly on progress towards achieving these goals at the
regional and global levels. A parallel process is taking place at the country level also to
monitor their implementation there.

1.3.21. The ILO is responsible for two indicators: indicator 11 – *Share of women in
wage employment in the non-agricultural sector*, directly under Goal 3: “Promote gender
equality and empower women”; and indicator 45 – *Unemployment rate of 15-to-24-year-
olds, each sex and total*, within target 16 “In cooperation with developing countries,
develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth”, under Goal
8: “Develop a global partnership for development”. STAT, in collaboration with the
Employment Sector’s KILM team, has provided statistics as from 1990 for use in
computing these indicators for regional and global levels. Indicator 11 is calculated as the
number of women in non-agricultural paid employment divided by the total number of
persons in paid employment in the non-agricultural sector. Indicator 45 is calculated as the
number of youths (aged 15-24) who are unemployed as a proportion of all youths in the
labour force. Both datasets are derived from official national statistics. Estimation
procedures were used to obtain missing values in country-level time series and to prepare regional estimates.

1.3.22. In order to refine the information associated with these indicators and to improve their capacity to provide policy guidance most relevant to their respective MDGs, work is being carried out to review the quality and range of available data regarding women’s employment, and young people’s unemployment and to assess both in conjunction with other meaningful variables.

(i) The future of STAT publications

1.3.23. Funds for statistical publications by STAT are becoming more constrained and some cuts in the publication programme are likely. It is expected that the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics* will not be available in printed form as from the end of 2003. (The statistics and methodological descriptions will continue to be available in the LABORSTA database.) The ILO is reviewing its data dissemination policy generally and considering other changes in the content and presentation of the printed publications as well as to the online LABORSTA database. The views of the Conference on the relative importance of our various printed publications and electronic dissemination mechanisms would be appreciated.

(j) Gathering and dissemination of statistics by KILM

1.3.24. As mentioned briefly in section 1.3(a), a project entitled the Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) was initiated within the ILO’s Employment Sector in 1998 in collaboration with the Bureau of Statistics, with the following two primary objectives in mind: (a) to present a core set of labour market indicators; and (b) to improve the availability of the indicators to monitor new employment trends. More details are available about the work of this unit in section 3.4 below. In summary, this project uses data from the Bureau of Statistics databases (LABORSTA), other agency data and information from ILO field offices to generate 20 “key” indicators of the labour market and associated descriptions with guidance on how these might be used.

(k) Gathering and dissemination of statistics on employment in small and medium-sized enterprises

1.3.25. In collaboration with the ILO unit responsible for small enterprises (InFocus Programme on Boosting Employment through Small Enterprise Development or IFP/SEED), the Employment Sector (KILM and IFP/SEED) asked national statistical offices in July 2000 to assess the availability of employment and related indicators by enterprise size classes in ILO member countries. The response rate (58 per cent) was satisfactory and suggested that these indicators are available from 116 countries. Consequently in a first stage during 2003, the ILO will use national statistical publications and other publicly available media to glean statistics on employment by enterprise size classes. Depending on the quality and comparability of statistical and methodological information, an indicator on employment by enterprise size could be included in future editions of the KILM. In a later stage, statistics for other variables by size classes might be gleaned in the same way to produce other indicators.
(l) Gathering and dissemination of statistics on child labour

1.3.26. As reported in more detail in section 2.5, the SIMPOC unit of the ILO has sponsored (sometimes in association with UNICEF, the World Bank and other agencies) 40 sample household surveys, one sample enterprise survey and 38 rapid assessments or other studies in 50 countries during the last five years.

1.3.27. As part of the implementation of these studies, the ILO reached an understanding with a number of countries whereby IPEC acquires a copy of the anonymized micro datasets after completion of the studies. These micro datasets and aggregate statistics derived from them are held on the IPEC databases and can be accessed, through web site www.ilo.org/childlabour, by the public for the purposes of research and analysis.

(m) Gathering and dissemination of statistics on socio-economic security

1.3.28. In its efforts towards developing policies and institutions that provide a growing proportion of the world’s population with social and economic security, the InFocus Programme on Socio-Economic Security (IFP/SES) has given priority to the development of an information base. This work is characterized by three activities, which gather data at the macro, meso and micro levels.

1.3.29. A macro-level global system of information on socio-economic security (SES) indicators, and policy and development outcomes has been constructed. The database has three basic components: (i) a primary database; (ii) a secondary database; and (iii) a database on social security. The primary SES database has been the main concern. A comprehensive questionnaire has been structured to generate information on the seven different forms of work security, i.e. labour market, income, employment, job, skill reproduction, occupational safety and health, and voice representation. Much of the information is standard in many countries, but in many others there is relatively little. Therefore, an important derived, and proposed, objective is that national statistical authorities collect more of the type of data needed to monitor and evaluate the extent and pattern of economic insecurity. The main intention is to collate secondary national-level data and information from existing databases. The data is collected through a system of national and regional correspondents, who constitute part of a network that the programme has created. The database is a long-term exercise and will have to be periodically updated. So, it is anticipated that network partners will update the information on their country as a matter of routine. At present the database covers 98 countries and the intention is to extend this to include all member States of the ILO.

1.3.30. The meso-level instrument is the Enterprise Labour Flexibility and Security (ELFS) Survey. The ELFS gathers extensive information on labour and employment issues and is intended primarily for examining labour practices in medium-sized and large firms. The moot point here is that the conditions of employment for workers are conceived as being the major determinants of their security. Thus, in present circumstances it is important to document the implications of restructuring in the context of globalization and adjustment policies, for conditions of employment and the security of workers. The intent is to come up with viable suggestions for economic and social policy, and for policy directed at enterprises, to enhance levels of socio-economic security. Since its inception in 1999, the IFP/SES has conducted ELFS in 12 countries in Asia, Africa, Eastern Europe, and Latin America.
1.3.31. The micro-level information is gathered through the People’s Security Surveys (PSSs). These surveys of workers and their households, assess the sense of economic and labour-related security, and ascertain from the respondents the sources of insecurity for their respective households. They also explore the impact of state policies, and attempt to identify institutional gaps, and the sort of policies and representative associations or unions that could enhance their economic security. The PSSs are intended to capture the perceptions of security and insecurity among the more vulnerable categories of workers in different communities. Fourteen surveys have been conducted so far; 11 in developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, and in three Eastern European countries.

(n) Gathering and dissemination of statistics on social security

1.3.32. For five decades (1949-99), the ILO has gathered national statistics on social security expenditure and financing in its Inquiry into the cost of social security. Based on the framework of ILO Convention No. 102 (1952), concerning minimum standards of social security, and ILO Recommendations Nos. 67 (1944), and 69 (1944), this survey gathered statistics on receipts and expenditures of social security schemes.

1.3.33. In order to take account of the wider scope of social protection provisions, the methodology and framework of the inquiry was modified in 1997 to include additional social protection functions and institutions and to include information on covered persons (insured and beneficiaries). Replacing the regular “hard-copy” publication series, the data collected for the period 1990-96 is published on a special web site (http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/socfas/research/css/cssindex.htm).

1.3.34. In collaboration with the ILO, the EURODATA Research Archive at the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research (MZES), Mannheim Germany, has produced a database (accessible online and on CD-ROM) that includes all the data from the ILO Inquiry into the cost of social security for the period 1949-93 for most of the western and Central European countries.

1.3.35. The statistics collected by the ILO have been a unique source of comparative data for professionals in the field and for major reports on social protection, such as the World Labour Report 2000. Due to the lack of resources, the inquiry was suspended in 1999. To date, there are no other global statistical sources for data necessary to build core social security indicators.

1.3.36. In the meantime, the ILO has initiated a major new focus in the area of social security statistics, and has launched on an exploratory basis a series of Social protection expenditure and performance reviews (SPERs). For a number of selected countries (starting with Benin, Chile, Nepal, Philippines, Poland, Slovakia, South Africa, Thailand), the SPERs provide an in-depth account of various aspects of social protection. Based on existing statistics and new statistical methods, the SPERs provide information about the structure and level of total social expenditure, the extent of coverage and exclusion from social protection, other aspects of social protection coverage, such as access to health care. The SPER framework also includes a development of performance indicators with respect to effectiveness, efficiency, population coverage and the adequacy of benefit levels of the national social protection systems as well as a set of performance indicators for individual social protection schemes/programmes.

11 For further information, see Hagemejer (2001).
1.3.37. Additionally, the Social Security Financial, Actuarial and Statistical Services Branch of the ILO, which is responsible for statistical work in the field of social security, has started to develop – in cooperation with the Council of Europe – a manual on statistical data requirements and indicators related to reporting on compliance with ILO Convention No. 102 on minimum standards in social security and with the European Code of Social Security.

(o) Collecting, using, archiving and disseminating micro data

1.3.38. As mentioned earlier, traditionally the ILO has limited itself to collecting, using and disseminating statistics produced by national statistical organizations or researchers. However, in particular during the last ten years, the Office has increasingly been receiving micro data from surveys that it has commissioned or sponsored. As an example, ILO’s SIMPOC/IPEC programme has been using statistics on child labour from surveys that it has sponsored in more than 50 countries, and will, by the end of 2003, be archiving and making available to other users micro datasets for about 20 countries. There are also other units in the ILO that are engaged in similar activities (including the IFP/SES unit – see section 1.3(m) above), and at a regional level, SIAL (Sistema de Información y Análisis Laboral) (Panama) archives micro data from surveys undertaken by national statistical offices in the region to make special tabulations available to users upon request. The ILO has also recruited, and will increasingly recruit, staff trained in the use of micro data for analysis.

1.3.39. At the same time the costs of maintaining micro data and associated documentations electronically have been drastically reduced over the last five years; and tools for searching and sharing data have become widely available and affordable for most users, making online access to micro data possible across institutional and national boundaries.

1.3.40. The ILO will be reviewing its policies for the handling, dissemination, archiving and/or destruction of these micro datasets, especially those for which the ILO is directly or indirectly responsible for their initial collection.

1.4. Technical cooperation, advisory services and training

(a) Introduction

1.4.1. Technical assistance continues to be one of the three major areas of STAT’s activities. These activities are undertaken from ILO headquarters as well as through the ILO field offices. The principal means have been: (a) field missions; (b) national and international seminars and workshops; (c) training courses in labour statistics; (d) organization of individual short-term training; (e) backstopping of labour statistics projects funded by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Bank; and (f) translation of ILO Recommendations and manuals into languages other than the official three (English, French and Spanish).

(b) Training

1.4.2. STAT’s training activities, mainly dependant on its own staff expertise and time, have become an expected element of its work programme. Since the Sixteenth ICLS, training courses were carried out on a wide range of topics in many countries, although no
explicit resources are allocated to the programme. Training is designed to enhance the link between, and strengthen the impact of, STAT’s international statistical standard-setting work and technical cooperation activities in member States. Constituents place a high priority on training of their national statisticians and STAT has had considerable success with its training programme. However, efforts to consolidate training into an assured and robust programme will be more successful if regular financing enables long-term planning and scheduling of training activities.

1.4.3. Over the past decade, STAT has carried out more than 25 training programmes in all regions. Three broad, month-long international training courses were held in English or French with over 60 participants from some 50 countries worldwide. Other activities covered core labour statistics subjects, as well as a wide range of labour statistics-related special topics, including: labour force surveys, labour market information systems, employment creation, surveys of earnings, the development of a wages statistics programme, enterprise surveys, poverty analysis, consumer price indices, statistics for social policy, practical statistics, migration statistics, labour inspection and statistical collection, gender statistics, international statistical classifications, and more. These activities have been national, regional and international and were prepared either solely by STAT or in cooperation with other national and international agencies and ILO field offices. In addition, the Bureau of Statistics continues to support the ILO Turin Training Centre activities and to provide resource persons for other training programmes and through its technical cooperation projects.

1.4.4. Workshops based on the joint UN/ILO publication on guidance to implement the United Nations Recommendations concerning economic characteristics in the population census for the 2000 round are being developed for member States that are still preparing or are now carrying out their national census.

1.4.5. The first module: *Economically active population: Employment, unemployment, underemployment* (100 pp.) of the modular training series ILO International Training Compendium on Labour Statistics has been published and is now available in English. Its purpose is to serve as a reference material for all persons intending to train practitioners or be trained in the use and production of statistics of the economically active population (EAP). Together with practical assignments, visual aid presentations, a glossary and bibliography, it presents and explains the internationally recommended guidelines for measuring the EAP that may be useful for analysing, evaluating and monitoring how an economy is performing and for implementing policies and programmes for the labour market and its men and women workers.

(c) Technical cooperation and advisory services

1.4.6. All technical assistance activities have been geared towards enhancing and reinforcing the statistical infrastructure in central statistical offices, labour ministries and employers’ and workers’ organizations. Technical assistance efforts were mainly concentrated on the following priority areas identified by the recipient member countries: preparation for and refinement of labour force surveys and surveys of household income and expenditure; collection of wages and labour cost statistics, statistics on migrant workers; development of national classifications of occupations based on ISCO-88 (International Standard Classification of Occupations, 1988); measurement of employment in the informal sector; measurement and analysis of poverty; compilation of labour statistics using administrative records (for example, labour dispute statistics); improvements in and development of labour market information systems; development of statistics on occupational injuries; revision of consumer price indices; and collection of child labour statistics.
1.4.7. In many countries, especially those in the central African and Great Lakes region and other parts of sub-Saharan Africa, statistical systems have been seriously weakened over the last decade by economic and socio-political crises and armed conflicts. Statistical capacities in general, and capacities for generating labour statistics in particular, need to be strengthened. The ILO field structure attempts to do this, but has limited human and financial resources for this activity. As already mentioned, several field positions dealing with labour statistics have been vacant for some time, but action is being taken to fill them, and some field technical teams have specialists who also provide statistical support. The Conference may wish to comment on the current capacity of the ILO for such support to national labour statistics programmes.

1.4.8. In Asia, 23 technical missions were carried out by the statistician attached to the Bangkok technical team in the period from November 1997 to August 2001. These missions were related to follow-up to the 1997 booklet on compiling labour statistics from administrative records (Cambodia), labour force survey projects (Mongolia, Nepal and Thailand), training on information systems for occupational safety and health (China and Viet Nam), training on labour market information systems (Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam) and reviews of labour statistics (China, Viet Nam).

1.4.9. The IPEC/SIMPOC child labour programme has six statisticians appointed to various ILO field offices, including Bangkok (two), Abidjan, Dar es Salaam and San José (two). Activities have been undertaken in Asia, Africa and South and Central America to measure child labour in selected countries, their characteristics, the causes and consequences (see also section 2.5).

1.4.10. Over the past five years, the ILO multidisciplinary team in Yaoundé has attempted to enhance the central African labour market information systems, with advisory and sensitization services, technical cooperation projects and advocacy and training actions in labour statistics. In 1999 and 2000, two training workshops on labour market information systems were organized in Douala (Cameroon), in conjunction with domestic partners.

1.4.11. The Yaoundé team and others (including those in Addis Ababa, Harare, Abidjan and San José) are developing or have developed subregional databases on labour statistics and several of these will also be linked, in due course, with the Labour Market Information Library project operated by ILO/KILM and the ILO Bureau of Statistics. This project aims to improve country capacities for gathering and analysing labour statistics and improve the availability of a wider range of labour market information in ILO databases (see section 3.4 for more information).

1.4.12. Within its geographic area (five South American countries), the ILO multidisciplinary team in Santiago has been active during the reporting period both in processing and in generating statistical information as follows:

(a) Household survey data and other available information were used to generate comparable data across countries (for example, adjusting for differences in definition of population in working age, tabulations by employment category and enterprise size). This information is used both in the annual Panorama Laboral statistical publication and in other ILO activities (general labour market analysis and estimates of decent work deficit).

(b) A new methodology that includes a time-use survey is being developed for the measurement of child labour in Chile as part of an IPEC project in cooperation with the Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas. This methodology is expected to reduce underreporting of employment among children and adolescents. Moreover, the worst
forms of child labour are being registered and measured in cooperation with the 
Servicio Nacional de Menores.

(c) Administrative enterprise-level employment data are being used in cooperation with 
the Chilean Asociación Chilena de Seguridad for the purpose of labour market 
analysis (panel analysis of gross employment creation and destruction flows; analysis 
of employment performance by enterprise size class).

1.5. Status of the Labour Statistics Convention, 
1985 (No. 160)

1.5.1. The Labour Statistics Convention, 1985 (No. 160), and Recommendation (No. 
170), together with the resolutions of the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians, 
comprise the current international standards on labour statistics (see ILO, 2000b). They 
provide the basic framework under which the Bureau of Statistics operates and within 
which countries may progressively develop their systems of labour statistics in accordance 
with their economic and social circumstances and resources.

1.5.2. Convention No. 160 was adopted by the ILC in 1985, and by the end of 2002 
had been ratified by 45 member States (Annex A); five non-metropolitan territories had 
also declared their acceptance (with or without modifications) of its obligations. It replaces 
the earlier Convention concerning Statistics of Wages and Hours of Work, 1938 (No. 63). 
Convention No. 160 sets out the basic scope of information concerning labour that is 
required for national planning and policy-making, in the form of a minimum list of nine 
topics on which ratifying countries are required to collect, compile and publish statistics: 
the economically active population; employment; unemployment and underemployment; 
wages and hours of work (average earnings and hours of work, and time rates of wages and 
normal hours of work); wage structure and distribution; labour cost; consumer price 
indices; household expenditures and household income; occupational injuries and diseases; 
and labour (industrial) disputes. The Convention gives guidance on the coverage of the 
statistics and requires that the latest standards and guidelines established under the 
auspices of the ILO be taken into consideration and that representative organizations of 
employers and workers be consulted when statistical concepts, definitions and 
methodology are designed or revised. Ratification of the Convention is facilitated by the 
possibility of accepting the obligations with respect to only one of the nine topics. The 
Convention is supplemented by Recommendation No. 170, which deals with the 
periodicity of collection and compilation of the statistics, and the ways in which they are to 
be classified. It also gives guidance on statistical infrastructure.

1.5.3. Member States that have ratified the Convention are required to report in 
detail to the ILO, the year following the entry into force of their ratification, on the 
measures that have been taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention. A second 
detailed report on its implementation is required two years later and subsequent reports at 
five-year intervals, according to the reporting schedule established for the Convention. The 
reports are examined by the ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions 
and Recommendations at its annual sessions.

1.5.4. ILO action to ensure that the international labour standards contribute fully to 
the development effort includes the following: direct contacts to respond to requests by 
governments wishing to resolve specific difficulties; technical cooperation projects on 
standards themselves in order to make them known and assist directly in their 
implementation; dissemination of information on what is happening concerning standards 
in other countries; and links with ILO technical cooperation projects. The Bureau of 
Statistics plays an active role in these activities. It has initiated a series of tripartite
seminars to promote Convention No. 160 and Recommendation No. 170, the first of which was held in December 2001 in Addis Ababa, in collaboration with the ILO Multidisciplinary Advisory Team for East Africa (EAMAT). Twenty-four participants from six English-speaking countries in Africa attended this first seminar.
2. Measuring and monitoring decent work

2.1. General framework of “decent work”

2.1.1. The work of the ILO aims to help countries provide “opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (ILO, 1999). Implicit in this statement are six dimensions on what constitutes decent work. The first two dimensions (opportunities for work and freedom of choice of employment) are concerned with the availability of work and the acceptable scope of work. The other four dimensions (productive work, equity, security and dignity at work) are concerned with the extent to which the work is decent.

2.1.2. In building statistical indicators to measure decent work, two central considerations should be highlighted. Firstly, decent work is meant especially to be concerned about the poorest and most vulnerable. Therefore, decent work indicators should often be concerned with distributions and measuring the situation of the least well-off rather than averages covering the whole working population. Secondly, decent work is concerned with the actual situation that people face. Thus, indicators should generally measure actual outcomes and conditions. When considering the legal situation in a country or international standards, the indicators should, whenever possible, measure effectiveness and coverage, not just the existence of legislation. A number of other considerations are mentioned in Anker et al. (2002).

2.1.3. The ILO has decided to use a pluralistic approach initially in developing indicators of decent work followed by a review of this work. The content of this chapter reflects this pluralism, reporting the different approaches presently studied in the various departments of the ILO.

2.2. Core indicators of “decent work”

2.2.1. Based on the framework described above, a set of 29 statistical indicators has been identified as a first stage proposal for consideration initially within the ILO. The indicators are organized under ten headings, supplemented by an 11th concerning the economic and social context in which decent work should be analysed. Each heading is meant to represent a characteristic of work that individuals from around the world would consider as a key element of decent work. The 29 indicators are listed in table 1, each with a brief statement on its relevance for measuring decent work.

Table 1. List of 29 core indicators of decent work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Labour force participation rate</td>
<td>The labour force participation rate is an overall indicator of the level of labour market activity, and its breakdown by sex and age group gives a profile of the distribution of the economically active population within a country, and for this reason could have been included with the economic and social context indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Employment-population ratio</td>
<td>The employment-population ratio measures the proportion of the working age population that is employed. Its evolution through time provides information on the extent to which an economy generates work to its growing population.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicator number</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Unemployment rate</td>
<td>The unemployment rate measures the number of unemployed as a percentage of the labour force, unemployed being persons without work, not even for one hour during the reference period, currently available for work and actively seeking work. In most industrialized countries, the unemployment rate is regarded as an important indicator of labour market performance. In low-income countries, however, the significance and meaning of the unemployment rate is much more limited, as the majority of workers in the absence of unemployment insurance or other public relief schemes cannot survive lengthy spells of unemployment and must engage themselves in some form of economic activity, however insignificant or inadequate. In this sense, they will be classified as employed, and not unemployed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Youth unemployment rate</td>
<td>The youth unemployment rate measures the number of unemployed as a percentage of the labour force in the age category 15-24 years. It is a targeted indicator of lack of work in both industrialized and low-income countries, as the population most at risk of unemployment is generally the educated youth entering the labour market for the first time in all countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment</td>
<td>The share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment is proposed as an indicator of employment opportunities, especially for developing countries, because non-agricultural wage or salary employment is the type of employment that many workers in these countries seek. Also, it provides broad information on the relative size of “informal sector employment” in the urban economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Percentage of children not at school</td>
<td>Decent work must be work that respects the fundamental principles and rights at work accepted by society. The 1998 ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, which has won broad endorsement across the world community, identifies two forms of work that should be eliminated or abolished: forced labour and child labour (especially hazardous and other worst forms of child labour). The percentage of children not attending school is proposed as a proxy measure for child labour for abolition, as well as being a useful indicator and goal in its own right for child welfare. Indeed, universal school enrolment could be seen as a goal against which the elimination of unacceptable child labour can be measured. No indicator on forced labour can be proposed at present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Percentage of children in wage or self-employment</td>
<td>Wage or self-employment of children often occurs under exploitative conditions and is often detrimental to their health, safety and morals. This indicator has several advantages. It excludes unpaid family labour by children, which is often legal at the national level, it is relatively easy to measure with typical labour force survey questions, and it can be analysed in conjunction with data on adult workers, as there is evidence to negatively affect the employment opportunities and wage rates of these workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Percentage of employment with low pay rate</td>
<td>For many people, the most important characteristic of work is pay, and the principle of an “adequate living wage” is mentioned in the Preamble to the ILO Constitution. In the present context, low pay rate is defined as the percentage of the employed population whose average hourly earnings is below half of the median of the distribution or an absolute minimum, whichever is greater.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Average earnings in selected occupations</td>
<td>Occupation earnings are particularly useful for comparing wage trends, and wage differentials between different categories of workers, e.g., between men and women in the same occupations, between workers with different skill-level occupations, or between occupations with different degrees of exposure to pressures of international trade. The choice of the specific occupations to be selected for this purpose is being considered.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indicator number</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Percentage of employment with excessive hours of work</td>
<td>Excessive and atypical hours of work are a threat to physical and mental health, interfere with the balance between work and family life, and often signal an inadequate hourly pay. Excessive hours of work also reduce productivity. In line with ILO Convention No. 1 which specifies that hours of work per week should not exceed 48, the excessive hours indicator is defined here as the percentage of employed persons whose usual hours of work at all jobs are more than 48 hours per week for economic reasons. The “economic reasons” qualifier is intended to separate this phenomenon from long hours of work for voluntary reasons such as ambition or passion for work, or involuntary reasons such as nature of work, corporate norms, or exceptional circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Time-related underemployment rate</td>
<td>For virtually all workers, earnings are adequate only if a sufficient number of hours can be worked. Working fewer hours than desired is termed “time-related underemployment” and is defined in terms of persons in employment who are “working less than a threshold period”, and are “willing” and “available” to work additional hours (see 1998 resolution concerning the measurement of underemployment and inadequate employment situations in ILO, 2000b). Time-related underemployment rate is the ratio of the number of persons in time-related underemployment to the total number of persons employed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Percentage of employed persons with job tenure of less than one year</td>
<td>Losing one’s job or work is a serious event, and there is little doubt that job security is seen by most people as an important aspect of decent work. Deciding on a “decent” level of job security amounts to choosing a horizon over which the probability of continuing work is sufficiently high. Given the difficulty of measuring a probability rather than an actual event, job security is measured by an indicator of past employment stability, namely, “job tenure” defined here as the percentage of employed persons who have held their main job/work for less than one year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Percentage of employees with temporary work</td>
<td>For employees a permanent or indefinite job is usually more secure than an explicitly temporary job. The percentage of employees who have temporary jobs is therefore proposed as a second indicator of job security.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Ratio of the employment rate for women with children under compulsory school age to the employment rate for all women aged 20-49</td>
<td>Failing to directly measure the degree to which workplaces are accommodating to family needs, the proposed indicator measures the extent to which women exercise the option of having children and continuing to work. Its expression is clearest when analysed in relation to the employment rate of all women aged 20-49, which is why the proposed indicator is formulated as a ratio.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Occupational segregation on the basis of sex</td>
<td>Equal opportunity and treatment in employment is an intrinsic human expectation. At the international level, this has been expressed in terms of equality of opportunity in employment and occupation, and equal pay for work of equal value. The most common indicator of the level of occupational sex segregation in a country is the index of dissimilarity that measures the tendency of labour markets to be segmented on the basis of gender. More direct indicators measure the extent to which labour markets are separated into “male” and “female” occupations, e.g., the percentage of female (or male) non-agricultural employment in a female-dominated (or male-dominated) occupation, or to the total non-agricultural employment in a gender dominated occupation – occupations with at least 80 per cent of workers are either all men or all women. The indicator should in time be expanded to cover other prohibited grounds of discrimination such as race and religion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Ratio of the female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations to the female share of non-agricultural employment</td>
<td>This indicator measures the extent to which women are in positions of authority and decision-making.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicator number</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Indicators relating to safe work environment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Fatal injury rate per 100,000 employees</td>
<td>In general terms, safety and health at work relates to conditions that preserve and promote the physical and psychological integrity of the worker. Risk at work comes in many forms – repetitive tasks, long hours, sustained exposure to harmful substances, noise, psychological pressure, physical aggression and much more. An extreme indicator is the rate of fatal injuries resulting from occupational accidents per 100,000 employees. The fatal injury rate is proposed as a safe work indicator rather than the non-fatal injuries rate, because the reporting of fatalities is believed to be more complete and has fewer definitional problems compared to non-fatal injuries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Labour inspection</td>
<td>The number of labour inspectors per 100,000 employees or covered employees is an indicator of the State’s capacity to enforce safe work principles, laws and regulations, hence a proxy measure of prevention efforts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Occupational injury insurance coverage</td>
<td>The percentage of the employees covered by employment injury insurance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicators relating to social protection</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Public social security expenditure (per cent of GDP, separately for total, health services, and old-age pensions)</td>
<td>This is the only social protection indicator for which data are currently available and maintained for a substantial number of countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Public expenditure on needs-based cash income support (per cent of GDP)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Beneficiaries of cash income support (per cent of poor)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Share of population over 65 benefiting from a pension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Share of economically active population contributing to a pension fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Average monthly pension expressed as a percentage of median/minimum earnings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicators relating to social dialogue and workplace relations</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Union density rate</td>
<td>An important dimension of decent work is the extent to which workers can express themselves on work-related matters and participate in defining their working conditions. A proposed indicator is the union density rate defined as the number of dues paying union members as a percentage of total wage employment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Collective wage bargaining coverage rate</td>
<td>The ability of workers to organize freely to defend their interests collectively in negotiations with the employer is an objective criterion of democracy at the workplace and the effectiveness of social dialogue. As a wage is a central element of the terms and conditions of employment, the proposed indicator is the number of workers covered by a collectively negotiated wage agreement as a percentage of total wage employment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Strikes and lockouts</td>
<td>One measure of the failure of social dialogue is the recourse to strike. At the same time in certain circumstances, the absence of strike action could indicate the absence of the right to strike and weak social dialogue. The proposed indicator is the number of days lost through industrial action per 1,000 wage employees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Indicators relating to the economic and social context of decent work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Informal economy employment</td>
<td>Given that informal sector employment is often associated with the absence of various characteristics of decent work such as low pay and social protection, it is proposed to include employment in the informal economy as a decent work indicator. Employment in the informal economy is a job-based concept (ILO, 2002e) and is distinct from the concept of informal sector employment which is enterprise based (see the 1993 resolution concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector in ILO, 2000b).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* No internationally recognized measures of forced labour and child labour are currently available. However, work is under way by the ILO to develop appropriate definitions and statistical tools for measuring child labour, and to examine the possibility of producing global estimates of forced labour.

2.2.2. In addition, to consider the economic and social context within which decent work occurs, certain general indicators are proposed: output per employed person at PPP prices; growth of output per employed person in all branches of economic activity and separately in manufacturing; inflation as measured by the consumer price index where available; education of the adult population as measured by the adult literacy rate and the adult secondary-school graduation rate; the composition of employment by economic sector – agriculture, industry and services; income inequality as measured by the ratio of the top 10 per cent to the bottom 10 per cent of households in the income or consumption distribution; and poverty measured in terms of the percentage of the population subsisting on less than $1 per day or less than $2 per day. In the process of measurement and analysis that will follow in the next few years, certain indicators may no doubt be eliminated as non-informative, too complex or for other reasons, and others may be added to cover uncharted or difficult topics such as freedom of association and social dialogue.

2.3. Socio-economic security indicators

2.3.1. The IFP/SES unit of the ILO is also working on decent work indicators and its work on the development of the database on socio-economic security (SES) indicators has also been motivated by the vision and a conceptual framework elaborated in the Director-General’s Report, *Decent work*, and in several other ILO publications. From a database development point of view, the key point is that the concept of socio-economic security must be broken down into component parts. Commensurately, the primary SES database is a fairly substantive instrument, which gathers information on the seven forms of security, i.e. labour market, income, employment, job, skill reproduction, occupational safety and health, and voice representation, and identifies 150 indicators. These indicators capture the intrinsic aspects of decent work. The information collected is for two representative years, 1990 and 1999, and, where necessary, is gender segregated. When this is translated into the database, it numbers 758 variables.

2.3.2. A long-term objective is that a Decent Work Index (DWI) be used as a standard measure of decent work performance. In sum, it is intended to develop the index, which would be presented in annual reports published by the ILO. The work has proceeded on a pilot basis, with the DWI developed for a selected sample of developed, and developing, countries.

2.3.3. A complementary index, the Decent Work Enterprise Index, which is a measure of the commitment and achievement by firms to practices oriented to decent work has also been developed. Again, a gradual approach has been adopted, and the index has been constructed for a limited number of countries, in which the enterprise surveys have been undertaken.
2.3.4. Section 4.3 below gives more details on the methodological issues faced by the Socio-Economic Security Unit.

2.4. Measuring forced labour

(a) Introduction

2.4.1. Forced labour persists in its various forms as a serious violation of human rights across the world. National governments urgently need good information on the extent of forced labour if they are to monitor its prevalence and devise effective policies to combat it. But no reliable estimates of its incidence exist. The second Global Report on the elimination of forced labour, to be presented by the ILO Director-General to the ILC in 2005 under the follow-up to the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, aims to contain such estimates.

(b) Concepts and definitions on forced labour

2.4.2. Forced labour is defined in ILO Convention No. 29 (1930) as: “all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily”. There are therefore two defining characteristics:

- existence of a penalty or threat of a penalty for not performing the work demanded; and
- absence of free consent of the worker to undertake the work.

2.4.3. In practice forced labour takes many forms. Subcategories of forced labour relevant for different policy concerns and measures, include: chattel slavery and abductions; compulsory recruitment into armed conflict; debt bondage; forced labour exacted by private individuals or enterprises through diverse mechanisms (e.g. trafficking, violence or threat of violence or deportation, physical confinement, confiscation of documents); forced labour exacted by the State (e.g. for compulsory public or communal works or as a means of punishment); forced prison labour; and miscellaneous other categories (e.g. forced child labour linked to “educational” establishments, certain labour demanded under customary or religious practices, forced overtime and prohibition on resignation). It is likely that there will be overlap between several of these groups.

2.4.4. While the legal definition of forced labour is fixed, in ILO Conventions and other international instruments, for measurement purposes, it will be necessary to define more easily observable criteria that might be used as direct or indirect indicators of the existence of a forced labour situation. The inability of the worker to leave the job, for reasons other than the consequent loss of income (e.g. confiscation of documents, violence or threats of violence, physical restrictions on movement or enforced prohibition on seeking alternative employment, forced separation from or sanctions against family members) are examples of direct indicators of forced labour. The absence of remuneration for work accomplished, or negligible payment relative to free market rates, excessive working hours, total dependence on employer for basic survival or restrictions on freedom to cultivate one’s own plot of land for subsistence purposes, are indicators of the possible existence of a forced labour situation, but in themselves do not confirm its presence. The correlations between these latter variables and forced labour need to be further explored.
(c) **User needs and applications for statistics on forced labour**

2.4.5. Users fall into two broad categories:

- **National users**: who may use the estimates as a basis for developing and implementing national policy and programmes of action to combat forced labour and to evaluate their effectiveness, as well as for advocacy to draw attention to the problem. Users will include government, trade unions, employers’ organizations, NGOs, human rights groups, etc.

- **Global users**: including the ILO and other organizations working on human rights and labour rights, for whom the estimates will serve as a tool for advocacy and awareness-raising, and for evaluating the extent to which progress is made. Convincing data are needed to substantiate or reject claims (including by the ILO) that forced labour is a global problem of significant dimensions, affecting most countries in the world and, in at least some of its forms, undergoing a significant increase.

(d) **Data requirements for statistics on forced labour**

2.4.6. The first requirement is for an estimate of the number of men and women working under conditions of forced labour, i.e. the global number of forced labourers, for a specified, recent year. Estimates are also needed by subcategory of forced labour. In the course of time, statistics on forced labour should be disaggregated by broad age group as well as by sex, geographically by country, region and by economic grouping. Given the paucity of existing information, the initial estimates will, of necessity, be approximate with a high margin of error. It will have to be stressed that, at best, the first set of estimates will give an order of magnitude for the problem, and possibly be presented as range estimates.

(e) **Some measurement issues for statistics on forced labour**

2.4.7. The primary issue that complicates the measurement of forced labour is its essentially illegal, and sometimes criminal, nature (even though, in fact, authorities may tolerate the practices). Forced labour will thus never appear explicitly in official statistics. Research in this area will be difficult, perhaps even dangerous, as deliberate efforts will be made by both the perpetrators and the victims to avoid detection.

2.4.8. Many forms of forced labour can only be detected through careful questioning of its victims and their exploiters. For example, there may be a fairly fine distinction between trafficking resulting in *forced labour*, and smuggling of persons resulting in *labour exploitation*. Use of proxy indicators would also seem to be problematic, as no clear correlations are yet known between forced labour and more easily observable phenomena.

2.4.9. Forced labour is neither evenly distributed over a country’s territory nor across economic sectors. Its incidence is likely to be clustered in distinct locations, and totally absent or very rare in large areas of a country. Forced labourers will usually represent only a small proportion of the total labour force and absolute numbers will also be relatively low in most countries, with some exceptions. This situation complicates sampling procedures and also militates against the use of any “piggy-backing” of data collection through adding a forced labour module or questions onto other regular national sample survey efforts.
2.4.10. Another issue is the need to devise groupings of countries that show similar patterns of incidence of forced labour, so as to derive regional and global estimates on the basis of a limited number of national surveys.

(f) Possible measurement methods for statistics on forced labour

2.4.11. Forced labour has never been comprehensively surveyed in the past. Some survey work has been undertaken at national level by government agencies (e.g. bonded labour in India and Nepal). Estimates have been compiled from experts’ judgements (e.g. International Organization for Migration on trafficking for sexual exploitation (IOM, 2001), Kevin Bales’ global estimate of “slave labour”, based on a collation of national estimates (Bales, 2002), United States Department of State estimates of trafficking (United States Department of State, 2002)). An attempt has been made to derive a location-specific index of vulnerability to debt bondage (Institute for Human Development, India\(^1\)). But there are no recent, reliable surveys of forced labour on a large-scale, and for the vast majority of countries no data at all exist on this sensitive topic.

2.4.12. The ILO’s Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL) is currently undertaking exploratory research with partners in a number of countries, using qualitative rapid assessment methods as well as more formal questionnaire-based approaches. This includes work in Pakistan on bonded labour, in Brazil on abusive recruitment and employment practices, in West Africa to investigate the possible existence of different forms of forced labour, and in Europe on forced labour linked to trafficking. The ILO’s Social Finance Programme (SFP) also has experimented with a variety of survey methods, primarily addressing vulnerability to debt bondage, rather than its incidence. This research will generate experience on which future work to develop reliable statistics will be built.

2.4.13. Measurement methods are likely to include a combination of:

- Qualitative research through rapid assessments by informed experts, case studies and other methods that will help refine understanding of the different forms of forced labour, including how they can best be measured statistically in different national contexts.

- Selected experimental (household or other unit) sample surveys, in a limited number of countries that express a willingness to collaborate in such an exercise and in which significant numbers of forced labourers are believed to exist.

- Exploration of the use of proxy indicators of forced labour, that can be derived from other available sources of survey data.

- Data on forced child labour to be derived from ILO/SIMPOC surveys.

- Expert meetings in different regions, and use of secondary sources of information.

2.5. Child labour

(a) Issues in the measurement of child labour

Current methods of data collection

2.5.1. The current methods used for collecting data on children’s activities are a combination of sample survey and participatory approaches, namely: (a) household-based surveys; (b) rapid assessment studies; (c) baseline surveys; (d) establishment/employer surveys; (e) street children inquiries; and (f) school surveys. These child labour survey methodologies are not mutually exclusive in that they can be applied in a complementary way.

Household-based child labour surveys

2.5.2. These countrywide sample child labour inquiries are intended to generate information on children’s (aged 5-17) activities, and are conducted either as a module to another survey (e.g. labour force survey) or as a stand-alone survey. Children’s activities cover schooling and other non-economic activities such as housekeeping and/or household chores carried out in parents’ or guardians’ households, as well as economic activities as defined in international standards (that is, including work within and outside the household). In general, both children and the household head (or other most knowledgeable person) are interviewed.

2.5.3. In the course of implementing child labour surveys in a number of countries, the following issues have emerged:

(i) The use of more probing questions instead of just one question to measure economic activity status has led to higher child work-population ratios when compared to other surveys.

(ii) The rates of economic activity have been shown to differ somewhat depending on whether the respondent is a child or an adult.

(iii) An appropriate sampling frame and a relatively large sample of working children is required in order to measure the nature and problems of working children. This has cost implications, especially in developing countries.

(iv) There is no internationally accepted clear working definition of what constitutes hazardous work. Currently, questions are asked in the surveys on whether a child is exposed to a hazardous work environment (i.e. work at heights or underground, work with tools or machinery, work in excessive noise or dust, work in extreme temperatures, etc.) or hazardous agents or chemicals (such oxygen, ammonia, pesticides or glues).

(v) It has proven difficult to determine the effect that work has on a child’s “attendance at school or their participation in vocational orientation or training programmes approved by the competent authority or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received” (Convention No. 138). To date, the effect of work on schooling has been based on the number of hours of work in which the child is engaged. There is little consensus, however, on how many hours of work per week or per day is detrimental to a child’s school attendance or ability to learn. While full-time work clearly hinders a child’s schooling, the effects of time spent in part-time work is less clear and many suggestions have been made as to how many hours might affect a child’s schooling.
SIMPOC’s response to these challenges in household surveys methods

2.5.4. Over the last three years, SIMPOC reviewed its household-based data collection instruments; and diversified data collection techniques, especially on the worst forms of child labour, with a view to making these instruments more robust for collecting quantitative and qualitative data on children’s activities. This work would also permit the development of standards for consideration by the next ICLS on measuring and quantifying children at work and hence facilitate comparability of data across countries. **The Seventeenth ICLS may wish to recommend to the ILO that this work proceed with a view to proposing a resolution of this topic at the Eighteenth ICLS.**

2.5.5. In November 1999, IPEC commissioned a study to develop “indicators of child labour” aimed at assessing and understanding the incidence, causes, distribution and effects of child labour. The study also included an assessment of the adequacy of the then existing SIMPOC instruments. In parallel, a joint ILO/UNICEF Rapid Assessment Manual to collect qualitative information on child labour was produced (in January 2000) for collecting qualitative and descriptive information on the characteristics of working children, their families and communities at the local or micro level, and especially covering the worst forms of child labour as defined in ILO Convention No. 182. ²

2.5.6. After a series of consultations within and outside the ILO, three new sets of questionnaires were produced in July 2002. These are: a **standard household questionnaire** – which seeks comprehensive information about child labour, relating it to family circumstances (causes) and schooling (impact), type of work and intensity (distribution and effects); a **children’s questionnaire** – similar to the standard household questionnaire except that it is addressed to the target children themselves; and a **core questionnaire** – which has the suggested minimum number of questions that can be administered (relatively cheaply) to obtain basic information about child labour.

Rapid assessment methodology

2.5.7. As previously mentioned, the ILO and UNICEF developed the rapid assessment (RA) methodology as a diagnostic tool for investigating the worst forms of child labour. Over the last two years, the ILO provided technical assistance to over 38 rapid assessments on the various worst forms of child labour, such as children in bondage, child domestic workers, children engaged in armed conflict, child trafficking, drug trafficking, hazardous work in commercial agriculture, fishing, garbage dumps, mining and the urban environment, sexual exploitation, and working street children. These studies have not only strengthened IPEC’s knowledge base on the worst forms of child labour, but they have also contributed to improving data and information collection methods.

2.5.8. A technical seminar was held in Geneva from 11 to 13 December 2002 to: (i) validate and further develop the rapid assessment methodology based on field experiences in investigating the worst forms of child labour; and (ii) discuss and define ways to make use of the rapid assessment findings in awareness raising, programme design and policy-making. The outcome of this seminar will be used to further refine the Rapid Assessment Manual.

² For details on the methodology, please see http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/simpoc/guides/index.htm
Baseline surveys

2.5.9. Baseline surveys are data collection exercises through qualitative and/or quantitative means intended to capture the initial child labour situation, the results of which are used for project development (e.g. identification of target groups) and to formulate project interventions (e.g. identification of key issues), as well as for setting indicators which in turn provide the basis for carrying out follow-up surveys in order to measure effectiveness of programme interventions.

2.5.10. The collection of baseline data can refer to a mix of quantitative and qualitative methodologies to provide a more comprehensive picture of a situation than could either method alone. The selection of methodologies depends on the type of child labour being investigated as well as the purposes of the data collection effort.

2.5.11. Over the last two years, SIMPOC provided technical support for implementing baseline surveys to identify target groups and to develop, monitor and evaluate projects. Data on the target working children, their families, employers and communities were generated for sector-specific or geographic-specific programmes. The baseline surveys covered domestic work in Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Panama and Nicaragua; commercial agriculture and in particular coffee, tobacco, cocoa, in the United Republic of Tanzania and Côte d’Ivoire; and the tourism sector in Bahamas, Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago.

**(b) Key indicators of child labour**

2.5.12. The ILO strategy for promoting decent work involves simultaneous action at four levels: mapping out the concept of decent work; developing integration and coherence across the ILO within this framework; building decent work into policies for the global economy; and putting it into practice at the national level. These pillars contribute to meeting the aspirations of people for security and employment, voice in their workplace and their community, rights and dignity in their work, and the ability to provide education and opportunities for their children. Indeed, if children are engaged in child labour, then their participation in education may not only be curtailed but also the human capital formation process will be affected. The long-term effects of child labour are not only disastrous to the present generation but also to the long-term income and productivity of the future economy and hence the prospect for decent work.

2.5.13. Development of indicators of child labour that help to assess and monitor the situation over time and across countries is therefore crucial within the context of the Decent Work Agenda. Over the last three years, the ILO made deliberate efforts to develop such indicators to achieve the following goals:

(i) make an accurate assessment of the current magnitude of the problem of child labour;

(ii) establish and examine patterns that may point out potential factors and causes of child labour; and

(iii) aid in the design of programmes intended to address child labour and identify priorities within countries, and to monitor the impact and effectiveness of such programmes.

2.5.14. The goal has been to prepare the way for a future ICLS resolution on indicators which are easy to calculate, understand and interpret, and which have comparability across different countries and contexts, and over time. The ideal measures
should draw attention to the forms of child labour most hazardous to children, and be
gender-sensitive.

2.5.15. Three sets of indicators have been recommended, namely:

(1) development indicators used to assess the incidence, causes and consequences of
child labour;

(2) contextual indicators which provide information about conditions and which,
although external to the household or family, identify the factors that may have an
impact on whether a child is vulnerable or at risk; and

(3) policy and programme indicators which tend to be project specific and therefore have
not been as well developed in current proposals as compared with the development
and contextual indicators.

Development and contextual indicators

2.5.16. Five sets of development and contextual indicators have currently been
identified as shown in table 2:

(1) indicators relating to work incidence and magnitude;

(2) indicators relating to schooling;

(3) indicators relating to correlates and causes of child labour;

(4) indicators relating to consequences of child labour; and

(5) contextual indicators or information about the conditions external to the household,
such as the economic conditions, trade, society, culture, etc.

2.5.17. Policy and programme indicators refer to those used for policy analysis,
design, and evaluation of intervention programmes. They are generally “micro” in nature
depending on the scope of the programme. They can also be viewed as an extension of the
development and contextual indicators discussed earlier. In other words, the basic
indicators of child labour presented above can be disaggregated at regional levels to find
where child labour is most prevalent, especially in its most dangerous forms rather than the
simple incidence (indicator set 2 above: injuries and interference with schooling), whether
there are gender differences, and in which industries and occupations children are most
likely to work. The most fundamental challenge is to be able to infer from changes in these
key indicators the extent to which the impact on child labour was caused by the specific
interventions, as well as explore what other effects occurred.
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<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Data requirement</th>
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<td><strong>Indicator set 1. Work: Incidence and magnitude</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic activity</td>
<td>1A. Economically active children (^1)</td>
<td>The number (or percentage) of children who are economically active, i.e. reported to have worked either for pay (cash or in kind) or unpaid family and domestic workers during the reference period.</td>
<td>Data on economic and non-economic activity status of target children (5-17) by age, sex, region.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1B. Labour force participation rate</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban</td>
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<tr>
<td>Child labour</td>
<td>2A. Child labourers</td>
<td>Number and percentage of children who reported to have worked either for pay (cash or in kind), or as unpaid family and domestic workers during the reference period, and nature of work or amount of time spent working meets any of the following conditions: child is below the minimum age for the industry or type of work; works excessive hours; works in one of “worst forms” C. 182; works unsafe conditions, as specified in reference to Article 4 of C. 182.</td>
<td>Same as above but indicating industry and nature of engagement.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2B. Child labour rate</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>3. Work by employer status</td>
<td>Percentage of workers who work for own family versus an external employer.</td>
<td>Needs information about who the child is employed by and whether for pay, own account, unpaid family member, paid in kind, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban</td>
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<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>4. Work by location of employment</td>
<td>Percentage of children who work at home versus away from home.</td>
<td>Information on where the child is working, for example family house, construction site, shop, market, on the street, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>5. Work by industry of employment (^2)</td>
<td>Percentage of workers who work in various industry sectors (manufacturing, services, agriculture, construction, handicrafts, textiles, etc.).</td>
<td>Information by economic sectors, usually international standard industrial classification (ISIC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>6. Average hours worked per week (^3)</td>
<td>Average hours worked per week among child labourers.</td>
<td>Actual daily working hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban, industry, sector</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>7. Distribution of number of hours worked per week By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban, industry, sector</td>
<td>The distribution of child labourers according to number of hours worked per week.</td>
<td>Total hours worked per week on all activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>8. Months worked per year By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban, industry, sector</td>
<td>Average months worked per year among child labourers.</td>
<td>Total months worked per year on all activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td><strong>Indicator set 2. Schooling indicators</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>School enrolment</td>
<td>9. Net school enrolment ratio.</td>
<td>For children of the official primary-school age group, enrolment in primary education, expressed as a percentage of the reference population.</td>
<td>Age and whether child is enrolled in school. Also need information on schooling age within a given country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School participation</td>
<td>10. Never attended school By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban, whether currently child labourer, whether currently child worker.</td>
<td>Percentage of all children who have achieved the age of mandatory attendance at primary school who have never enrolled in school.</td>
<td>Whether the child has ever attended school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School leaving</td>
<td>11. School drop-out rate By: age group, gender, region, rural/urban, whether currently child labourer, whether currently child worker.</td>
<td>Percentage of all children who are above the age for mandatory attendance at primary school and below the legal school-leaving age, who are not attending school, but have attended school previously.</td>
<td>Same as two previous indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work and school</td>
<td>12. Labourer students By: age group, gender, rural/urban</td>
<td>Percentage of all children currently enrolled in school who are child labourers.</td>
<td>Same as for indicator 9 above cross-tabulated with indicators on child labourers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work and school</td>
<td>13. Student labourers By: age group, gender, rural/urban</td>
<td>Percentage of all child labourers who are currently enrolled in school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idleness</td>
<td>14. Idleness rate</td>
<td>Percentage of all child labourers who are neither economically active nor currently enrolled in school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Indicators</td>
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<td><strong>Indicator set 3. Correlates and causes of child labour</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Causes</strong></td>
<td>15. Child labour rate by family size By: gender, urban/rural.</td>
<td>For a given family size, create a simple tabulation of the percentage of children who are child labourers.</td>
<td>Information on family size and child labourers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. Child labour rate by socio-economic status of household By: gender, urban/rural.</td>
<td>For deciles of household income/expenditure (or above/below poverty line), percentage of children who are child labourers.</td>
<td>Income levels, poverty line, child labourers and household categorization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. Child labour rate by reason child works By: age, gender, urban/rural.</td>
<td>Percentage reporting various reasons why child works (need income; pay debt under contractual arrangement; assist household enterprise; education not suitable; school too far).</td>
<td>Reasons for work broken down by gender, occupation and industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicator set 4. Consequences of child labour</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consequences</strong></td>
<td>19. Injuries among child labourers By: age, gender, industry sector of employment</td>
<td>Among all children who have ever worked, percentage hurt at work.</td>
<td>Injuries by type of work, industry, gender and age for working and non-working children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. Serious injuries among child labourers By: age, gender, industry sector of employment</td>
<td>Among children who have been hurt, percentage where injury resulted in hospitalization or permanently prevented work.</td>
<td>Information on severity of the injuries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. Work interference with schooling By: age, gender, urban/rural.</td>
<td>Among child labourers, percentage reporting their work interferes with attending school or studies.</td>
<td>Link information on child labourers with school attendance and performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22. Consequences of eliminating child labour By: age, gender urban/rural.</td>
<td>What would happen if child stopped working (household living standards decline, household cannot afford to live, household business cannot run).</td>
<td>Information that can measure impact of withdrawal of children from work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Data requirement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Indicator set 5. Contextual indicators</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population and human capital</td>
<td>Total fertility rate</td>
<td>The average number of children a woman can be expected to have over the course of her life.</td>
<td>Demographic and health surveys; World Development Report.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population and human capital</td>
<td>Poverty rate</td>
<td>Percentage of households with income less than $1 per person per day</td>
<td>World Development Report; Human Development Report.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education system</td>
<td>Public school expenditure (percentage GDP per student)</td>
<td>Public expenditures on primary education as percentage of GDP and per pupil (two separate measures)</td>
<td>UNESCO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education system</td>
<td>Pupil/teacher ratio (school quality)</td>
<td>Ratio of students per teacher. A good indicator of school quality.</td>
<td>UNESCO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education system</td>
<td>Costs of attending school</td>
<td>Average cost attending primary school; fees, tuition, uniforms, books, supplies, transport</td>
<td>Available for selected countries from LSMS; need to add to SIMPOC questionnaire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>GDP per capita</td>
<td>Total GDP divided by total population.</td>
<td>National accounts; World Development Report; Human Development Report; Economist Intelligence Unit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Output composition</td>
<td>Percentage of GDP for agriculture, industry, construction, mining, manufacturing, services.</td>
<td>National accounts; Economist Intelligence Unit; World Development Report database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Capital intensity, manufacturing and agriculture</td>
<td>Standard index of capital intensity, or capital/labour ratio.</td>
<td>National accounts; Economist Intelligence Unit; World Development Report database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Data requirement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Trade engagement</td>
<td>Share of imports and exports in GDP.</td>
<td>National accounts; Economist Intelligence Unit; World Development Report database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour standards and legal</td>
<td>Minimum working age</td>
<td>Minimum working age by industry. Likely to comprise more than one simple</td>
<td>NATLEX; ILO database; recent ILO report measuring standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environment</td>
<td></td>
<td>indicator.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour standards and</td>
<td>Compulsory schooling age</td>
<td>Age to which children must remain in school.</td>
<td>UNESCO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legal environment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ¹ Although the measure of the economically active child population includes working children that meet the criteria set out in ILO Convention No. 138 and Convention No. 182, the measure is still important for three main reasons. Firstly, any interventions aimed at reducing child labour in a given country will most likely have an effect on the ratio of economic activity. Secondly, because most data are based on the definition of economic activity, information will be available for more countries and the ability to make cross-country comparisons will be more feasible than almost any other indicator. Finally, according to the 2002 ILO global estimates of economic activity and child labour, approximately 70 per cent of the economically active children (5-17 years of age) were also considered child labourers. ² This information is particularly important for targeting programmes to combat child labour in specified industries and for monitoring whether improvements have been made in certain industries that have been identified in national legislation as unfit for children below the determined minimum age. ³ This indicator is a measure of severity of work as outlined in the two main ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 on child labour. This indicator can help in identifying and setting standards for what would constitute excessive working hours and hazardous child labour. ⁴ A similar percentage should be worked out for non-working children as a control group. This will be an important indicator for assessing the impact of programmes designed to affect children's working conditions. ⁵ This measure is more encompassing than percentage of child labourers who attend school because this also determines whether work interferes with studies, even for those currently enrolled.
2.6. Gender mainstreaming in labour statistics

(a) Introduction

2.6.1. The ILO, as an Organization dedicated to fundamental human rights and social justice, considers gender equality one of its core principles. Governments have also made strong commitments to the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action, which establishes a strategy to promote gender equality in areas that have a direct impact on the well-being of men and women in the world, including poverty, human rights, the impact of macroeconomic policy and globalization. To implement, monitor, analyse and evaluate the situation of men and women and their interrelations in all these areas requires up-to-date and reliable statistics. This was recognized by the Beijing Platform itself, which called for countries and international organizations to collect and analyse statistics that reflect issues of importance to women and men in society.

2.6.2. Labour statistics that reflect gender concerns will enable users to understand and analyse the differences and interrelationships between men’s and women’s work activities and conditions and the extent to which they are rewarded for their work, in the context of their personal and family situation, as well as other factors that may help explain any differences. More is needed than the conventional labour statistics disaggregated by sex.

2.6.3. Such statistics need to relate to topics relevant to both women and men, cover and adequately describe all workers, their characteristics and their work situations, provide sufficient detail to reveal whether there are gender differences, and be disaggregated by explanatory variables relating to, at least, the personal and family context of workers, given the importance of these in determining labour market possibilities and behaviour.

2.6.4. National labour statistics that satisfy these characteristics will be more complete and of higher quality than those that do not, and this should be of great importance for labour statisticians. Such statistics will be an asset not only to users interested in the analysis of gender issues but to all users of labour statistics, including labour market analysts and policy decision-makers.

2.6.5. This section presents the need and advantages of producing national labour statistics that address gender concerns, and briefly discusses issues that national statisticians may want to consider. More specifically, it proposes a general checklist on good practices designed to ensure that national labour statistics satisfy gender needs and to

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4 Regarding labour statistics, the Beijing Platform Strategic Objective H.3 specifically mentioned the need to produce statistics on: (a) employment, including employment in the informal sector, unemployment and underemployment, that do not underestimate the participation of women and men; (b) unremunerated work which is already included in the United Nations System of National Accounts, including agriculture, particularly subsistence agriculture; (c) unremunerated work that is outside the System of National Accounts, such as caring for dependants and preparing food, and their interrelation with remunerated activities carried out simultaneously or interchangeably; (d) poverty among women and men, including their access to resources; (e) violence, including sexual harassment and trafficking; (f) women and men with disabilities, including their access to resources. Countries were requested to produce a regular statistical publication that presented and interpreted topical data on women and men, and to disaggregate all statistics at least by sex and by socio-economic and other characteristics.
improve their overall quality and completeness. **The Conference is invited to discuss the issues and the checklist of good practices for possible approval as a set of guidelines that will supplement existing ILO international recommendations on labour statistics** (see paragraph 2.6.34).

**(b) Justification**

2.6.6. The main objective of labour statistics is to provide accurate descriptions of the size, structure and characteristics of the various participants in the labour market, and the changes that take place. To best serve their various applications, labour statistics need to cover, as much as possible, relevant aspects of all actors in the labour market and describe their work situations with relevant detail. To do so perfectly, however, is impossible because the production of statistics requires that reality be “simplified” or codified into synthetic categories that highlight certain aspects of this reality while ignoring others. What is highlighted or ignored depends to a great extent on the priorities and objectives of the descriptions and analysis to be undertaken, and on the methods of data collection that are used. But data collection methods are faced with limitations of many types, and the measurement priorities to a large extent will depend on perceptions about how the labour market functions, that are held by those who request or plan the production of statistics.

2.6.7. Given these limitations, labour statistics have generally been successful at identifying and characterizing “typical” or “core” work situations and less successful at identifying and characterizing other work situations. It is easier, for example, to produce statistics on wages and full-time regular employment in formal sector enterprises, on registered unemployment, on registered injuries resulting in compensation for working days lost or on strikes affecting a large number of workers, than on income and employment in the informal sector, on irregular, short time and unpaid employment situations or on occupational injuries that are not compensated.

2.6.8. Women more than men tend to be involved in “atypical” work situations that tend to be weakly captured by conventional labour statistics. These often combine economic activities with domestic activities, leading to work intermittently over the year and closer to home, either for profit of a family enterprise or for no pay. It is argued here that the production of labour statistics would therefore benefit from a good understanding of how women and men differ in what they do and how they behave in the labour market, as well as from a recognition that it is indeed important to adequately identify and describe their particular work and personal situations. Endeavouring to identify and describe these situations would complete the coverage of workers and improve the statistical description of all labour market situations.

2.6.9. Statistics enhanced in this way would therefore avoid underestimating and misrepresenting the contribution of certain groups of workers, probably women to a larger extent than men, to the national economy. A consequence will then be that policies and programmes that impact labour markets and the economy will not be designed on the basis of statistics that only partially reflect workers’ contributions. With an incomplete statistical basis such policies and programmes can be detrimental to both women and men, but to different degrees. Furthermore, this would also put in the forefront the need to have gender concerns as one of the measurement objectives of labour statistics, thus giving emphasis to the description of the situation of men and women regarding their participation in the labour market and in the context of their family situation.

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Labour statistics that reflect gender concerns: Issues to evaluate

2.6.10. For labour statistics to be useful in addressing gender concerns, they need to be disaggregated by sex. Statistics on conventional labour subjects, such as employment, unemployment, hours of work, income, strikes and occupational injuries, when disaggregated as a minimum by the sex of those involved will, as a general rule, always be useful to those who want to describe relevant gender issues. There are a number of topics, however, where the statistics are often not disaggregated by sex. One reason for this may be that the workers’ sex is not recorded in the establishment or administrative registers used as the basis for the statistics, for example, for wages or occupational injuries statistics in many countries. Another reason may be that the nature of the statistics does not lend itself to disaggregations by sex, for example, in the case of the consumer price indices or labour cost statistics. However, despite these constraints, statistics on occupational injuries, wages, price indices and labour cost by sex are invaluable for a good understanding of men’s and women’s situations. To improve the first types of statistics a change in laws or regulations governing the type and range of information included in registers would be required, so that the workers’ sex is systematically recorded. For the second type of statistics, specific estimation procedures, a shift in descriptive or analytical perspective or relevant modifications to data collection procedures, may be required.\

2.6.11. Disaggregation by sex, while necessary, is, however, not sufficient. In addition, the way in which national labour statistics are produced needs to be sensitive to the differences, similarities and relationships between the various actors in the labour force in general, and between men and women in particular. This implies that:

- the types of statistics produced contribute to the understanding of men’s and women’s position and interrelations in the labour market;
- the definitions and classifications used are sufficiently complete and detailed so that they reflect the different work situations of all participants, men and women, in the labour market;
- measurement methodologies are designed so that these particular work situations are clearly and consistently identified and distinguished; and that
- dissemination practices present statistics in such a way that differences, similarities and interrelationships between men and women, as well as the factors causing them, are as much as possible made evident.

2.6.12. Statistical institutes responsible for the production of national labour statistics may want to evaluate the degree to which gender is taken into account or “mainstreamed” in the choice of topics, definitions, classifications and design of measurement methodologies, as well as in the dissemination practices, in order to reveal the strengths and shortcomings of the statistics currently available and indicate how and where improvements may be needed and possible.

2.6.13. Introducing such practices requires a strong commitment from national statistical institutes. It is not simple to modify the existing data collection instruments and

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6 Price indices classified by sex of consumer.

7 An example of an estimation procedure applied to disaggregate labour cost statistics by sex in order to evaluate the cost to employers of maternity protection is presented in ILO (2002f).
publication programmes, in the same way as it is not simple to modify the way one thinks of and perceives particular situations. The commitment to do so must come from the highest levels within the statistical institute and spill down to all levels in the organization: all persons, from the director-general down to the interviewer, should understand and be convinced that the above evaluation and modifications will improve statistics in general (see point (a) of paragraph 2.6.34). Underlying this process is the need for training in gender issues at all levels of the organization.

2.6.14. The following paragraphs present very broadly some specific issues to be considered when mainstreaming gender in labour statistics.  

(d) **Coverage of topics**

2.6.15. Labour statistics which incorporate gender concerns cover and separately identify the types of statistics that are relevant to enhancing the understanding of men’s and women’s positions and interrelations in the labour market, where there are important inequalities between women and men, and which can be useful for advancing equality between men and women in the workplace. The following examples provide a list of topics that are essential for understanding gender issues. They do not intend to be exhaustive of all possible gender concerns.  

2.6.16. The balancing of work and family life is known to affect differently women’s and men’s levels of participation in the labour market, and, as a consequence, their employment-related income. To analyse this issue, it is necessary to enhance statistics that describe workers’ participation in the labour market with descriptions of workers’ personal and family characteristics. Statistics on employment, unemployment, underemployment, hours of work, absence from work, the precariousness of work, working-time arrangements and employment-related income, should include distinctions according to the sex, age and educational background of workers, their marital status and whether there are preschool or dependent children in the household, or whether there are other (for example, older) persons requiring special care. Most national labour force surveys are able to produce these types of statistics, but such results are not always prepared or presented in regular statistical publications.

2.6.17. The participation of workers in productive activities is described with statistics on the total working population, including on persons who are not included in the statistics on employment or unemployment but who carry out productive activities outside the SNA production boundary, as well as information on the time spent on such activities. This implies accurate measurement of, e.g., employment, so that it covers all

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8 More detail is presented in A. Mata Greenwood (1999).

9 More detail is presented in A. Mata-Greenwood (2002).

10 In Western countries, for example, women who are married or who have dependent children tend to have lower employment rates, work fewer hours and have higher absence rates than other women, while the reverse tends to be true for men.

11 Current labour statistics are circumscribed to “economic” activities defined by the System of National Accounts or SNA (UN, 1993), and thus exclude from employment statistics all workers who are engaged in domestic or personal services provided by unpaid household members. They will also exclude time spent on these activities from working-time statistics, and all events of injury occurring when performing these activities from occupational injury statistics. Labour statistics as
activities currently within the boundary of SNA activities, including those which are unpaid and carried out for the benefit of the family consumption; but it also implies accurate measurement of “non-economic” activities, which are very important both in terms of the volume of work that is involved and also in terms of the economic value it has for society as a whole. Accounting for this work would improve the description of the economic structure and also the understanding of the changes that are taking place in the market economy. Also, a clearer picture of the employment situation could be made, as women and men engage to different degrees in market and non-market activities. Special satellite accounts have been developed to make it possible to extend estimates of the total economy as defined by the SNA with estimates of non-market production. In the same way, labour statistics could incorporate non-market work: persons performing activities which are outside the boundary of activities defined as “SNA work” could be linked to employment statistics; injuries which occur when persons are performing such activities, to occupational injury statistics; and children who are prevented from going to school because they are engaged in unpaid household activities, to child labour statistics.

2.6.18. The analysis of labour market segregation needs statistics that show differences in the type of activities through which men and women contribute to the labour market: the different types of work they carry out, the different types of work contracts that they have, the different places where they work, the different injuries they are subject to, etc. This information needs to be sufficiently detailed so that significant distinctions and similarities between men and women are, as much as possible, revealed (Anker, 1998). The statistics collected should also allow individual groups of workers to be targeted for deeper analysis on, e.g., the extent to which men and women in these groups behave in a different way, and are subject to different constraints, as well as to analyse trends in their numbers. Such groups of workers can include, e.g., entrepreneurs and other persons in decision-making positions (politicians and heads of special interest organizations), workers in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector and workers in the media.

2.6.19. Income inequalities are the last example, as they are pervasive in all countries and lead to important inequalities in the standard of living of men and women (Dixon-Muller and Anker, 1990). It is not enough to compare average income levels of men and women, because there are significant differences in the hours women and men work, in the size and industries of the firms in which they are employed, as well as in the occupations they are engaged in and other factors that significantly affect levels of income. Statistics on employment-related income, including earnings and wage rates, need to be disaggregated at least by sex and detailed occupations as well as by types of income accrued.

(e) Definitions and classifications

2.6.20. Definitions and classifications are the basis for the whole data production process: they determine what is to be covered by a particular topic and in how much detail. The extent to which definitions identify and adequately describe “atypical” work situations – i.e. situations that do not reflect a conventional view of what “working” and currently measured are consistent with production statistics but they have the same drawback of incompleteness.

12 Women generally spend more time in non-market work than men, while the opposite is true for market work. Overall, women also tend to spend more time than men on productive activities (UN, 1995).

13 An analysis by detailed occupations may reveal that men can earn lower salaries than women in some occupations and an analysis by income components may reveal that men receive more additional payments, such as bonuses and family allowances.
“joblessness” are all about\textsuperscript{14} – is the most important test of their gender relevance (see point (b) of paragraph 2.6.34). The importance for gender is that women and men are found in the excluded groups to different degrees, usually women workers and their work situations being more underestimated than men. Full coverage of workers and work situations as well as sufficient detail in statistics can be better achieved if definitions take into account the fact that women and men do not perform the same activities, nor do they always behave in the same way, nor are they subject to the same constraints, nor have the same opportunities and needs.

2.6.21. Definitions will ensure the coverage of all workers and their characteristics when the \textbf{criteria used to define national concepts} do not exclude particular groups of workers or their characteristics. Examples of workers or work situations that are often explicitly excluded from the relevant national definitions include: the armed forces and certain unpaid or contributing family workers, from employment statistics; the income accrued to part-time, casual and self-employed persons, from earnings statistics; labour disputes of short duration, from strike statistics. The definition criteria also tend to reflect the behaviour of men rather than that of women. Women and men may relate differently to the criteria for defining unemployment in many countries, because they behave differently when they are out of work given the different structural, social and cultural barriers they face to look for work. Many of those who do not seek work even though they want to work and are available to do so are women (UN, 1995). It would be possible for countries that do not include in the actual data collections certain groups of workers or certain characteristics, to provide estimates of at least the sex composition of such groups.

2.6.22. Definitions will cover all workers and work situations when they allow the measurement for \textbf{long reference periods}: only if they do so will the statistics account for working patterns of many workers who carry out a multitude of activities and who work intermittently over the year. Women in particular are more frequently in this situation than men.\textsuperscript{15}

2.6.23. Thirdly, national definitions and classifications will cover all workers and work situations when they identify relevant categories of workers and their characteristics in \textbf{sufficient detail}. Broad population groups can be very heterogeneous and comprise a diverse set of employment situations where men and women are present to different extents. For example, analysing the managerial group as a whole will not reveal that women can often be managing small enterprises, while most of those managing larger companies can be men. Lack of detail in the status in employment categories and working-time arrangements will also mask distinctions between men and women in the various forms of self-employment and paid employment statuses (e.g., homework, casual work) as well as in the different working-time arrangements (e.g., shift work, work at night and weekends, flexitime, annualized schemes, etc.). Details are also needed for occupational injuries as men and women, by the different nature of their jobs, tend to face different hazards at work. Similarly, analysing hours of work as a whole may hide differences in working patterns between men and women and in their propensity to work overtime or be absent from work for different reasons.

2.6.24. A related aspect to be evaluated is whether national classifications describe women and men workers’ characteristics equally well. In particular, it is important to

\textsuperscript{14} i.e., situations other than those of workers in full-time regular employment in the formal sector and persons who are actively looking for such jobs.

\textsuperscript{15} A possible approach to the measurements of labour market dynamics was presented to the Sixteenth ICLS in 1998. See ILO, 1998b.
evaluate whether appropriate distinctions are made in occupational groups where women tend to be numerous, e.g., in clerical, agricultural and elementary occupations, to the same extent as in occupations where men are numerous, e.g., in manufacturing, or whether status in employment classifications classify women who are equally committed to the operation of an establishment as their husband to the same status in employment category as them. 16

(f) **Measurement methodologies**

2.6.25. Measurement methodologies determine the type and range of information that can be produced. Whether using administrative records, establishment-based surveys or household-based surveys as the main source when producing a particular set of statistics, the methodologies need to be evaluated by whether they follow the established statistical definitions, ensure full coverage of workers and their characteristics, and guarantee sufficient and adequate detail in a subject’s categories (see point (c) of paragraph 2.6.34). However, not all data sources are able to satisfy these requirements.

2.6.26. The contents of **administrative records** are usually designed to support the administrative functions of the agency making the registrations, with little regard for their use for statistical purposes. The statistics are thus generally limited by the type and range of information received and needed by the agency to perform its mandate effectively and reliably. 17 Similarly, statistics produced on the basis of information found in **establishments’ records** would also be limited, because these records are generally kept for staff management, e.g. payment and attendance monitoring, not for statistical production. In contrast, **household-based surveys**, including labour force and time-use surveys, obtain information from workers themselves through replies to standard questionnaires, a methodology that gives the statistician greater control over the type and range of information collected. The information collected is limited, however, by the capacity and willingness of respondents to provide it, by the questionnaire design as well as by the efficiency of those administering and processing it. Statistics based on administrative and establishment records can be used for analysing particular groups that are well covered and described by them, e.g., workers in ICT occupations, etc., but household-based surveys are the preferred sources of statistics for overall analysis of gender concerns.

2.6.27. In order to mainstream gender into the measurement methodologies, it is important to evaluate, first of all, the **laws, rules or regulations governing administrative and establishments’ procedures**, with respect to: (a) the type and range of information that is recorded, and the extent to which it is useful for statistical measurement as well as for gender distinctions, e.g. whether sex and age of workers are recorded; (b) the criteria used for inclusion or exclusion of certain groups from the records; and (c) the level of detail at which information is registered, and the extent to which the detail is sufficient to reveal gender distinctions. Changes in the administrative procedures of agencies and establishments may be needed so that the raw data needed to produce gender-sensitive data are compiled, e.g. data by sex as a minimum.

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16 Both ISCO-88 and ICSE-93 try to provide a basis for doing so in corresponding national classifications. National experiences can help making them better.

17 Thus, employment exchange offices can provide information on unemployment claimants only, and these are not equivalent to the unemployed; and insurance companies provide information on compensated injuries, which are only a subset of all occupational injuries; etc. See ILO/EASMAT (East Asia Multidisciplinary Advisory Team), 1997.
2.6.28. Secondly, it is also important to evaluate whether the sample in household-based surveys and establishment-based surveys is designed to allow adequate precision in the statistics that can be produced for meaningful and detailed categories. Generally, survey results are limited in the amount of possible disaggregations that are consistent with acceptable precision of the estimates.

2.6.29. Thirdly, it is important to evaluate whether household-based surveys apply measurement strategies that are needed to identify and describe all work situations, especially those on the borderline between economic and non-economic activities. Such strategies will help reduce the response bias related to the social roles of men and women, that cause women to be perceived as housewives, even when they work, and men to be perceived as breadwinners, even if they do not work.

2.6.30. One measurement strategy is the use of activity lists or probes to improve the identification of persons in employment, which will increase the chance that women who work will be counted as employed, thus reducing their common underestimation in labour statistics. 18

2.6.31. A second measurement strategy consists of obtaining quantitative information, e.g., on hours of work or income, on the basis of replies to the elements that make up the measure – whether the respondent is presented with a set of possible hours of work intervals or income components – instead of applying direct questions of the type: “How many hours did you work last week?” or “How much did you earn last month?” The former approach will probably reduce measurement errors as it will help respondents to remember unusual events. This should allow gender differences to be measured more reliably, e.g., between similar types of income components.

2.6.32. A third strategy concerns the use of time-use approach to obtain information on the time spent on all activities during a reference period. With this approach, the decision as to whether one activity or the other is considered “work” can be made at the processing stage and can be as independent as possible of respondent’s opinions, and thus allows the identification of workers for whom the distinctions between periods of work and other periods is unclear or frequently interchanged, such as agriculture workers, other rural workers, homeworkers and the self-employed, and who tend to be omitted from the count of employment. The time-use approach is recommended by international statistical standards for improving the measurement of employment, unemployment and underemployment. 19 It is also suitable to identify the total number of workers, including those who render unpaid services to their households, and, as a consequence, the total number of hours worked.

18 In general, the use of a set of questions designed to obtain the respondents’ understanding of relevant aspects of their situation, rather than a direct question which requires the respondents to classify themselves in a particular category (e.g., a particular occupation or a particular activity status) makes the classification of persons more independent of their perceptions and understanding of the concepts used for statistics. It can be expected that the more detached measurement is from workers’ perceptions of their situation, the higher the chance that women and men will be classified in the same category when they satisfy the criteria for inclusion.

19 See para. 32 of the resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment and unemployment, adopted by the Thirteenth ICLS in 1982.
(g) **Presentation of statistics**

2.6.33. The way labour statistics are presented and disseminated is essential to reveal significant differences and similarities between men and women and the factors that may cause them. As a minimum, labour statistics need to be presented with disaggregations by sex. But this is not enough. In order to mainstream gender adequately, dissemination practices need to be evaluated with respect to whether labour statistics are presented with sufficient detail and whether they are disaggregated by variables which present the demographic, economic, social and family context of workers, including, in addition to the workers’ sex, at least their level of education, their marital status and, most importantly, the presence in the household of small children and other persons requiring care (see point (d) of paragraph 2.6.34).

(h) **A proposal of good practices**

2.6.34. The above discussion is expressed in the following checklist of good practices, which **the delegates to this Conference are invited to discuss for possible approval**:

To usefully address gender concerns, labour statistics should satisfy the following four requirements:

(a) They will be based on a political will at all levels in the data collection agency to incorporate gender concerns in the production of labour statistics.

(b) The data collection procedures for labour statistics will ensure that, as far as resources allow, all relevant topics for describing gender concerns are included.

(c) The data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes are designed to ensure that definitions and measurement methods cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations in sufficient detail to allow relevant gender comparisons to be made.

(d) The resulting labour statistics are presented in a way that will clearly reveal differences and similarities between men and women in the labour market and the factors that may influence their situations. This can be done by (i) presenting relevant topics in sufficient and relevant detail, and by (ii) linking statistics with descriptive variables, of e.g. workers’ personal and family circumstances.
3. Statistics of employment

3.1. Statistics of informal employment

(a) Introduction

3.1.1. During the discussion on the report – Decent work and the informal economy – at the 90th Session (2002) of the ILC, the need for more and better statistics on the informal economy was emphasized repeatedly. Accordingly, in paragraph 36(n) of its resolution concerning decent work and the informal economy, the ILC requested the ILO to “assist member States to collect, analyse and disseminate consistent, disaggregated statistics on the size, composition and contribution of the informal economy that will help enable identification of specific groups of workers and economic units and their problems in the informal economy and that will inform the formulation of appropriate policies and programmes” (ILO, 2002a).

3.1.2. A prerequisite for collecting statistics on the informal economy is the development of an operational definition. The ILO Report on Decent work and the informal economy (ILO, 2002b), which had been prepared for discussion by the ILC in 2002, considered the informal economy as comprising: (i) employment in the informal sector; and (ii) other forms of informal employment (i.e. informal employment outside the informal sector). To provide definitional clarity and a sound basis for designing policies and actions, a conceptual framework for the informal economy was developed as part of the Report. The framework lends itself to statistical measurement as it builds upon internationally agreed statistical definitions, which were used because of their consistency and coherence. If used for statistical purposes, it enables measures of employment in the informal sector to be complemented with broader measures of informal employment.

3.1.3. The framework is submitted herewith to the ICLS with a view to possibly developing international statistical guidelines on the topic.

(b) Employment in the informal sector versus informal employment

3.1.4. “Employment in the informal sector” and “informal employment” are both concepts that are useful for analytical and policy-making purposes, as they refer to different aspects of the “informalization” of employment and to different targets for policy-making. One of the two concepts cannot replace the other. However, the two concepts need to be defined and measured in a consistent and clearly distinguishable manner. Statistical users and others often tend to confuse the two concepts because they are unaware of the different observation units involved (enterprises versus jobs).

3.1.5. In 1993, the Fifteenth ICLS adopted an international statistical definition of the informal sector that was subsequently referred to in the revised international System of National Accounts (SNA, 1993). Inclusion in the SNA of the informal sector definition was considered essential as it would make it possible to identify the informal sector separately in the accounts and, hence, to quantify the contribution of the informal sector to the gross domestic product. In order to obtain an internationally agreed definition of the informal sector, which was acceptable to labour statisticians as well as national accountants, the informal sector had to be defined in terms of characteristics of the production units (enterprises) in which the activities take place (enterprise approach),
rather than in terms of the characteristics of the persons involved or of their jobs (labour approach).

3.1.6. Employment in the informal sector was thus defined as including all jobs in informal sector enterprises or all persons who, during a given reference period, were employed in at least one informal sector enterprise, irrespective of their status in employment and whether it was their main or a secondary job (see 1993 resolution concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector in ILO, 2000b).

3.1.7. Conceptualizing the informal sector as a subsector of the SNA institutional sector “households”, the Fifteenth ICLS defined informal sector enterprises on the basis of the following criteria:

- They are private unincorporated enterprises (excluding quasi-corporations), i.e. enterprises owned by individuals or households that are not constituted as separate legal entities independently of their owners, and for which no complete accounts are available that would permit a financial separation of the production activities of the enterprise from the other activities of its owner(s). Private unincorporated enterprises include unincorporated enterprises owned and operated by individual household members or by several members of the same household, as well as unincorporated partnerships and cooperatives formed by members of different households, if they lack complete sets of accounts.

- All or at least some of the goods or services produced are meant for sale or barter, with the possible inclusion in the informal sector of households producing domestic or personal services in employing paid domestic employees.

- Their size in terms of employment is below a certain threshold to be determined according to national circumstances, and/or they are not registered under specific forms of national legislation (such as factories’ or commercial acts, tax or social security laws, professional groups’ regulatory acts, or similar acts, laws or regulations established by national legislative bodies as distinct from local regulations for issuing trade licences or business permits), and/or their employees (if any) are not registered.

- They are engaged in non-agricultural activities, including secondary non-agricultural activities of enterprises in the agricultural sector.

3.1.8. The term “enterprise”, as used here, is to be understood in a broad sense, referring to any unit engaged in the production of goods or services for sale or barter. It covers not only production units, which employ hired labour, but also production units that are owned and operated by single individuals working on their own account as self-employed persons, either alone or with the help of unpaid family members. The activities may be undertaken inside or outside the enterprise owner’s home, and they may be carried out in identifiable premises, unidentifiable premises or without fixed location.

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1 In the SNA, 1993, such enterprises are called “household unincorporated enterprises” or “household enterprises” because they form part of the SNA institutional sector “households”. Since these terms are often misinterpreted by persons who are less familiar with the SNA framework, the term “private unincorporated enterprises” is used here.

2 Note that the recommendation to exclude agricultural and related activities from the scope of the informal sector, and to measure them separately, was made for practical data collection reasons rather than on conceptual grounds.
Accordingly, self-employed street vendors, taxi drivers, home-based workers, etc. are all considered enterprises.

3.1.9. A criticism sometimes made of measurements based on the informal sector definition is that persons engaged in very small-scale or casual self-employment activities may not report in statistical surveys that they are self-employed, or employed at all, although their activity falls within the enterprise definition. Another criticism is that informal sector statistics may be affected by errors in classifying certain groups of employed persons by status in employment, such as outworkers, subcontractors, freelancers or other workers whose activity is at the borderline between self-employment and wage employment. Women are more likely than men to be engaged in such activities.

3.1.10. Still another criticism is that an enterprise-based definition of the informal sector is unable to capture all aspects of an increasing “informalization” of employment, which has led to a rise in various forms of non-standard, atypical, alternative, irregular, precarious, etc. forms of employment in parallel to the growth of the informal sector that can be observed in many countries.

3.1.11. For these reasons, the Expert Group on Informal Sector Statistics (Delhi Group) concluded that “the definition and measurement of employment in the informal sector needs to be complemented with a definition and measurement of informal employment” (CSO/India, 2001). A concept of informal employment is considered to be relevant not only for developing and transition countries, but also for other countries, for many of which the concept of the informal sector is of limited relevance.

(c) Defining informal employment

3.1.12. For the time being there is no internationally agreed definition for the statistical measurement of informal employment, as this aspect has not yet been defined and adequately addressed in statistics at the national level (Hussmanns, 2001). However, a proposal for defining informal employment has been made in the abovementioned ILO Report, Decent work and the informal economy (ILO, 2002b). The Report defines informal employment as the total number of informal jobs, whether carried out in formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or households, or as the total number of persons engaged in informal jobs during a given reference period.

3.1.13. The purpose of the conceptual framework developed for the ILO report was to relate the enterprise-based concept of employment in the informal sector in a consistent manner with a job-based concept of informal employment, and thereby extend the former concept to a broader one.

3.1.14. A person can simultaneously have two or more formal and/or informal jobs. Due to the existence of such multiple job-holding, jobs rather than employed persons were taken as the observation units for employment. Employed persons hold jobs that can be described by various job-related characteristics, and these jobs are undertaken in production units (enterprises) that can be described by various enterprise-related characteristics. Thus, the framework disaggregates total employment according to two dimensions: type of production unit and type of job (see the matrix in figure 1 below). Type of production unit is defined in terms of legal organization and other enterprise-

3 It is however sometimes forgotten that the informal sector definition adopted by the Fifteenth ICLS was not meant to serve this purpose.
related characteristics, while type of job is defined in terms of status in employment and other job-related characteristics.

### Figure 1. Conceptual framework: Informal employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Production units by type</th>
<th>Jobs by status in employment</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Own account workers</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal sector enterprises</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal sector enterprises</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* As defined by the Fifteenth ICLS (excluding households employing paid domestic workers).  
* Households producing goods exclusively for their own final use and households employing paid domestic workers.

For explanation for shading and numbered boxes, please see below.

3.1.15. **Production units** are classified into three groups: formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, and households. **Formal sector enterprises** comprise corporations (including quasi-corporate enterprises), non-profit institutions, unincorporated enterprises owned by government units, and those private unincorporated enterprises producing goods or services for sale or barter which are not part of the informal sector. The definition of **informal sector enterprises** has already been given above. **Households** as production units are defined here as including households producing goods exclusively for their own final use (e.g. subsistence farming, do-it-yourself construction of own dwellings), as well as households employing paid domestic workers (maids, laundresses, gardeners, watchmen, drivers, etc.). Households producing unpaid domestic or personal services (e.g., housework, caring for family members) for own final consumption are excluded, as such activities presently fall outside the SNA production boundary and are not considered employment.

3.1.16. **Jobs** are distinguished according to status-in-employment categories and according to their formal or informal nature. For status in employment, the following five groups of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93) are used: own-account workers; employers; contributing family workers; employees; and members of producers’ cooperatives. Such a breakdown by status in employment was considered useful for policy purposes. Cells, which are shaded in dark grey, refer to jobs that by definition do not exist in the type of production unit in question. For example, there cannot be contributing family workers in household non-market production units. Cells shaded in light grey refer to jobs which can be found in the type of production unit in question, but which are not relevant to informal employment. Examples are own-account workers and employers owning formal sector enterprises, employees with formal jobs in formal sector enterprises, or members of formally established producers’ cooperatives. The remaining

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4 The Fifteenth ICLS definition of the informal sector excludes households producing goods exclusively for their own final use, but provides an option to include households employing paid domestic workers. The framework presented here does not use this option and, hence, excludes households employing paid domestic workers from the informal sector.
unshaded cells refer to types of jobs that represent different segments of informal employment. Each of these cells can and should be further disaggregated to identify specific types of jobs or production units for analysis and policy-making.

3.1.17. Informal employment comprises the following types of jobs:

- Own-account workers and employers who have their own informal sector enterprises (cells 3 and 4). The employment situation of own-account workers and employers can hardly be separated from the type of enterprise, which they own. The informal nature of their jobs thus follows directly from the characteristics of the enterprise.

- Contributing family workers, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises (cells 1 and 5). The informal nature of their jobs is due to the fact that contributing family workers usually do not have explicit, written contracts of employment, and that usually their employment is not subject to labour legislation, social security regulations, collective agreements, etc. 5

- Employees who have informal jobs, whether employed by formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or as paid domestic workers by households (cells 2, 6 and 10). 6 Employees are considered to have informal jobs if their employment relationship is not subject to standard labour legislation, taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits (advance notice of dismissal, severance pay, paid annual or sick leave, etc.) for reasons such as: non-declaration of the jobs or the employees (e.g., clandestine workers, illegal immigrant workers); casual jobs or jobs of a limited short duration; jobs with hours of work or wages below a specified threshold (e.g. for social security contributions); employment by unregistered enterprises or by persons in households; or jobs where the employee’s place of work is outside the premises of the employer’s or customer’s enterprise (e.g. outworkers). 7

- Members of informal producers’ cooperatives (cell 8). The informal nature of their jobs follows directly from the characteristics of the cooperative of which they are a member. 8

5 Family workers with a contract of employment and/or wage would be considered employees.

6 Cell 7 refers to employees working in informal sector enterprises, but having formal jobs. Such cases may occur when enterprises are defined as informal in using size as the only criterion, or where there is no administrative link between the registration of employees and the registration of their employers. However, the number of such employees is small in most countries. Where the number is significant, it may be useful to define the informal sector in such a way that enterprises employing formal employees are excluded. Such a definition has been proposed, for example, for Argentina (Pok, 1992) and is in line with the Fifteenth ICLS resolution, which includes the non-registration of the employees of the enterprise among the criteria for defining the informal sector (ILO, 2000b).

7 The definition corresponds to the definition of unregistered employees as specified in paragraph 9(6) of the informal sector resolution adopted by the Fifteenth ICLS. It encompasses the ICSE-93 definitions of non-regular employees, workers in precarious employment (casual workers, short-term workers, seasonal workers, etc.) and contractors.

8 Producers’ cooperatives, which are formally established as legal entities, are incorporated enterprises and, hence, part of the formal sector. Members of such formally established producers’ cooperatives are considered to have formal jobs. Producers’ cooperatives, which are not formally
- Persons engaged in the own-account production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household (cell 9).

3.1.18. The major new element is the above definition of informal jobs of employees. While the definition mentions the most important causes and effects of informal wage employment, it was not intended to provide a typology and definitions of the various different forms of informal employee jobs. In order to develop such a typology and definitions, further work would have to be undertaken to refine existing classifications by status in employment. A strategy for developing a typology of atypical forms of employment, based on ICSE-93, has been outlined by Hoffmann and Mata Greenwood (2002), see also section 3.5(c).

3.1.19. **Employment in the informal sector** encompasses the sum of cells 3 to 8. **Informal employment** encompasses the sum of cells 1 to 6 and 8 to 10. The sum of cells 1, 2, 9 and 10 may be called **informal employment outside the informal sector**, of which cell 2 (employees with informal jobs employed by formal sector enterprises) tends to generate the largest interest among researchers, social partners and policy-makers.

3.1.20. As mentioned before, certain types of workers are difficult to classify by status in employment because they are at the borderline of two or more of the ICSE-93 groups, especially between own-account workers and employees. However, errors in assigning persons to status-in-employment categories would affect data on informal employment based on the labour approach to a lesser extent than they affect data on employment in the informal sector based on the enterprise approach. They would lead to classification errors rather than coverage errors.

3.1.21. It should be noted that countries which do not have statistics on employment in the informal sector, or for which a distinction by type of production unit is not relevant, may use an abridged version of the framework, limiting measurements to the job-based concept of informal employment. In such cases, appropriate alternative definitions of informal jobs of own-account workers, employers and members of producers’ cooperatives would have to be developed. A similar issue in respect of the classification of persons engaged in agricultural and related activities arises for countries using an informal sector definition that excludes such activities.

(d) **Terminology**

3.1.22. The conceptual framework developed by the ILO was well received by the ILC, the Delhi Group and other meetings to which it has been presented. However, some concerns were expressed regarding the use of the term “informal employment”. Some considered the term as being too positive and thus potentially misleading for policy purposes, while others feared that it might be too difficult to convey the difference between “informal employment” and “employment in the informal sector” to statistics users. As an alternative, the term “unprotected employment” has been suggested.

(e) **Measurement aspects**

3.1.23. Labour force surveys appear to be the most appropriate survey instrument for applying the definition of informal employment proposed by the ILO. If additional questions need to be added to a labour force survey questionnaire in order to identify informal jobs, their number will be low. As can be seen from the “ILO Compendium of}
official statistics on employment in the informal sector” (ILO, 2002c), many countries have already made positive experiences in the use of labour force surveys as a source of data on employment in the informal sector.

3.1.24. The Delhi Group recommended that, on the basis of available data, countries should test the conceptual framework presented in this section (CSO/India, 2001). Several countries have already done so, and the results of the tests were encouraging (see, for example, Bernabe, 2002, Filgueiras and Valadão, 2002, Negrete, 2002, Raveendran and Manna, 2002, Unni, 2000). During these tests, the following operational criteria to define informal jobs (especially those held by employees) were used: lack of a written employment contract, lack of coverage by the social security system, lack of entitlement to paid annual or sick leave, lack of protection against arbitrary dismissal, or the casual nature of the work. It would, however, be useful if the definition of informal employment were applied and tested by more countries in order to be able to refine it, if necessary.

3.1.25. An issue that needs to be addressed in specifying the definition of informal jobs in operational terms is the possible discrepancy between the formality of employment situations and their reality. Sometimes workers, although in theory protected by labour legislation, covered by social security, entitled to employment benefits, etc., are in practice not in a position to claim their rights because mechanisms to enforce the existing regulations are lacking or deficient. The question then arises as to what should be the aspect to be measured: the legal situation, or the actual situation? There are good reasons for choosing the latter, because in such situations the existence of informal employment is to a large extent a governance problem.

(f) Points for discussion

1. Does the Conference agree on the usefulness of complementing statistics on employment in the informal sector with statistics on informal employment?

2. Is there a need for developing international statistical guidelines for defining and measuring informal employment?

3. Is the term “informal employment” acceptable for statistical purposes, or should it be replaced by a term like “unprotected employment”?

4. Does the Conference agree with the conceptual framework for defining informal employment as developed by the ILO?

5. Is the proposed definition of informal jobs of employees acceptable?

6. Which criteria can be used to specify the definition of informal jobs of employees in operational terms?

7. Are delegates willing to test the definition in their countries and to share the results of such tests with the ILO?

8. Is the proposed definition of informal jobs of self-employed persons (own-account workers, employers, contributing family workers and members of producers’ cooperatives) acceptable?

9. How can informal jobs of self-employed persons be defined in situations where statistics on employment in the informal sector are not relevant or not available, or where statistics on employment in the informal sector exclude persons engaged in agriculture?
10. Would criteria exist for defining informal jobs of self-employed persons, which are similar to those proposed for defining informal jobs of employees, or for defining informal jobs of self-employed persons engaged in non-agricultural activities?

11. Is there a need for sub-classification of informal jobs by type, especially of those held by employees? If yes, does the Conference agree that work to develop such a sub-classification should be undertaken within the context of a revision of ICSE-93?

3.2. Statistics of working time

(a) Introduction

3.2.1. Statistics on working time are important in their own right as well as central to describe and analyse issues related to employment, productivity and working conditions, the relationship between employment and income as well as its effect on the overall quality of life. Current international standards on the measurement of working time date back to 1962, when the Tenth ICLS adopted the resolution concerning statistics of hours of work (ILO, 2000b). This resolution provides definitions for two concepts, namely, the “normal hours of work” and the “hours actually worked”, which apply to workers in paid employment and which cover a short reference period of one week. The measurement of hours worked (and not worked) has also been discussed on later occasions by the ICLS, when international guidelines adopted by the ICLS on other topics have made reference to statistics of working time. The ILO and other national and international organizations have been working on this topic for a number of years.

3.2.2. The description and analysis of current patterns and trends in the hours people work around the world, however, increasingly require more comprehensive working-time statistics than those covered in current international standards. Statistics on weekly hours worked for workers in paid employment are clearly insufficient in countries where self-employment is a significant form of employment. It is also essential to have statistics that reveal the diversity of working schedules that have emerged in many countries given the growing need for flexibility. Finally, estimates of the hours that people work over a year are increasingly essential to reflect more fully the hours worked in an economy because they incorporate variations in part-time and part-year employment, in annual leave, overtime work as well as in flexible daily and weekly working schedules, which statistics of employment and weekly hours worked do not. Statistics are also needed on time not

9 For example, the resolution concerning statistics of strikes, lockouts and other action due to labour disputes (Fifteenth ICLS, 1993), the resolution concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector (Fifteenth ICLS, 1993), the resolution concerning the measurement of employment-related income (Sixteenth ICLS, 1998) and the resolution concerning statistics on occupational injuries resulting from occupational accidents (Sixteenth ICLS, 1998). The measurement of hours not worked was discussed, although no international definition was adopted, at the Thirteenth and Fourteenth ICLS. See ILO, 1982. “Paid holidays”, in Report IV to the Thirteenth ICLS, Geneva; and ILO, 1987. “Statistics on absence from work” in Report I to the Fourteenth ICLS, Geneva.

10 Work has been carried out on issues related to the measurement of weekly hours worked, working-time arrangements and annual hours of work, see A. Mata Greenwood (1992), E. Hoffmann and A. Mata Greenwood (2001), E. Hoffmann and A. Mata Greenwood (1998), and A. Mata Greenwood (2001). Furthermore, the measurement of working time has been discussed by the Paris Group on two occasions.
worked (or absence from work) to evaluate working conditions as well as to analyse variations in annual hours of work.

3.2.3. In view of this growing need, the Sixteenth ICLS (1998) recommended to further develop the measurement of working time, particularly in three areas: (a) the *hours worked by the self-employed*, to be used for analysis of income from employment statistics; (b) the *volume of employment*, expressed as annual hours of work, to be used as a basis for statistics on labour productivity; and (c) *working-time arrangements* as a complement to statistics on normal hours of work. Furthermore, the Fifteenth ICLS in 1993 requested that the measurement of (d) *absence from work* be the subject of international guidelines, which should be integrated within a framework for measuring working time as a whole.

3.2.4. This section presents the need for, and problems associated with, producing statistics on working time and discusses a strategy to develop revised and expanded international guidelines on working time, in a way that ensures full worker coverage and the use of different reference periods, taking into account existing methods of data collection and national practices. The Conference is invited to discuss the issues presented and to give guidance to the Bureau of Statistics regarding its future work in this area, as proposed in paragraph 3.2.22 below.

**(b) Applications and statistics required**

3.2.5. “Time” is often described as our most fundamental resource. The way people spend it affects their health and well being, as well as that of persons close to them. In particular, the hours spent working and the period of the day when they are spent are, together with remuneration, aspects of quality of work and life that have an obvious impact on the day-to-day lives of workers. Consequently, these issues have always been at the centre of labour-management negotiations. Working time is among the main concerns of ILO constituents. The Preamble to the ILO Constitution urges the regulation of daily and weekly working time as a first step to improving conditions of work and the first ILO Convention adopted by the ILC refers to working time. Since then, over 30 Conventions have dealt with working time issues such as the regulation and reduction of maximum daily and weekly working time, the regulation of night work, weekly rest, annual leave, maternity leave and part-time work, as well as the production of statistics. Statistics on working time have found applications in at least three major areas: the monitoring of workers’ health and safety; the calculation of economic indicators; and the evaluation of workers’ quality of life.

3.2.6. Working-time statistics are needed to evaluate the effect on workers’ health and safety of the number of hours worked and how these are organized during the day, week or month, and to monitor working hours and schedules in relation to existing laws and regulations regarding: (a) the maximum hours that workers are expected to work on a daily or weekly basis; (b) the number of overtime hours; (c) working schedules other than regular full-time schedules, such as night work, shift work, etc.; and (d) certain absences from work, such as vacation, sick leave and maternity leave. These laws and regulations generally apply only to workers in paid employment and those employed mainly in the formal sector, but it is useful to have statistics that cover all other workers as well, in order to

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11 See paras. 1.6.4 and 3A.28 of ILO, 1998b.

12 Two ILO Conventions have been adopted by the ILC that concern the measurement of working time: the Convention concerning Statistics of Wages and Hours of Work, 1938 (No. 63), and the Labour Statistics Convention, 1985 (No. 160), which revises it.
to evaluate the impact of these laws and regulations as well as other factors on all workers in the economy.

3.2.7. Statistics on working time are also needed for several economic indicators, such as the average hourly earnings, the average labour cost per unit of time and labour productivity, as well as to estimate time-related underemployment, which, together with unemployment, describes insufficient labour absorption by the economy. These applications are particularly important when the possibility of working-hour reduction is considered and its potential effects on the economy, particularly the number of persons in employment, need to be properly estimated. For these purposes, statistics on the length of working time need to refer to the same reference period and cover the same group of workers as are covered in statistics of, e.g., earnings, labour cost, employment-related income and production. Statistics on earnings and labour cost are, by definition, limited to workers in paid employment, but in order to obtain hourly estimates of employment-related income, reliable statistics are needed on the hours worked by all workers, including the self-employed. Similarly, the calculation of labour productivity requires statistics on the total hours worked by all persons in employment in the year in the sector(s) studied. For this purpose, statistics on annual hours of work are preferred over statistics on persons in employment.13

3.2.8. Finally, statistics on working time are also needed to implement, monitor and evaluate policies and programmes that target the balancing of work and family life, an area which has become increasingly important in the context of the massive entrance of women into the labour market. Part-time work and flexible working-time arrangements are considered to be a major method to enable workers to achieve this balance, and thus statistics on the length and scheduling of working time as well as on absence from work are necessary to monitor developments in the labour market participation of different population groups, most notably of women as compared to men.

(c) The current situation

3.2.9. Statistics on the **hours worked** for a short reference period, such as a week, have been produced for many years in basically all countries in the world. The type and range of these statistics, however, including the coverage of workers as well as the reference periods used, differ between countries depending to a large extent on the measurement methodology used. Establishment surveys mainly produce statistics on “paid hours of work” for a subset of employees and sometimes on “overtime” paid at regular or higher hourly rates and “absence from work” resulting in reductions of pay. Household surveys generally produce statistics for the whole target population on “hours actually worked” and “hours usually worked” for a reference week. In addition to statistics on weekly hours worked, few (mainly developed) countries produce statistics on **working-time arrangements** or on **annual hours worked**. Despite the need for such statistics, many national statistical offices seldom measure or make estimates for these concepts perhaps because there is little international guidance or consensus on how they are to be defined and measured or estimated.

3.2.10. This heterogeneity in the quantity and quality of national statistics on working time seriously hampers international comparisons and is reflected in ILO publications. For example, the *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* publishes national series only on average weekly “hours actually worked” by sex, major industry groups and by division in “manufacturing”. But some countries provide annual averages taking into account paid

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13 See SNA (1993), paras. 15.102-103.
leave, public holidays and other types of irregular absence from work. Others provide simple averages of weekly observations, while still others provide statistics only for a particular reference week. For some countries the statistics refer to “hours paid for” and sometimes even to “normal hours of work”. No information is compiled on the distribution of hours worked. Monthly or quarterly statistics on average weekly hours actually worked published in the *Bulletin of Labour Statistics* have the same limitations. The *October Inquiry* publishes statistics on “normal hours of work” per week and on “hours actually worked” (as well as statistics on wage rates and earnings) for selected detailed occupational groups in selected industry groups. In both cases the statistics actually provided may be for concepts and/or reference periods which are different than those requested.

3.2.11. National statistics on working-time arrangements are not gathered by the ILO, but the two-yearly publication *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* contains national statistics on part-time employment and annual hours worked for a limited number of countries, compiled mainly by other international organizations (e.g., OECD, EUROSTAT).

(d) *A strategy for revising and developing new international guidelines on working-time statistics*

3.2.12. The current international definition of hours actually worked, adopted by the Tenth ICLS in 1962, is intended to be applied in establishment surveys that cover mainly production workers in manufacturing industries. It is presented as a list of elements of a day of work or “work components”, e.g., productive time, time spent on ancillary activities such as cleaning and preparing materials, unproductive time spent in the course of the production process and resting time. It leaves out a number of work situations which may occur in other types of jobs, such as time spent in professional training, work at home, attending meetings and travelling activities. As these activities do not fit easily into those components listed by the international definition, there has always been a lack of clarity regarding whether they should be included or excluded from statistics on hours actually worked. A revision of this most important concept would need to extend the content of each of the defining categories to cover all workers and work situations.

3.2.13. Any revision of this definition would also imperatively need to consider the limitations faced by the various measurement methodologies and should provide guidelines on how to apply it in practice.

3.2.14. For example, because establishment-based surveys depend on the type of registrations that are kept by establishments for monitoring attendance and for payment purposes, statistics from this source reflect the establishments’ information needs as determined by objectives and payment practices. These needs may vary with respect to the contents of working time, worker coverage and degrees of detail, rendering aggregate figures highly heterogeneous. Regardless of the international definition adopted, statistics on working time will thus tend to relate to the hours paid or to contractual hours of work. It is very possible that some inactivity periods will be included in reported hours worked while some periods spent on economic activities, e.g. unpaid overtime work and work done at home, will be excluded, and that there are variations between establishments, in line with their payment practices, between sectors and over time.

3.2.15. Household-based surveys, including specialized labour force surveys, rely on the information provided by individuals responding to a standard (set of) question(s). The resulting information is limited by the capacity and willingness of respondents to provide accurate answers. Hours worked are usually obtained with a single direct question
of the type “How many hours did you work last week?”, which relies heavily on the respondents’ perceptions of which periods are to be included as “work”. As a consequence, reported hours worked for employees tend to be influenced by the administrative notion of hours worked. Furthermore, generally no special procedures are used to obtain this information from the self-employed, for whom the distinctions between work and other activities may often be blurred, so it is not clear what the information they provide actually contains. This feature, together with the fact that most labour force surveys use proxy respondents, causes response errors that underestimate part-week absence from work and overtime when compared with data from administrative sources (OECD, 1998). The quality of the information would be greatly improved if national surveys requested information separately on each of the components of working time, e.g., breaks, overtime, absence from work, work at home, etc., because this would: (i) detach the measurement of hours worked from the administrative notion of working time, especially for employees; (ii) help respondents remember unusual absences or overtime periods; and (iii) simplify the reporting for workers who perform atypical types of jobs, who work close to their home, and for the self-employed. Few national surveys actually do so, however. This issue would need to be taken into account when developing revised international guidelines.

3.2.16. A revision of international guidelines on working time could consider the use of time-use surveys, which are seldom used to produce national statistics on hours worked but which stand out as a very good source to evaluate and even perhaps correct national estimates of hours worked and employment obtained from other, more frequent, sources. These surveys obtain information on the time spent on all activities, and working activities will be a set among many for which the respondent has to provide information. The decision as to whether one activity or the other is considered “work” can be made at the processing stage and can be as independent as possible of respondent’s opinions. These surveys are able to identify workers and activities that otherwise would be omitted from the conventional count of employment and are the best instrument to measure the time worked of workers who perform highly irregular and what is known as atypical types of jobs, most common in developing countries where time-use surveys are less frequently carried out. Currently, however, paid employment activities, especially when carried out outside of the household, are generally treated as a “black box”, i.e., respondents are requested to state that they “worked”, without further specifying the activities they performed during those periods. Detailed information is requested only on self-employment, unpaid, informal and, more generally, atypical types of activities. These features would need to be taken into account when developing revised international guidelines.

3.2.17. Revised international guidelines could also consider the use of administrative records, including legislation and collective agreements for the measurement of normal hours and leave entitlements, social security records for the measurement of normal hours and certain absence from work (e.g., due to compensated sickness and maternity). While useful, these sources, like establishment surveys, are not kept for statistical purposes, but for legal, payment or information purposes, and will often have limited worker coverage.

3.2.18. New international guidelines should also be adopted on topics which are currently being measured in national surveys, such as on usual hours of work, absence from work, including annual leave and maternity leave, overtime work, etc. The possibility to adopt guidelines on statistics on hours paid for could also be attempted, even though the Tenth ICLS did consider it too difficult at the time.

14 In some countries the comparison of time-use surveys and labour force survey results indicates that actual hours as measures in a labour force survey will be overestimated for (some) self-employed persons, in particular for those working in agriculture.
3.2.19. International guidelines could be developed on **working-time arrangements**, which distinguish schedules where workers work: (a) full time at regular core hours; (b) less or more than full time; (c) only part of the year; (d) only part of the week; (e) at night; (f) on weekends; (g) to enter or exit at different but fixed times; and/or (h) to have variable daily or weekly schedules as part of flexible schedules such as “annualized” working schemes, which fix working time over a long period of one year, while allowing daily and weekly schedules to vary. Such guidelines would need to take into consideration that actual working-time arrangements tend to be combinations of different schedules, making the number of possible working-time arrangements extensively large. Furthermore, terminology is not standardized, perhaps because they develop in relation to national legislation or as a response to employers’ needs regarding the organization of work or to workers’ preferences, and as a result the terms are not necessarily comparable between countries, establishments and even workers within establishments. Definitions and measurement methodologies, especially if they are meant to give statistics that are reasonably comparable between countries, may perhaps need to concentrate on the characteristics of the arrangements themselves, which are about redistribution of the working hours over shorter or longer periods, and distance themselves from terminology. 15

3.2.20. International guidelines could also be developed on methods to estimate **annual hours actually worked**. They would need to be sufficiently flexible to allow sufficient national variability in statistical sources without compromising international comparability. As annual hours cannot be measured directly using conventional instruments of data collection, the estimation procedures require sufficiently frequent working-time information of high quality, and have to reflect the variety (in quantity and quality) of national working-time statistics.

3.2.21. Finally, revised international guidelines on working time would need to address the need to standardize the methodologies to obtain annual averages. They also need to identify useful sub-classifications, including the worker’s age, sex, occupation and status in employment, the economic activity of his/her workplace, as well as the worker’s family context. They should also include directives regarding tabulation of the resulting statistics, in particular the need to present statistics on the distribution of hours of work, to reveal situations where there is a trend towards polarization between workers with long and short weekly working hours.

3.2.22. It follows from the above discussion that there is a need to revise existing international recommendations for statistics on working time in order to cover at least the following three areas:

(a) The revision of the existing international definition and measurement methodologies for the production of statistics on **hours actually worked** during short as well as longer reference periods. The current international definition should be broadened to cover all persons in employment, including the self-employed, by extending the content of each of the defining categories of working time to include all work situations, such as irregular, seasonal, work at home and unpaid work. Guidelines need to be developed on how to apply the revised definition in household-based surveys, including time-use surveys.

(b) The development of new international definitions and methodologies for the measurement of **other working-time concepts**, some of which are already being measured in countries. These include the hours usually worked, overtime hours, the hours of absence from work, and working-time arrangements. Full worker coverage

15 More detail is provided in E. Hoffmann and A. Mata Greenwood (2001).
should be targeted. Guidelines need to be developed on how to apply the revised definition in household-based surveys, including time-use surveys.

(c) The development of an international definition of **annual hours of work** that allows for alternative estimation procedures that take into account variations in the type and range of national statistics of working time.

### 3.3. Statistics of training

3.3.1. When discussing the report on *Training for employment: Social inclusion, productivity and youth employment* (ILO, 2000) at its 88th Session (2000c), the ILC gave the ILO the mandate to create a database with information on national investments in training. Realizing that this database also would have to include available, relevant statistics *ILO’s InFocus Programme on Skills, Knowledge and Employability (IFP/SKILLS)*, the unit responsible, with support from the *Bureau of Statistics (STAT)* has undertaken two activities that are designed to supplement the pioneering work that OECD and EUROSTAT are doing to develop improved statistics on **training and lifelong learning (T-LLL)**:

1. To get an understanding of the availability of national statistics on expenditures and participation in training and lifelong learning activities a request for information was sent to selected non-OECD countries. As the objective was diagnostic and not to get a complete overview, the countries selected were countries with relatively good statistical systems. The results of this inquiry as shown in Galhardi, 2002, demonstrate that even in such countries statistics in this area are rather limited, although statistics concerning participation were better than those concerning expenditures. The results of an effort to collect such statistics from 23 non-OECD countries has been presented in Galhardi and Mangozho (2003).

2. To get an understanding of the extent to which employers in non-OECD countries can answer questions concerning their investments in training of staff, a questionnaire has been dispatched to employers in 23 countries. The questionnaire is a modified version of EUROSTAT’s questionnaire for the second *Community survey on continuing vocational training (CVTS2)*, and the employers contacted were selected in cooperation with the employers’ organizations to ensure a high probability that they had programmes for training of their staff. Again the objective of this exercise is diagnostic rather than to provide realistic estimates of the extent of training activities undertaken by employers in the selected countries.

3.3.2. It is expected that the ILO will continue work to ensure that statistics on training and lifelong learning for non-OECD countries can be gathered and made available to an international audience, thus supplementing the work in this area that is carried out by OECD and EUROSTAT. The ILO will also follow closely the methodological work undertaken by these organizations, to ensure that as far as possible the survey instruments, definitions and classifications that are developed can be adapted to the circumstances and capacities that exist in non-OECD countries.

### 3.4. Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM)

(a) **General**

3.4.1. As economies and societies become more interdependent, the need to enhance our understanding of the world of work becomes increasingly important. Timely and
focused information on the world’s labour markets is essential. The ILO’s KILM team within the Employment Sector responds to the needs of the Organization, its constituents, policy-makers and researchers for an easily accessible, reliable and user-friendly method of locating timely information on labour markets. With the goal of making labour market information more accessible for the purposes of analysis, evaluation and assessment of labour market policies, the KILM project was initiated within the ILO in 1998, with the following two primary objectives in mind: (a) to present a core set of labour market indicators; and (b) to improve the availability of the indicators to monitor new employment trends.

3.4.2. The KILM team’s initial efforts were focused on preparing a core set of indicators (18 in 1999) designed to satisfy the ever-increasing demands of governments and the social partners (workers’ and employers’ organizations) for timely, accurate and accessible information on the world’s labour markets. Initial indicators were chosen in collaboration with the ILO’s Employment Sector, the Bureau of Statistics, experts from ILO field offices and national representatives from ministries of labour and national statistical offices. The foundation for the selection of the indicators was based on the following criteria: (a) conceptual relevance; (b) data availability; and (c) relative comparability across economies and regions. Geographical coverage and available years varied by indicator, occasionally resulting in “patchy” and/or dated information particularly for some developing economies. Therefore, it was felt that there was a definite need to widen the scope and availability of the indicators.

3.4.3. The KILM team continues to further develop and generate up-to-date labour market indicators to meet the high priority needs of our constituents, whilst aiming to assist policy-makers and the social partners, wherever possible, in making informed decisions about labour market policies. The third edition (2003-04) of KILM offers users a comprehensive set of 20 “key” indicators of the labour market, with easy-to-understand explanations of what they represent and how they can assist researchers and others working on labour market issues. It offers current and accessible statistical information on labour force participation, employment, unemployment, educational attainment, hours of work, wages and earnings, productivity and labour costs, as well as poverty and income distribution. It incorporates a new occupational wages and earnings indicator, an expanded productivity measure for the agricultural sector, and a new measurement of labour market flows. This edition of the KILM database and publication, released in September 2003, will be available in electronic format with new features including a map function, country report, and frequent notification of updates.

(b) Labour Market Indicators Library (LMIL) network

3.4.4. The KILM team and the Bureau of Statistics collaborate with employment specialists at ILO field offices with the aim of easing access to up-to-date and relevant labour market indicators. To improve the flow of information, the Labour Market Indicators Library (LMIL) network project has been designed and implemented jointly as a means of transferring data electronically in a manner that complies with ILO methodological standards, thus improving the geographical coverage of indicators and reducing the delay between information gathering and dissemination. The overall objective of the LMIL network project is to contribute to an increase in the use of labour market information to formulate economic policies and to monitor employment. The strategy consists of consolidating a knowledge-based network by providing appropriate products and technical expertise, while at the same time increasing the availability and timeliness of labour market indicators. The LMIL network project is to assist ILO field offices in strengthening national and regional capacities to access, analyse and disseminate LMI with a view to assessing employment trends and poverty reduction. Regional training
workshops on labour market information assembly, analysis and dissemination will be organized for 2003-04 and support will be given to strengthen dissemination tools in five regions (Central America, Western Africa, Central Africa, Eastern Asia, and Central and Eastern Europe). In addition, the LMIL network project has been of vital importance for flagship publications including the World Employment Report and the KILM publications, which rely on the availability of the most up-to-date LMI.

3.5. The ILO’s work with classifications

(a) Introduction

3.5.1. International standard classifications serve two functions: (1) they serve as models for the development or revision of corresponding national classifications; and (2) they facilitate international communication on the subjects that they cover, and in particular the production and presentation of reasonably comparable statistics for different countries. The ILO is the custodian for, e.g., the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88) (see ILO, 1990), the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93) and the Classification according to type of injury. The first two of these classifications are designed to serve several statistical areas and variables, either directly or as reference classifications, while the third is designed to serve primarily one specific area or variable of statistics, namely statistics on injuries.

3.5.2. As the custodian for these international standard classifications the ILO is responsible for ensuring that they are regularly updated and developed to reflect the realities that they are designed to describe, and to provide guidance on their effective use for the production of reliable statistics. The rest of this section reports on ILO’s work with ISCO and ICSE, inviting the ICLS to discuss and make recommendations concerning possible future work.

(b) International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88)

3.5.3. The work that developed a revised International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) was completed when the Governing Body of the ILO in February 1988 approved the report from the Fourteenth ICLS that in November 1987 had adopted the resolution concerning the revision of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO, 2000b) providing a revised structure, designated ISCO-88. The ILO has since then allocated approximately one work-year every year to the work with this and other general classifications, as well as with general methodological issues concerning the development, use and updating of statistical classifications. Most of these resources were used to provide advisory services in more than 60 countries and territories for users of

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16 See resolution concerning the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93), adopted by the Fifteenth ICLS (Jan. 1993).

17 See Annex E to the resolution concerning statistics of occupational injuries (resulting from occupational accidents), adopted by the Sixteenth ICLS (Oct. 1998).
ISCO-88 and to those developing, revising or using national occupational classifications (NOCs).  

3.5.4. The ILO has provided advice for the development of common regional classifications: (i) ISCO-88(COM), for EUROSTAT and the European Union, developed by the Institute of Employment Research (IER), University of Warwick (United Kingdom); (ii) ISCO-88(CIS), for the Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS STAT); and (iii) ISCO-88(OCWM), for the ILO/UNDP Asian Regional Programme on International Labour Migration. The IER has also provided advisory services to the statistical authorities in member countries of the European Economic Area (EEA) as well as countries in Central and Eastern Europe receiving support from the European Union’s PHARE programme. In addition the IER has organized regional seminars for officials from statistical offices in the two groups of countries, two and seven respectively. Thus the IER has represented a second international centre of competence for work on occupational classifications, and the seven seminars organized for the statistical offices in PHARE-supported countries represent the only sustained activity of cooperation and exchange of information between national custodians for NOCs. The European Commission’s Employment Services (EURES) is using ISCO-88 with some modifications designed to facilitate the communication of available jobs to jobseekers in the EEA.

3.5.5. A number of working papers have been produced on: (a) how to map effectively from a NOC to ISCO-88; (b) how to develop NOCs; (c) how to collect and process occupational information for effective and reliable coding in preparation for the promised, but not realized, comprehensive manual on the development and use of NOCs. As part of the ILO advisory services, articles have been prepared that describe; (d) national practices with the development and use of NOCs; (e) the role of ISCO-88 and ICSE-93 when comparing different national occupational and social structures; and (f) general methodological issues of concern to custodians of statistical classifications. Several of these are available at this Conference.

3.5.6. The ILO published statistics on employment by sex and broad occupational groups for 82 countries in the 2002 edition of the Yearbook of Labour Statistics. The latest available statistics on employment by occupation (table 3E) were presented according to ISCO-88 major groups for 62 countries (45 in the 2000 edition). That some countries still report according to ISCO-68 even though they have had ISCO-88-based NOCs for several years reflects the difference between having a statistical tool and actually using it when preparing statistics.

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18 Visited: Argentina, Bahrain, Belarus, Brazil, Bulgaria, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Estonia, Indonesia, Kenya, Kyrgyzstan, Paraguay, Peru, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Sweden, Thailand, Tunisia, United Kingdom and the United States. Visitors came from Somalia, Switzerland and Ukraine. Development work in Fiji, Mauritius, Namibia, United Republic of Tanzania and Trinidad and Tobago was supported by an ILO-sponsored or backstopped resident expert.


20 The corresponding numbers for ISIC, Rev. 3 and Rev. 2 were 65 and 30 respectively (53 and 33 in 2000).

21 Among those that still submit statistics on employment and unemployment, according to ISCO-68, are some of the statistically most advanced countries.
3.5.7. ISCO-88 is in the “public domain”. Users include national statistical agencies and employment services; researchers in fields as different as labour economics, time-use studies, studies of social stratification and mobility or epidemiology; managers needing common cross-national job descriptions; and trade negotiators needing a common language for jobs that could be covered by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). As a consequence of this variety of users, keeping track of the use of ISCO-88 has proved to be almost impossible. Nevertheless, there are signals which indicate that the awareness of the usefulness of “occupation” as a variable for statistical descriptions and analysis of the structure and developments in labour markets has been increasing, both with respect to the broad categories that reflect differences in skill levels and with respect to the more detailed occupational categories that reflect the division of labour between different types of jobs (see, e.g. OECD (2002a)).

3.5.8. A few governments have suggested using references to ISCO-88 in national commitments relating to Mode 4 (temporary movement of persons as service suppliers) of the GATS. The objective of this would be to ensure that there is a common understanding of the categories of persons covered by those commitments (see, e.g. Nielson (2003)). Among the issues that then may become quite urgent is whether adequate and sustainable mechanisms for updating ISCO-88 can be established, and it would seem highly relevant to take this possibility into account when planning future work on ISCO-88, even though at the time when this text was drafted (March 2003) it did not seem likely that this would happen in the near future.

3.5.9. When ISCO-88 was prepared it was hoped that stability in the classification’s basic structure and principles over a long period would be one of the benefits of the revision, and that it would be possible to ensure that occupational consequences of the continuous changes in technology and work organization could be accommodated through an updating process within and by extension of the established structure. Unfortunately, systematic work to update and extend ISCO-88 has been modest. There are two main reasons for the lack of progress in updating ISCO-88 so far: (i) the limited resources devoted to ISCO-related work have had to be devoted mostly to providing guidance on understanding of ISCO-88 and the development of NOCs, and on their effective use to obtain reliable occupational statistics; (ii) as custodian of ISCO-88, the ILO cannot be as close to the realities of the world of work which the classification should reflect as are the custodians of NOCs. To monitor these realities, which on a worldwide basis are much

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22 Many agencies constructing or revising a national occupational classification on the basis of ISCO-88 have failed to obtain the necessary copyright authorization from the ILO, and some even failed to inform the ILO about the work that they have done.

23 These are all fields in which (potential) applications have been brought to our attention. In connection with the last two, the ILO has always stressed that ISCO-88 was not developed for normative applications or for negotiations about trade agreements or on collective agreements between employers and workers.

24 The World Health Organization has provided new descriptive definitions for the unit groups for nursing occupations, and it has been decided to create a new occupational group 2111-11 Medical physicist, following a proposal from the International Federation of National Associations of Medical Physicists. Proposals have been received for similar extensions also in other areas, e.g. Landscape architects.

25 The custodians of NOCs have many possible sources of information about the appearance of possible new occupations and changes in relevant aspects of existing ones that are not realistically available to the ILO: responses to statistical surveys and advertisements for vacant jobs placed in newspapers, professional journals and on web sites being the most prominent ones. In particular the
more varied than those in national labour markets, the ILO faces difficult methodological issues: Where to find relevant information, given that only a few national custodians have established systematic procedures for updating their NOCs, and that those who have do not necessarily inform the ILO about their activities and findings? What are the criteria by which to judge whether a reported development is (sufficiently) significant and widespread to be reflected in ISCO-88?

3.5.10. A much delayed web site designed to facilitate communication between the ILO as custodian of ISCO-88 and the users of this and other ILO classifications was started in 2003, using as a model the corresponding web site operated by the Classifications Section of the United Nations Statistics Division. The web site will reflect the advisory services provided by the ILO, through presenting answers to “frequently asked questions” (FAQs) and making available (updated versions of) the guidance material mentioned above. It will also present updated definitional descriptions and proposals for extensions to the ISCO-88 structure. The latter may take the form of suggestions for new categories within the current structure as well as for subdivisions of unit groups, e.g. by adding a suffix code to the code of the appropriate unit group. There will be a discussion forum for such proposals as well as the possibility for users of ISCO-88 and national custodians of NOCs to post information about their activities. The web site will provide links to corresponding national sites for occupational classifications and related tools, as well as to the sites of other international standard classifications used for labour statistics.

3.5.11. The United Nations Statistical Commission has approved a programme to review and revise the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC, Rev.3) with a view to publish a proposal for ISIC, Rev.4 in 2007. Revisions to ISIC will only have minor consequences for ISCO-88, but combined with the limited work that has been done to update or extend ISCO-88 and that work to develop and revise ISCO and ISIC traditionally have been coordinated in time, this has motivated the ILO to ask the Seventeenth ICLS to consider whether a revised ISCO will be needed after ISCO-88’s 20 years of existence, or whether continuous updating and improvements to the current structure will be sufficient for ISCO to be able to serve its roles for the foreseeable future. In this context it may be worth noting that at its 34th Session (March 2003) the United Nations Statistical Commission “requested that the timetable for the revision of ISCO be reviewed, noting that moving deadlines forward is necessary to meet the needs of the next census rounds. The Commission also suggested the creation of a technical subgroup to assist in the ISCO revision”.

3.5.12. To provide a sound basis for the discussion on ISCO-88 at the Seventeenth ICLS the ILO commissioned a report on recent national experiences with revising their NOCs, as well as on national practices in using NOCs for producing occupational statistics and for client-oriented applications, e.g. job placements by employment services. The report (Budlender, 2003) is available on the ILO’s web site. Its conclusions can be summarized as follows:

1. While there is no clear indication that the basic principles and structure of ISCO-88 need to be revised, it is clear that in many areas its contents need to be updated and improved if it is to continue to reflect best practices for occupational classifications, last source seems to have the potential to dramatically improve a custodian’s capacity to follow and organize information on new occupations.

26 http://www.ilo.org/stat/

serve as a model for national work with such classifications and be a useful tool for international communication about occupations.

2. Among the issues and areas that should be carefully examined for possible improvements to ISCO-88 through the updating or extension of its groups and their definitional descriptions, are the following: the treatment of “supervisors”; jobs predominantly found in the “informal sector”, in agriculture, in public administration and in the armed forces; jobs directly involved with the development, operation and maintenance of information and communication technology; and jobs that have been developed to take advantage of such technologies, e.g. in call centres.

3. As currently designed, with the current level of detail, ISCO-88 appears much more as a tool for statistical description and analysis than a tool for job placement through, e.g. employment services, and other client-oriented applications. While the ILO has supported such applications, special efforts should be made to give them particular emphasis in future work to improve, update and extend the current classification for use in this area.

4. Although information about the “occupation” of both past and expected future jobs continues to be important for job placement and vocational guidance services, as well as for planning vocational training, it is clear that other instruments also are emerging as important for effective work in these areas. It would therefore be useful if the ILO could supplement its work on occupational classification with work to make these other tools more generally available to employment services around the world.

5. The ILO should be strengthened in its capacity and efforts to provide guidance on how to develop, update and use national occupational classifications, for client-oriented applications as well as for statistical descriptions and analysis.

3.5.13. In light of the above the Seventeenth ICLS may want to make recommendations for further work by the ILO with respect to ISCO-88 and occupational classifications more generally.

(c) International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93)

3.5.14. When the Fifteenth ICLS in 1993 adopted the resolution concerning the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93) (ILO, 2000b), it requested that “further thought should be given to the conceptual basis of the ICSE and the relevance of the groups and subgroups … should be verified in operational terms … on the basis of experience gained in applying the present classification”. The results of a review of these experiences (see e.g. Elias, 2000) were discussed by the Sixteenth ICLS in 1998. It was accepted that “… there is enough disagreement in national practices to indicate that comparisons between countries of statistics for different status in employment groups should be made with great care and that only substantial differences should be considered to be significant”. It was also accepted that “this classification suffers from benign neglect in most national statistical offices, … even though ICSE-93 represents a model from which to work”. The Sixteenth ICLS also recognized “the importance of the classification, not only because of the changes in the contractual arrangements taking place in many countries (particularly industrialized ones), but also because of its relevance for the informal sector …”, and requested both countries and the ILO “… to initiate studies into the nature and growth of different forms of contractual arrangements in the labour market”. In its report to the Sixteenth ICLS the ILO suggested that such studies “could take the form of a structured survey … of respondents who have been identified in, say, a labour force survey and for whom status in employment has already been determined, seeking to identify the
contractual situation and the degree of economic risk to which they are exposed and the nature of the power and authority relations in their work situation” (ILO, 1998a).

3.5.15. Lack of resources has prevented the ILO from undertaking a systematic follow-up in this area, but some relevant work has been undertaken in some countries: (1) the labour force survey in South Africa includes questions designed to supplement and throw better light on contractual situations than do the standard “status in employment” question, and these questions are currently (March 2003) being reviewed to ensure that the results can throw better light on issues of concern; (2) the European labour force survey, conducted by all Member and candidate countries of the European Union and by EFTA countries, includes questions to “employees” about the permanency of the main job and the total duration of temporary job contracts. Questions to “own-account workers” about control over their own work methods and schedules, and about regular work for a single customer were included in 2001 and are to be included in 2004; (3) a study of the measurement of “place of work” (ILO, 2002d), did investigate the role of this variable as a tool for identifying “outworkers/homeworkers” as a separate “status in employment” situation, concluding that it will be a necessary but not sufficient element for determining whether or not a particular job situation can be said to correspond to that of “homeworker/outworkers” as understood in ICSE-93 and in the ILO Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177). It should also be mentioned that UNSD and ILO, 2002 provides guidance on how to implement effectively a “status in employment” variable that is both relevant to national circumstances and consistent with the UN Census Recommendations (United Nations, 1998a).

3.5.16. Two recent ILO initiatives may provide some guidance on how and in what direction it may be possible to develop improved instruments to produce statistics on contractual situations in the labour market:

(a) At its 90th Session (2002) the ILC discussed a Report on Decent work and the informal economy (ILO, 2002b) where the “informal economy” was defined as consisting of jobs in enterprises classified to the informal sector as well as certain situations elsewhere that were considered to represent informal jobs because they were “not subject to standard labour legislation, taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits” or represent “own-account workers producing goods for own final use by their households” (see page 124 of ILO, 2002b). Further elaborations of the categories identified in ICSE-93 would seem relevant in order to arrive at improved statistics for the informal economy (refer also to sections 3.1 and 5.1 of this report).

(b) At its 91st Session (2003) the ILC discussed a report on The employment relationship (ILO, 2003b) that provided a comprehensive review of the employment relationship worldwide and of the global problem of dependent workers whose status of employment is unclear, either because they are: (i) in a situation similar to “paid employment” but which is disguised as a self-employment situation; or (ii) in an ambiguous situation with characteristics of both “paid employment” and “self-employment”; or (iii) working under a triangular employment relationship in which it is not clear who the real employer is, what the workers’ rights are and who is responsible for them. A systematic analysis of the material summarized in the Report, particularly some of the national studies prepared for it, may help to identify situations for which it would be important to have statistics.

28 As of March 2003 the ILO had not yet seen any presentation or analysis of the results based on those questions.
3.5.17. In light of the above the Seventeenth ICLS may wish to make recommendations for further work by the ILO with respect to ICSE-93 and statistics concerning contractual situations in the labour market more generally.

3.6. Sectoral employment

3.6.1. Each year the Sectoral Activities Programme (SECTOR) of the ILO organizes a number of tripartite and joint meetings on topical issues for earnings in the different sectors of the economy. As part of the factual background for the discussions at these meetings it is important to have statistics that can highlight both the general structure and development of the sectors around the world, and the issues that are to be discussed. While the latter needs to be compiled specifically for each topic, the former tries to rely as far as possible on the ongoing ILO programme for gathering and presenting national labour statistics for an international audience through its database LABORSTA, the Yearbook of Labour Statistics and the October Inquiry (for wages and hours of work). Several initiatives have been taken during the last few years to provide access to more reliable sectoral employment data and trends that will enable SECTOR to target more precisely the areas of greatest need in the sectors concerned and to improve the impact of its interventions in sectoral constituents. One example is the cooperation established between the ILO and the Human Resources for Health Section in the World Health Organization (WHO) on issues related to statistics on employment, international migration and unsatisfied demand for health personnel. This includes an agreed delineation of “health personnel” in terms of categories that can be found in ISCO-88, ISIC, Rev.3 and ISCED97.

3.6.2. In 2002 the ILO, jointly with the UNESCO Division of Higher Education, published an international survey on teachers – A statistical profile of the teaching profession – based on ILO, UNESCO, European Union and OECD sources (see Siniscalco, 2002).

3.6.3. During 1999-2002 the ILO undertook a pilot exercise with three rounds of gathering of national statistics on employment in the public sector, disaggregated by gender, level of public administration, type of institution and economic activity. The results can be found in the Public Sector Employment Database (PSEDB) which now covers more than 120 countries and territories. They have been presented in three reports (see Hammouya, 1999, 2001, 2003, and Hoffman, 2001b). It is expected that a decision will be made during 2003 on the continued updating of this database.

3.6.4. In 2003 the ILO plans to pilot the use of the principles presented in the Tourism Labour Accounts System (T-LAS) to provide estimates of the impact of tourism on employment and employment-related income in four countries. This application of the Labour Accounts System was proposed as a supplement to the Recommended Framework for Tourism Satellite Accounts, approved by the United Nations Statistical Commission in 2000. The initiative for these pilot studies arose from the outcome of a post-September

29 In 2003 the seven meetings covered topical issues in the public emergency services, tobacco sector, commerce (employment effects of mergers and acquisitions), public utilities, maritime sector, services (code of practice on violence and stress), and the chemical industries (work-flexibility schemes).

30 See section 1.3 above.

31 See ILO, 2000a.
2001 meeting for the sector that was held in 2001 where the participants agreed on the need for more information on employment in order to better manage crisis situations.

3.6.5. In 2003, SECTOR recruited an experienced part-time statistician to enhance its capacity to collect, analyse and disseminate more and better statistics on the structure and trends in sectoral employment.

3.7. Statistics on disabled workers

3.7.1. Over the past few decades, many governments have introduced measures to promote employment opportunities for people with disabilities. Different types of legislation have been established, with the ILO providing information, assistance and advice to governments, employers’ and workers’ organizations (see the ILO code of practice on managing disability in the workplace\(^{32}\)). Efforts have focused up to the present on establishing appropriate legislation, but now attention is turning towards the impact of the legislation on employment opportunities for people with disabilities. This question is central to the broader social and political rights of disabled people, which are closely linked to their economic empowerment.

3.7.2. While statistics on people with disabilities are available in a number of countries, mainly through population censuses, special ad hoc surveys, household surveys, or as a by-product of administrative systems, these data tend to be heterogeneous in many respects. There are wide differences between countries and data sources as to the definition of the concept of “disability”, the terminology used, the coverage, the classifications used, periodicity of data collection and reference period. In addition, it is not always possible to identify people with disabilities who are working, or those who are not working but would like to work and are able to work.

3.7.3. At the United Nations International Seminar on Measurement of Disability that took place in New York in June 2001, it was recognized that statistical and methodological work was needed at an international level in order to facilitate the comparison of data on disability cross-nationally. Consequently, the United Nations Statistical Division authorized the formation of the Washington City Group to address some of the issues identified in this area. The Group had its second meeting in January 2003 and is planning to develop a set of general disability measures, suitable for use in censuses, sample based national surveys, or other statistical formats by using the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) issued by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2001).

3.7.4. Beside these activities the ILO Bureau of Statistics, in collaboration with the Programme on Skills, Knowledge and Employability, has launched a project to analyse the existing national statistics on workers with disabilities. This analysis will cover both the structure and the underlying definitions and methods of such statistics. In order to have an overview of the different approaches that now exist, a questionnaire was sent in early 2003 to countries known to be compiling statistics of disabled workers and those with plans to establish these statistics. The questionnaire aimed to collect information about the availability of statistics of disabled persons, especially about their employment situation and the methods used by countries to compile them. The data collected have been compiled into a compendium, with a view to determining the different types of approach used by countries, which will be used in developing eventual ILO guidelines for countries that are setting up or improving their statistics in this field. It would be useful for this

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\(^{32}\) See ILO, 2002g, and http://ilo.org/public/english/employment/skills/disability/policy.htm
future development if the Conference could provide its views as to the adequacy of the methodologies currently in use and described in the ILO compendium, in particular the definitions and classifications used.
4. Statistics on social protection and social dialogue

4.1. Statistics on occupational safety and health

(a) Development of guidelines

4.1.1. New international guidelines for statistics on occupational injuries were adopted in 1998 by the Sixteenth ICLS in its resolution on this topic (see ILO, 2000b). The resolution included recommendations that statistics on occupational injuries should be based on a range of sources of information, so as to provide as full a picture as possible of the situation at a given point in time, and that the systems for notifying or compensating occupational injuries could be supplemented by information from other types of sources, such as modules of questions attached to surveys. The Sixteenth ICLS further recommended that the ILO should prepare a manual to provide technical guidance on the contents of the resolution.\(^1\) With a view to implementing these recommendations, shortly after the Sixteenth ICLS, the ILO’s InFocus Programme on Safety and Health at Work and the Environment and the Bureau of Statistics initiated a joint project to provide ILO constituents with new tools for collecting basic statistics on occupational injuries from various sources other than the official notification systems.

4.1.2. In the first stage of the joint project, draft new methodologies based on the recommendations contained in the Sixteenth ICLS resolution were developed for collecting information on occupational injuries from sources such as households, establishments, hospitals and clinics, and organizations of employers and of workers. These new methodologies aim to provide constituents with tools for obtaining, at relatively low cost, the reliable and comprehensive information needed to make estimates of the number and distribution of occupational injuries by economic activity, occupation and sex, and the corresponding incidence rates. The draft instruments consisted of special modules of questions to be attached to regular household labour force surveys and establishment surveys, and a special form for the collection of information from other sources. These all used the same concepts, definitions and classifications, to facilitate as far as possible the integration of data from different sources. Detailed instructions for respondents and enumerators, training material for enumerators, guidelines for producing estimates and tabulation plans were also produced. Pilot testing in Pakistan in 1998, where a small module of questions was attached to the 1997-98 Labour Force Survey questionnaire, had shown that this approach could provide useful data on occupational injuries. The draft methodologies were field tested in 1999-2001 in countries with regular labour force surveys and establishment surveys, in three regions: Jamaica, Nigeria and the Philippines. The national statistical offices (respectively the Statistical Institute of Jamaica, the Federal Bureau of Statistics and the National Statistics Office) were responsible for data collection, processing and analysis, using resources provided by the ILO, which worked with them to finalize the methodologies and operational details, and to provide training. To ensure that all organizations concerned with statistics on occupational injuries would be involved in the project, advisory committees comprising representatives of producers, users and the subject of the data were established in each country. The advisory committees participated

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\(^1\) Resolution concerning statistics of occupational injuries (resulting from occupational accidents), adopted by the Sixteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 1998), in Current international recommendations on labour statisticians (ILO, Geneva, 2000) and the website of the ILO Bureau of Statistics (www.ilo.org/stat/).
actively in all stages of the project, from the finalization of the survey instruments to the preparation of the final report. In the second stage of the project, the project experience in the three countries as well as the initial pilot test in Pakistan are being analysed, and the draft methodologies are being finalized to take into account the knowledge gained during the testing. A technical manual will be prepared to provide countries with practical advice in applying the new methodologies, and it is planned to conduct regional/subregional seminars to provide information on the new approaches to collecting basic information on occupational injuries.

4.1.3. Another recommendation of the Sixteenth ICLS was for the ILO to provide a mapping between the International Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD-10) and the classifications according to type of injury and part of body injured adopted as annexes to the resolution. In late 1998, such a mapping was produced by the Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT) within the framework of the project European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW), and is available for users (see EUROSTAT, 1998).

4.1.4. A further step towards the improvement of national statistics on occupational injuries and on occupational diseases was taken when the International Labour Conference, at its 90th Session in June 2002, adopted the Protocol of 2002 to the Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981, and the List of Occupational Diseases Recommendation, 2002 (No. 194) and the Recording and Notification of Occupational Accidents and Diseases. These instruments build on the 1994 ILO code of practice and the Sixteenth ICLS resolution, and revise the list of occupational diseases in Schedule I of the Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121). Their objectives are to improve existing, or encourage the development of new, recording and notification systems, and to establish a list of occupational diseases that constitutes an internationally agreed reference list to be used by countries to update and maintain their own lists. They provide for measures at the enterprise level required for establishing well-defined procedures and allocating responsibilities for reporting by the worker, as well as recording and notification by the employer, of occupational accidents and diseases. At the national level, the instruments specify uniform procedures for the notification of occupational accidents and diseases to enable the compilation of statistics to be used for formulating prevention programmes and to allow comparisons at the international level. The Protocol is open to ratification by States that have ratified the Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155).

4.1.5. The Sixteenth ICLS resolution recommended that the ILO should develop classifications on type of location of the accident, mode of injury, material agency of injury, place of occurrence, work process, specific activity, deviation and material agency associated with the specific activity or the deviation. Subject to the availability of resources in the ILO and in member States, methodological studies will be undertaken in cooperation with national and international agencies aimed at developing and testing these classifications. The ILO also intends to prepare a manual on statistics of occupational injuries, based on the existing international standards and current best practices.

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3 See ILC, 90th Session, 2002, Provisional Record 24A and 24B.

4.1.6. Another area where considerable work has been carried out under the guidance of the ILO InFocus Programme on Safety and Health at Work and the Environment consists of the development of **methodologies for evaluating the costs and benefits of improving the working environment**, i.e. the economics of safety, health and well-being at work. A number of studies have been made, and their results published on the Web. The aim of this work is to replace the view of improving health and safety at the workplace as an additional cost with the approach where workers’ health, safety and well-being become integral parts of the economic sustainability and organizational development of enterprises and economies.

4.1.7. Finally, the ILO has been active in recent years in developing **indicators of safety and health at work**. These aim at providing a framework for assessing more fully the situation regarding occupational safety and health than is provided by the existing data on occupational injuries and diseases. They include: indicators of capacity and capability, such as the number of inspectors or health professionals dealing with occupational safety and health; indicators of activities, such as trainee days, number of inspections and indicators of outcome, such as numbers and rates of cases of occupational disease and occupational injury. These link in with the development of decent work indicators described in section 2.2, while others are intended to create a fuller picture of occupational safety and health.

(b) **Data collection of statistics on occupational injuries**

4.1.8. Since 1941, the ILO has collected **statistics on occupational injuries** for publication in the *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, requesting countries to provide data in accordance with the most recent international recommendations on the subject. As from 1999, therefore, countries have been asked to furnish the ILO with statistics conforming as far as possible to the recommendations of the Sixteenth ICLS resolution, as follows: cases of fatal injury, cases of non-fatal injury with lost workdays, cases of permanent incapacity for work, cases of temporary incapacity for work, days lost by cases of temporary incapacity, and fatal and non-fatal injury rates. Where possible, these data are provided separately by sex and by economic activity, according to the most recent version of the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities. Data by sex are available for about 40 per cent of the countries with data on occupational injuries in the 2002 *Yearbook*.

4.1.9. As mentioned in section 1.3, the Bureau of Statistics has also been working closely with other international and regional organizations to coordinate data gathering and sharing, and statistics on accidents at work (occupational injuries) were selected as one of the areas for possible collaboration between EUROSTAT and the ILO Bureau of Statistics. This decision is based on the methodologies for both EUROSTAT (ESAW methodology) and the ILO (Sixteenth ICLS resolution). Despite several differences, particularly in the

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coverage of the data, there are a number of similarities between the two methodologies. The objective of the joint data collection envisaged would be to reduce the reporting burden on the national organizations in the countries providing data to EUROSTAT, while at the same time meeting the data needs of both organizations. The initial stage in the feasibility study consists of comparisons of retrospective data compiled for the 1999 reference year by the two organizations, the time lag in submitting data by EU member States to the organizations, and the national methodologies used. These points were first discussed generally with the ESAW Working Group at the October 2002 meeting in order to seek the views of the participants as well as their suggestions for resolving some of the issues identified. Depending on the outcome of the initial feasibility study and further technical discussions, a preliminary test in parallel with data collection following the current methodologies by both EUROSTAT and the Bureau of Statistics may be carried out in 2004. The possibility of including the current EU candidate countries will also be analysed at each of the steps.

(c) **Global estimates of work-related fatalities**

4.1.10. The methodology established by the ILO InFocus Programme on Safety and Health at Work and the Environment to produce global estimates of fatal occupational accidents, presented at the Sixteenth ICLS, has been developed and refined following consultations with a number of organizations, including the World Health Organization and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health of Finland. Updated regional and global estimates of fatalities caused by work-related diseases and occupational accidents, by sex and cause, are produced regularly and posted on the ILO website.

4.2. **Social security statistics**

(a) **Introduction**

4.2.1. Social security programmes play an essential role in securing people’s livelihoods around the globe. However, our knowledge about how social security systems work in very different socio-economic circumstances and the impact they have is surprisingly limited. This deficit becomes all the more obvious and at the same time precarious when renewed policy concerns about poverty reduction and the extension of social protection coverage emerge – as is currently the case. Both, the limited knowledge about the efficiency of social security and increasing political awareness indicate that the need for a sound database as a basis for policy analysis is increasing.

4.2.2. The resolution concerning the development of social security statistics, adopted by the Ninth ICLS (1957) (ILO, 2000b) stressed the importance of comprehensive and consistent statistical data on social security. The preamble of the resolution underlines that “comprehensive and up-to-date statistics on the nature and extent of social protection afforded are an essential prerequisite for the formulation of policy, the execution of programmes and the appraisal of progress realized in the field of social security”. It goes on to state that: “social security records in most countries are not used to the full extent of

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8 See also section 1.3(g).


their potentialities”. Although considerable progress has been made in the meantime, this statement is still valid today. In particular, there is a significant gap in comparable statistics, notably for developing countries.

4.2.3. The ILO therefore proposes to start a fresh effort to improve the statistical knowledge base on social security and to create a new global database on social security. This database shall integrate existing statistical concepts and data as far as possible, and fill the remaining gaps by new data collection procedures. The proposed database shall serve as a quantitative base enabling the ILO, its constituents and the wider public to analyse and compare macro income and expenditure, performance and coverage trends of national social protection systems. The database will cover the four key areas of social protection (across all countries, developed and developing):

(a) range of contingencies covered (scope of social protection);

(b) financing and expenditure;

(c) coverage of the population: beneficiaries and protected persons;

(d) benefit levels.

4.2.4. So far, statistical evidence across these four dimensions is patchy and incomplete, and is often difficult to compare across countries given the fragmented landscape of concepts and definitions. Developing countries, in particular, are inadequately reflected in comparative databases. These deficits prevent analysts and policy-makers alike from evaluating and improving the quality of social protection. Again, these deficits underscore the necessity of a database displaying the features mentioned above.

**(b) Four key areas covered by the social security statistics database**

4.2.5. The following paragraphs: (i) summarize the currently available databases for the four key areas of social protection; (ii) identify the remaining gaps; and (iii) lay out a methodological concept on how the statistical knowledge base could be improved.

A. Range of contingencies

4.2.6. Information on the range of contingencies covered by social security schemes is collected by the International Social Security Association (ISSA) in collaboration with the United States Social Security Administration in the Social Security Worldwide database and published as Social Security Programs Throughout the World (SSPTW).  

This database includes social insurance and other schemes covering old age, disability and survivors; sickness and maternity; work injury; unemployment; and family allowances; and excludes social assistance schemes addressing general neediness, health-care services and private schemes, such as complementary pension schemes. Information on the latter is contained in the database on complementary and private pensions that currently includes 40 countries (ISSA/INPRS, 2002).

4.2.7. Information about existing social protection schemes and the administering institutions is not only crucial to evaluate the scope of social protection in each country and identify gaps in social protection, but is also of practical importance for the collection of

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data for the new social security statistics database. The experience of the ILO Inquiry into the Cost of Social Security demonstrates that in many countries neither statistical offices nor ministries of welfare and social affairs collect data on all social protection programmes administered by different public agencies. It is thus necessary to develop an inventory of national social protection schemes in order to collect data directly from the institutions that manage the social protection schemes, especially data pertaining to the coverage of the population and benefit levels. In some countries, a central body may exist that collects reliable statistics from each social security institution, and these bodies could be used as a clearinghouse for the collection of data, especially for countries with a large number of social security schemes and administering institutions for each.

B. Financing and expenditure

4.2.8. Since the ILO’s regular Inquiry into the Cost of Social Security has been discontinued, there is no comprehensive and detailed source of data on social security expenditure on a global scale. Nevertheless, information about the financing and expenditure of social security is essential. Examples for central indicators are:

- public social security expenditure as a percentage of GDP and as a percentage of the total general government expenditure (total, health services, old-age pensions);

- public expenditure on needs-based cash income support as a percentage of GDP.

4.2.9. For industrialized countries, reasonably comparable data on the financing and expenditure of social protection are collected and made available by the OECD and EUROSTAT. For all other countries, the only available data source is the IMF’s Government Finance Statistics. With the 2001 revision of the Government Finance Statistics Manual (IMF, 2001), the database distinguishes a range of expenditure and finance categories that would partially bridge this gap, yet this new standard has not been fully implemented so far. In any case, in order to achieve the highest possible level of statistical consistency and cost-effectiveness, the ILO should cooperate closely with EUROSTAT, the IMF and the OECD. If a sufficient degree of consistency with these frameworks is achieved, data could eventually be collected directly from these databases.

4.2.10. Other open questions pertain to the treatment of mandatory private expenditure for social protection and tax expenditure. Firstly, given its focus on governments, the IMF framework concentrates on government expenditure, and does not consider some other public expenditure not classified as “general government” (like expenditure of provident funds which are often classified as public corporations) and also excludes private social expenditure. Private expenditure can substitute for public expenditure; this is most obvious in the case of mandatory private old-age pensions that often underlie strong government regulation, favourable tax treatment and minimum return guarantees. In spite of this involvement of the State, expenditure of such schemes would be classified as “private”. When comparing countries that have organized their social security schemes in different ways, this obviously leads to a systematic bias. It is therefore desirable to follow the practice of the OECD and EUROSTAT and to include at least mandatory private social expenditure in order to reflect a substitutive relationship between public and private expenditure. Secondly, it would also be desirable to include tax expenditure for social security, as this instrument can also substitute for direct expenditure. However, although some efforts have been made to estimate the effects of tax policies on social expenditure, the methodology is not yet fully developed and none of the available data sources takes account of these considerations. For the new social security database, it would be necessary to keep these issues in mind, but it is not feasible at this stage to systematically include tax expenditure in the methodological framework.
C. Coverage

4.2.11. The evidence on social security coverage presented in the World Labour Report 2000 (ILO, 2000e) demonstrates both the importance and the potential of meaningful statistics of coverage for policy formulation and evaluation. The extension of social protection to groups of the population that are currently excluded has been identified as one of the main policy priorities of the ILO. Coverage of the population includes two basic indicators: the number of persons who receive social security benefits at a specific point in time (beneficiaries), and the number of persons who are protected against a risk or contingency (protected persons), both ideally distinguishing between persons protected in their own right and dependants.

4.2.12. Examples for fundamental indicators in this field are, in particular:

– the proportion of the elderly population that benefits from a pension;

– the proportion of the labour force that has access to social security in case of unemployment, sickness, disability and old age;

– the proportion of the population that has access to basic income security schemes if in need;

– the proportion of the population that has access to health care.

4.2.13. However, the current data situation with regard to this key element is insufficient. Although coverage statistics have been dealt with extensively in the resolution concerning the development of social security statistics adopted by the Ninth ICLS (1957) and in subsequent efforts to set up some minimum requirements for social security statistics, it is difficult to find comparable national-level statistics for most countries. The last wave of the ILO Inquiry into the Cost of Social Security (1994-96) has gone some way in setting up a conceptual framework and to collect such statistics, but this survey did not yield the expected results. Only a limited number of countries replied at all and the quality of the data was insufficient for many countries.

4.2.14. The complexity of legal regulations and the large diversity in national approaches to organizing social security make the application of a uniform set of statistical concepts difficult indeed. While the number of beneficiaries normally can be established relatively easily on the basis of administrative records, the number of protected persons is more difficult to determine. Social insurance schemes would include persons currently contributing to the scheme, persons that are currently not contributing but are eligible for benefits on the basis of previous contributions or other reasons, and their dependants. While the first group can normally be found in administrative records, the second and third can be more difficult to estimate. The same is true for persons protected by non-contributory schemes. In these cases, the number of protected persons can only be established through household surveys or on the basis of the legal situation and the actual operation of social security schemes. The consideration of operations is important because it may well be that a scheme legally covers the entire population, but that large groups of the population are de facto excluded by the way it is administered. How coverage could be calculated in case of a substantial disparity between legal and de facto coverage levels remains to be determined.

12 “Scheme of statistical tables for the practical application of a minimum programme of social security statistics”, in International Review on Actuarial and Statistical Problems of Social Security No. 8, 1962.
4.2.15. Records created in the administrative processes of social security institutions certainly are a valuable source of assessing the numbers and characteristics of those covered by a particular social security scheme. These records are generally deemed to be of a relatively high quality and generally do not require additional data collection procedures. Aggregating these data on the national level however poses critical problems in countries with fragmented social security institutions. If individuals are or have been involved with more than one social security institution, this may lead to double counting. For example, if several pension schemes exist (for workers in different sectors of the economy, or for employees in the public sector), employment mobility of workers between sectors during their working life may result in them being listed in more than one pension scheme. If there is no mechanism to correct for double counting during the aggregation process, the aggregate statistics from individual social security schemes will produce too high coverage figures.

4.2.16. Because of the limitations of administrative records, additional data sources would need to be tapped. A promising complementary source of coverage data are labour force surveys. They are conducted regularly in many countries and they usually use a large sample of the population. They are well suited to collect information on membership in social security schemes, including occupational pension and health-care schemes. Especially for countries where social insurance schemes and occupational schemes are very fragmented and multiple membership is common, they are also well suited to assess coverage levels. In some countries, including many Latin American countries, labour force surveys already contain some questions on social security, but these could possibly be further developed. In particular, it would be helpful to align these questions to a standard conceptual framework that would allow collected information to be used for cross-national comparisons.

4.2.17. As a starting point, coverage statistics should mainly focus on periodic cash benefits and later extend to lump-sum payments, one-off grants and benefits in kind. A separate effort is needed, in cooperation with the WHO, to develop appropriate indicators to monitor coverage of health-care schemes and access to non-cash health benefits.

D. Levels of social protection

4.2.18. Together with coverage, the level of benefits and their adequacy is an important aspect of the quality of social protection; this is also reflected by the minimum benefit levels for “standard beneficiaries” in specific circumstances laid out in ILO Conventions Nos. 102 and 128. So far, however, comparable statistical data on the levels of social protection are rather sparse. Benefit levels as laid out in the social security legislation are collected by the ISSA and published in the Social Security Worldwide database. Given the complexity of social security benefits, these legal benefit levels often sketch an incomplete picture of average benefit levels. An attempt to reflect benefit levels in a more comprehensive way has been undertaken by the OECD. As absolute benefit levels do not speak for themselves, it is necessary to relate them to a reference value as “yardsticks” for a relative indicator. This reference value should be easily accessible for all countries and sufficiently consistent, reliable and comparable. In their series Benefits and work incentives (OECD, 2002b) average benefit levels and earnings replacement rates are assessed for a small number of typical households (single person, couples with and without children at different earnings levels). In the field of pensions, an earlier attempt at calculating replacement rates had been undertaken by EUROSTAT (1993), but this exercise has not continued in recent years. Recently, the OECD (OECD, 2001) has presented data on the levels and composition of pension income in a number of industrialized countries based on data from income surveys.

4.2.19. Examples for fundamental indicators for the levels of social protection are:
– average amount of pensions in payment as a proportion of the poverty line or average income (adjusted for household size);

– average amount of social assistance (basic income security payment per month) per recipient as a proportion of the average individual poverty gap.

4.2.20. Two types of benefit levels are relevant in this respect:

– average benefit paid per beneficiary;

– average benefit paid per newly awarded claim.

4.2.21. While the first indicator sketches a broader picture of the entire beneficiary population, the second reflects more precisely the effects of recent changes in legislation. Set into relation to earnings, income or poverty measures, these indicators provide important information on benefit adequacy and other questions.

4.2.22. This information should be supplemented by information on the benefit levels as specified in the legislation (as appropriate, “standard” benefit level, minimum and maximum benefit levels or benefit formula). This information can either be collected in a survey of countries or drawn from the data available in other databases, such as the Social Security Worldwide database.

4.2.23. It is however questionable whether a global social security database can possibly follow a similarly complex framework of analysis. The larger number and greater heterogeneity of countries may require a more straightforward approach. Such an approach could be based on average income or consumption per capita. Although this indicator would not constitute a replacement rate in a strict sense, it would offer a sufficiently dependable yardstick for cross-national comparisons of benefit levels.

4.2.24. In addition to this basic approach, existing national statistics on possible additional reference values should be collected in order to construct supplementary reference values and replacement rates. This includes average earnings of male production workers (APW), average earnings of protected persons or the whole labour force, insured earnings and average or median equivalent disposable income.

(c) Next steps on social security statistics

4.2.25. Having conducted the cost of social security surveys for five decades (1949-99), the ILO can draw upon a rich experience in setting up the new social security database. For the new global social security database, however, the methodology needs to be further developed and refined. After taking stock of existing data sources, it is necessary to define an integrated methodological concept and to define a method of data collection. A new questionnaire will be set up and be tested in a small number of mostly non-OECD countries. In order to review the validity of the concept, the relevance of the dataset and the effectiveness of data collection, the ILO will seek the advice of a group of international experts before embarking on further steps. Eventually, a global social security database will contribute to further improving the knowledge on the quality of social security around the world.

4.2.26. Closely linked to this exercise of setting up a new global social security database, the ILO intends to review and, if necessary, propose revisions to further develop the international standards of statistics on social security/social protection as laid down in the resolution concerning the development of social security statistics adopted by the Ninth ICLS (1957). This thorough review of the resolution is expected to identify sections to be
updated in view of recent developments and measures to be taken to promote a better implementation of the resolution. Aiming at a stronger integration of labour and social security statistics, ILO Convention No. 160 on labour statistics might also be reviewed to improve the integration of social security statistics.

4.2.27. The Conference may wish to comment on these proposals.

4.3. Statistics on socio-economic security

4.3.1. As indicated in section 2.2, the IFP/SES unit of the ILO has been working to develop a database of socio-economic indicators. To facilitate the data collection, and to assure the sustainability of information gathering, the IFP/SES has developed a global network of institutions, and individual social scientists, involved in research on labour and economic security issues. The network is a long-term venture promoting a global partnership with institutions to facilitate the exchange of information, contribute to the development of a knowledge base on mechanisms of economic insecurity and security, and assist in capacity development.

4.3.2. Where the primary SES database is concerned, information is collected through national and regional correspondents (institutes or individuals) that are expected to regularly update the information.

4.3.3. Similarly, the surveys are carried out by first forging partnerships with government and academic institutions. The survey schedules are adapted for particular contexts in collaboration with the cooperating partner and, where necessary, training is provided.

4.3.4. The network goes beyond the immediate needs of data collection, and the members are expected to share experience relating to workers in a context of globalization, more flexible labour markets and extensive informalization of economic activity. Network members will learn from those with experience in developing organizational structures that provide workers with an effective voice in labour markets and in the development, implementation and evaluation of social policy. There are also opportunities for joint projects on issues relating to economic insecurity in member countries.

4.4. Trade unions and collective bargaining

4.4.1. During the past few decades, STAT has received an increasing number of requests from both outside and within the ILO for statistics on trade union membership. Wishing to respond to this need, but with limited resources for this activity, STAT established a small exploratory database covering those statistics on this topic found in the official national statistical publications. It is clear that many of these data are subject to a number of limitations and in most cases are not comparable between countries. Some data on trade union membership were collected by the ILO for publication in ILO, 1997, but these were also subject to similar shortcomings.

4.4.2. To respond to the long-standing, documented needs of the social partners, policy-makers, academics and researchers for comparative indicators of industrial relations and social dialogue and, in view of the limitations of the data currently available in the ILO, an exploratory survey of 17 test countries was undertaken in the ILO by IFP/Social

13 These data are not published by the ILO, but are provided to users on request.
Dialogue and the Bureau of Statistics. The objective was to examine variables such as trade union membership, trade union density and collective bargaining coverage rates for assembly of such statistics in an authoritative, coherent database on social dialogue indicators. These statistics form a part of the core set of ILO decent work indicators, namely on social dialogue and workplace relations. As well as contributing to measuring progress on implementing decent work, they might help to measure the social impacts of globalization at the local, national and international levels, and foster development of sound social and economic policies related to this phenomenon. These statistics may also be used to track trends concerning protection of the working population and provide a solid quantitative and qualitative foundation around which political dialogue can take place. The insight gained from them should allow member States, at all levels of development, to better distinguish priorities for study and action.

4.4.3. Up-to-date information was sought on workers’ and employers’ organizations around the world, concerning the level, practice and application of social dialogue. The statistics of trade union membership and collective bargaining coverage currently available come from many national sources. However, there are significant differences between countries on the number of variables collected, on data collection methods, definitions used, calculation of trade union density rates, etc. In 1926, the Third ICLS adopted the resolution concerning statistics of collective agreements, but there is little information available as to the extent to which these guidelines have been followed. It is clear however that, in the almost eight decades since it was adopted, there have been considerable changes in national practices in collective bargaining. There are no similar international statistical guidelines on trade union membership. One expected output of the current activities is therefore development of international statistical guidelines, formulated to take into account the existing best practices in countries. Future promotion of international guidelines concerning recommended periodicity, standard definitions, levels of detail and other issues that significantly have an impact on their meaningfulness will also aid in achieving better comparability of statistical outputs.

4.4.4. There are a number of challenges: in the first phase the various methodologies from different national sources reporting on industrial relations statistics will be analysed and evaluated. Reconciliation of divergent data from multiple sources must be carried out. Appropriate methods should be recommended so that, if possible, a standard approach may be applicable to a majority of countries in the world. Definitions of trade unions and collective agreement coverage may need to be established and eventually agreed upon internationally.

4.4.5. Capacity-building efforts will aim to increase the ability of countries to collect and analyse such statistics to be undertaken in regions where few or no industrial relations statistics exist, either due to a lack of resources and/or expertise at the national level. These activities will have obvious implications for other ILO technical work and databases of national statistics in this field, improving both their quality and coverage, that countries and the ILO currently rely on for their work. The views and experience of the Conference on the developmental work being done will be valuable for continuation of the project.

14 For a discussion of the difficulties faced when working with industrial relations indicators, see ILO, 1997; Visser, 1997; Bamber and Lansbury, 1998.
5. Future work of the ILO in labour statistics

5.1. Development of labour statistics

5.1.1. This chapter attempts to draw together various points upon which the views of the Conference are sought and to propose, for the consideration of the Conference, the future work of the ILO in labour statistics.

(a) Statistics on the demand for labour

5.1.2. As stated in section 1.2(a), the experience gained in countries that have undertaken surveys on imbalances on the demand side or “vacancies” has demonstrated that two different concepts would be relevant: “job openings” and “unmet demand”. Experience indicates that: (i) it is easier to obtain some form of measure of job openings in an establishment survey than a measure of unmet demand; and (ii) certain types of statistics (for example, those used to monitor overall short-term developments by industry) are significantly easier to provide than statistics that project future demand for particular skills and occupations. National experience with different types of surveys and from countries at different stages of development is expected to become available in the coming years. The Conference may therefore want to consider whether it wants this topic to be the subject of a more in-depth discussion at a future ICLS.

(b) Mainstreaming gender in labour statistics: A proposal for good practices

5.1.3. The discussion in section 2.6 concluded with the following checklist of good practices (see paragraph 2.6.34), which the delegates to this Conference are invited to discuss for possible approval:

To usefully address gender concerns, labour statistics should satisfy the following four requirements:

(a) They will be based on a political will at all levels in the data collection agency to incorporate gender concerns in the production of labour statistics.

(b) The data collection procedures for labour statistics will ensure that, as far as resources allow, all relevant topics for describing gender concerns are included.

(c) The data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes are designed to ensure that definitions and measurement methods cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations in sufficient detail to allow relevant gender comparisons to be made.

(d) The resulting labour statistics are presented in a way that will clearly reveal differences and similarities between men and women in the labour market and the factors that may influence their situations. This can be done by: (i) presenting relevant topics in sufficient and relevant detail; and by (ii) linking statistics with descriptive variables, of e.g. workers’ personal and family circumstances.

(c) Statistics on the informal economy

5.1.4. Subject to the availability of resources in the ILO and in member States, further methodological studies on the measurement of informal employment (see section 3.1) will be undertaken in cooperation with interested national statistical agencies, aimed at specifying operational criteria for the definition and identification of relevant sub-
categories of informal jobs as targets for data analysis and policy-making. The results of such studies may also provide useful inputs to a possible revision or extension of ICSE. To complement the OECD-IMF-ILO-CIS STAT handbook for measurement of the non-observed economy and as requested by the Fifteenth ICLS, STAT intends to prepare a methodological manual on statistics of the informal economy, based on existing international standards and current best practices. In cooperation with SIMPOC, it is also planned to undertake methodological work for improving the measurement of child labour in the informal sector. The Conference is invited to discuss the points raised in section 3.1(f), repeated below for ease of reference:

1. Does the Conference agree on the usefulness of complementing statistics on employment in the informal sector with statistics on informal employment?

2. Is there a need for developing international statistical guidelines for defining and measuring informal employment?

3. Is the term “informal employment” acceptable for statistical purposes, or should it be replaced by a term like “unprotected employment”?

4. Does the Conference agree with the conceptual framework for defining informal employment as developed by the ILO?

5. Is the proposed definition of informal jobs of employees acceptable?

6. Which criteria can be used to specify the definition of informal jobs of employees in operational terms?

7. Are delegates willing to test the definition in their countries and to share the results of such tests with the ILO?

8. Is the proposed definition of informal jobs of self-employed persons (own-account workers, employers, contributing family workers and members of producers’ cooperatives) acceptable?

9. How can informal jobs of self-employed persons be defined in situations where statistics on employment in the informal sector are not relevant or not available, or where statistics on employment in the informal sector exclude persons engaged in agriculture?

10. Would criteria exist for defining informal jobs of self-employed persons, which are similar to those proposed for defining informal jobs of employees, or for defining informal jobs of self-employed persons engaged in non-agricultural activities?

11. Is there a need for sub-classification of informal jobs by type, especially of those held by employees? If yes, does the Conference agree that work to develop such a sub-classification should be undertaken within the context of a revision of ICSE-93?

(d) Statistics of wages and employment-related income

5.1.5. Work to revise and update the ILO October Inquiry will continue, as mentioned in section 1.3(e). The objective is to update the list of occupations and start regular collection of relevant employment statistics, and to update and complement the list
of consumption items. The possibility of harmonizing the prices part and the International Comparisons Program (ICP) will be investigated, as will the possibility of calculating purchasing power parities (PPPs) for food, and estimates of the cost of baskets of food and other consumption items. Ways of improving the geographical coverage of these statistics will be explored and further work will be undertaken to document the October Inquiry statistics with the relevant methodological information.

5.1.6. In recent years, the number of requests for statistics on occupational employment and wages as well as for technical assistance in this domain has been on the increase. A number of countries have sought clarification and guidance on how to include surveys on occupational employment and wages in their statistics programmes. STAT will continue its review of methodological descriptions of national inquiries, to arrive at guidelines for the collection and dissemination of occupational employment and wages statistics, based on the requirements of the users of such statistics in the member countries.

5.1.7. In 1998, the Sixteenth ICLS adopted a new resolution on the measurement of income related to paid and self-employment (ILO, 2000b). The Conference recognized the complexity of such measurements and asked that the ILO follow national developments in collecting and compiling these or similar statistics. Lack of resources has prevented the ILO from undertaking a systematic follow-up in this area, but relevant work has been undertaken in some countries, in particular in Latin America within the context of the Program for the Improvement of Surveys and the Measurement of Living Conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean (MECOVI).¹ The Bureau of Statistics will continue to follow relevant national developments, and it intends to set up a database for these statistics and to compile methodological information on the existing sources of data and the implementation of the new guidelines. Within the limits set by available resources STAT will continue to provide technical assistance and training to constituents, and it will prepare a manual with technical guidelines on the operational implementation of the contents of the resolution, based on current best practices.

(e) Statistics on labour underutilization

5.1.8. In recent years, there have been public debates in some ILO member States regarding the extent to which the official unemployment rate reflects the total amount of labour underutilization. In cooperation with interested national statistical agencies, the Bureau of Statistics therefore plans to undertake a methodological study on the development of measures of labour underutilization as a complement to measures of unemployment, time-related underemployment and inadequate employment situations. As part of the study, alternative methods should be explored for the identification of persons marginally attached to the labour force.

5.1.9. Until now, most countries have identified persons marginally attached to the labour force on the basis of the criteria defining unemployment and the reasons for not seeking work or for not being available for work. In the context of measuring labour underutilization, it might, however, be analytically more relevant to define persons marginally attached to the labour force on the basis of the propensity of economically inactive persons to become economically active. The propensity for changing activity status may be derived from data on labour market flows. Such data would also provide a basis for reviewing current definitions of discouraged jobseekers. Analysing the obstacles faced by persons not in the labour force to becoming economically active, or their reasons

¹ See http://www.iadb.org/sds/pov/site_19_e.htm
for not being in the labour force, would make it possible to identify persons who are economically inactive on an involuntary basis.

5.1.10. Public debates about the “real” number of unemployed persons refer not only to persons marginally attached to the labour force, but also to certain sub-groups of employed persons. These include, for example, employed persons in “bad” jobs who are looking for another job, persons in insecure or short-term employment, “unemployed” persons temporarily employed in apprenticeship or trainee schemes or through government-funded job-creation programmes, and other employed persons with a high propensity of becoming unemployed or not economically active. The planned study will therefore analyse flows between employment and unemployment, as well as flows between economic inactivity and employment or unemployment.

(f) Statistics of working time

5.1.11. The discussion in section 3.2 suggests that there is a need to revise existing international recommendations for statistics on working time in order to cover at least the following three areas:

(a) The revision of the existing international definition and measurement methodologies for the production of statistics on hours actually worked during short as well as longer reference periods. The current international definition should be broadened to cover all persons in employment, including the self-employed, by extending the content of each of the defining categories of working time to include all work situations, such as irregular, seasonal, work at home and unpaid work. Guidelines need to be developed on how to apply the revised definition in household-based surveys, including time-use surveys.

(b) The development of new international definitions and methodologies for the measurement of other working-time concepts, some of which are already being measured in countries. These include the hours usually worked, overtime hours, the hours of absence from work, and working-time arrangements. Full worker coverage should be targeted. Guidelines need to be developed on how to apply the revised definition in household-based surveys, including time-use surveys.

(c) The development of an international definition of annual hours of work that allows for alternative estimation procedures that take into account variations in the type and range of national statistics of working time.

In light of the above, the Conference may want to make recommendations for further work by the ILO with respect to statistics on working time and the need to revise current recommendations in this area.

(g) Statistics on place of work

5.1.12. As indicated in section 1.2(b), “place of work” designates two important characteristics of employment frequently collected in labour force surveys and population censuses: (1) the geographic location of the place of work; and (2) the type of physical location where the work is done. No international recommendations exist for the latter variable, and participants at a meeting of experts recommended that “an appropriate typology of place of work should be developed based on a conceptual framework” and encouraged other countries to undertake similar studies. These recommendations were seconded by a meeting of the Delhi Group. The delegates at the Seventeenth ICLS may
wish to take note of these recommendations and indicate whether the ILO should be requested to follow up the work done.

(h) **Statistics on international labour migration**

5.1.13. The 92nd Session of the ILC in 2004 will discuss a report on the international migration of workers. This report will draw on available statistics and special studies to the extent possible, including recent census results, recognizing that the available statistics need to be improved in a number of areas to provide policy-makers and analysts with a sound basis for understanding the current situation and monitoring developments when formulating, implementing and evaluating relevant policies. In addition to an improved ILM database (see section 1.2(f)), the following are among the areas identified for possible improvements with ILO technical support depending on the available resources:

(a) development of methodologies for estimating the extent and changes to irregular migration;

(b) development of gender-sensitive key indicators on labour migration;

(c) statistics on the movement of natural persons within the commitments made under GATS;

(d) statistics on skilled migration, in cooperation with other agencies, e.g. OECD and WHO;

(e) remittances: the available statistics on remittances by migrant workers and their use are extremely limited, and work is urgently needed to find new sources for such data or realistic ways of improving existing ones;

(f) global estimates of the extent and changes to the international migration of workers, on the basis of work by the ILO to develop methods for preparing global and regional estimates on various subjects when statistics are missing for a number of countries;

(g) extension of United Nations recommendations on migration statistics to cover more explicitly the various form of international migration of workers.

(i) **International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88)**

5.1.14. The conclusions and recommendations of the report (Budlender, 2003) on the need to update, improve and possibly revise ISCO-88 can be summarized as follows (see section 3.5(b)):

(a) While there is no clear indication that the basic principles and structure of ISCO-88 need to be revised, it is clear that in many areas its contents need to be updated and improved if it is to continue to reflect best practices for occupational classifications, serve as a model for national work with such classifications and be a useful tool for international communication about occupations.

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2 See, e.g. L. Lindsay and A. Findlay (2002) and OECD (2002a).

(b) Among the issues and areas that should be carefully examined for possible improvements to ISCO-88 through the updating or extension of its groups and their definitional descriptions, are the following: the treatment of “supervisors”; jobs predominantly found in the “informal sector”, in agriculture, in public administration and in the armed forces; jobs directly involved with the development, operation and maintenance of information and communication technology; and jobs that have been developed to take advantage of such technologies, e.g. in call centres.

(c) As currently designed, with the current level of detail, ISCO-88 appears much more as a tool for statistical description and analysis than a tool for job placement through, e.g. employment services, and other client-oriented applications. While the ILO has supported such applications, special efforts should be made to give them particular emphasis in future work to improve, update and extend the current classification for use in this area.

(d) Although information about the “occupation” of both past and expected future jobs continues to be important for job placement and vocational guidance services, as well as for planning vocational training, it is clear that other instruments also are emerging as important for effective work in these areas. It would therefore be useful if the ILO could supplement its work on occupational classification with work to make these other tools more generally available to employment services around the world.

(e) The ILO should be strengthened in its capacity and efforts to provide guidance on how to develop, update and use national occupational classifications, for client-oriented applications as well as for statistical descriptions and analysis.

In light of the above, the Conference may want to make recommendations for further work by the ILO with respect to ISCO-88 and occupational classifications more generally.

(j) **International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93)**

5.1.15. The Conference may wish to make recommendations for further work by the ILO with respect to ICSE-93 and statistics concerning contractual situations in the labour market more generally, in light of the expressed need for better statistics on different forms of contractual arrangements in the labour market and on informal employment (see sections 3.1 and 3.5(c) above).

(k) **Statistics on disabled workers**

5.1.16. As stated in section 3.7, the ILO Bureau of Statistics, in collaboration with the InFocus Programme on Skills, Knowledge and Employability, has launched a project to analyse the existing national statistics on workers with disabilities. This analysis will cover both the structure and the underlying definitions and methods of such statistics. A compendium has been compiled with information about the availability of statistics on disabled persons, especially about their employment situation and the methods used by countries to compile them with a view to determining the different types of approach used by countries. This in turn will be used in developing eventual ILO guidelines for countries that are setting up or improving their statistics in this field. It would be useful for this future development if the Conference could provide its views on the adequacy of the methodologies currently in use as described in the ILO compendium, in particular the definitions and classifications used.
5.1.17. The views and experience of the Conference on the developmental work being done will be valuable for continuation of the project to build national capacities to collect and analyse statistics on trade union membership and density, the coverage of collective agreements and other aspects of industrial relations where few or no industrial relations statistics exist, either due to a lack of resources and/or expertise at the national level. These activities will have obvious implications for other ILO technical work and databases of national statistics in this field, improving both their quality and coverage, that countries and the ILO currently rely on for their work.

5.1.18. The ILO will continue the development of decent work indicators (see Chapter 2) and will report on this at the Eighteenth ICLS.

5.1.19. The IFP/SES unit will continue its work along the same lines as those described in section 2.3, and expects to launch another round of data collection and to expand the present information base to include all ILO member States. Similarly, another round of Enterprise Labour Flexibility Surveys (ELFSs) and Public Security Surveys (PSSs) is envisaged depending on requests by the ILO regional and area offices, and ILO constituents in member countries.

5.1.20. In view of the growing need for reliable indicators on social protection in a global perspective, the ILO will continue to develop the statistical database on social security. This includes the further development of methodological standards and increased efforts in data collection. In addition to the new social security survey, the ILO plans to explore the potential of using additional data sources for statistics on social security coverage, notably labour force surveys. The Conference is invited to discuss the proposals made in section 4.2.

5.1.21. In the past five years, great strides have been made in improving the knowledge base as well as the methodology for generating data on child labour. However, more clarity is still required to deal with some conceptual, definitional and methodological issues. The key concerns and questions are:

(a) Translating ILO standards regarding child labour into operational and statistical terms for measurement: Standards for the measurement of working hours in the case of housekeeping activities need to be developed. Thresholds (for working hours and other conditions) might be considered, above which housekeeping activities become hazardous or harmful to children.

(b) Gender mainstreaming in data collection methods for child labour surveys: There is a need to determine the extent to which social roles have an impact on activities of girls compared to boys. What are the implications in terms of design, contents, calibre and composition of interviewers, etc’?
Determination of the best respondents for child labour inquiries: What balance should and can be maintained between structured interviews and participatory non-structured interviews, and the practicability and validity of using multiple respondents?

The Conference may wish to recommend to the ILO that the work described in section 2.5 proceed with a view to proposing a resolution of this topic at the Eighteenth ICLS.

5.2. New approaches in data collection and dissemination

5.2.1. As indicated in section 1.3(i), funds for statistical publications by STAT are becoming more constrained and some cuts in the publication programme are likely. It is expected that the Bulletin of Labour Statistics will not be available in printed form as from the end of 2003, although the statistics and methodological descriptions will continue to be available in the LABORSTA database. The ILO is reviewing its data dissemination policy generally and considering other changes in the content and presentation of the printed publications as well as to the online LABORSTA database. The views of the Conference on the relative importance of our various printed publications and electronic dissemination mechanisms would be appreciated.

5.2.2. Section 1.3 also mentions that countries may submit their responses to the October Inquiry using the traditional paper questionnaires, electronic files sent by email or electronic files directly accessible from an in-house server through the Internet. The Bureau of Statistics plans to extend the use of electronic data transfer to other regular data-gathering activities for the LABORSTA database, especially for the statistics that are published in the Yearbook of Labour Statistics. The objective is to permit countries to choose the method that is most convenient to them. The ILO encourages the use of electronic data transfer because it minimizes data transcription both in countries and at the ILO, and therefore reduces the associated potential for error. For many countries, this is the most efficient mechanism for data transfer.

5.2.3. In addition, the Bureau of Statistics plans to encourage the involvement of ILO field offices in data gathering, such as by following up late or missing replies and by reporting the availability of data at country level that are missing from ILO databases. Linkages to the LMI Library (LMIL) project (see section 3.4) offers some potential in this area.

5.2.4. STAT will continue its collaboration with other international agencies on data collection and dissemination (see paragraph 1.3.2), and will be exploring the possibilities offered by the GESMES data exchange system.4

5.2.5. Changes in data dissemination are also envisaged. Among the changes mentioned in section 1.3 are the introduction of CD-ROMs, the likely cessation of the Bulletin of Labour Statistics, and review of the online statistical database LABORSTA to improve its accessibility, ease of use, range of download alternatives and content. Review of the printed statistical publications are also in progress following the replies received from users to the user surveys undertaken in 2002.

4 GESMES stands for GEneric Statistical MESsage. It is used to exchange multi-dimensional and time-series data, and related metadata, in a non-proprietary format. See also http://www.gesmes.org/.
5.2.6. If resources permit, STAT plans to: regularly update the SEGREGAT database (see section 1.3(c)) as well as its databases on employment in the informal sector and in the public sector; identify differences in the national data collected; develop a method for enhancing the data comparability across countries and obtain a basis for preparing global and regional estimates; include additional indicators on employment in the informal economy in the database, to be determined in consultation with users; and make the database accessible via the Internet in a user-friendly form. Much of this work will be undertaken in cooperation with the Statistical Development and Analysis Group (SDA) of the Policy Integration Department, as part of efforts to measure decent work with statistical indicators.

5.3. **Technical cooperation, advisory services and training**

5.3.1. As stated in section 1.4(c), the statistical systems of many countries have been seriously weakened over the last decade by economic and socio-political crises and armed conflicts. Statistical capacities in general, and capacities for generating labour statistics in particular, need to be strengthened. The ILO field structure has limited human and financial resources for this activity. At least two field positions of senior specialist in labour statistics are being filled and some field technical teams have specialists who also provide statistical support (see paragraph 1.1.5). The Conference may wish to comment on the current capacity of the ILO to support statistical capacity building for labour statistics.

5.3.2. ILO headquarters and field offices will continue to provide technical support to ILO constituents in improving national systems of labour statistics as well as the analysis and use of these statistics. For some multidisciplinary teams, emphasis over the coming years will be on building the labour statistics collection, analysis and dissemination capacities in the subregion. The ILO will encourage donor agencies to provide the necessary resources for statistical capacity building. The ILO will continue to maintain a close liaison with the PARIS21 consortium (PARtnership In Statistics for development in the 21st century – see http://www.paris21.org).  

5.3.3. One of the ILO’s multidisciplinary teams has suggested that the ILO undertake more advocacy work on the regular conduct of establishment-based surveys of employment and wages and that guidelines should be prepared for the conduct of such surveys, indicating not only the methodology, but also a minimum set of data to be collected and tables and analyses to prepare. The views of the Conference on this proposal would be appreciated.

5.3.4. The incorporation of employment variables as poverty monitoring indicators in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) may assist in improving labour statistics in some countries.

5.3.5. Over the coming years, several of the ILO’s multidisciplinary teams will continue development of their subregional databases on labour statistics. Internal and external partnership is being developed in this connection. Emphasis shall be on support and cooperation with regional and subregional institutions focusing on economics, statistics, research and training.

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5 A seminar on building national capacities for labour statistics is being considered for the last day of the Seventeenth ICLS outside the regular agenda of the Conference.
5.3.6. In respect of the informal economy, the 2002 ILC requested the ILO to assist its member States in the collection, analysis and dissemination of consistent, disaggregated statistics on the size, composition and contribution of the informal economy (see its resolution concerning decent work and the informal economy). In order to give follow-up to this request, STAT has formulated a proposal for a programme of ILO technical assistance and training on statistics of the informal economy. The programme aims to help countries, which currently do not have statistics on the informal economy, to develop such statistics, and to assist countries, which already have statistics on the informal economy, to improve the quality of these statistics, including their international comparability.
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–. (2001): “The hours that we work: The data we need, the data we get”, in *Bulletin of Labour Statistics*, 2001-1.

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Annex A

Ratification of the Labour Statistics Convention, 1985 (No. 160)

List of member States which had ratified the Labour Statistics Convention, 1985 (No. 160), at the end of 2002, and the date on which the ratification was registered

<table>
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Annex B

List of databases

1. LABORSTA: ILO database on labour statistics covering economically active population (data since 1945), employment, underemployment, hours of work, wages, labour cost, consumer prices, occupational injuries and strikes and lockouts (data since 1969) [available online].

2. LABSSM: Textual database from the publication “Sources and methods: Labour statistics” (formerly Statistical sources and methods) in English, French and Spanish, containing methodological descriptions and sources of data collected by the ILO, comprising ten volumes [many texts available online].

3. LABPROJ: ILO database on estimates and projections of the economically active population (fourth round) for all countries and territories with a population of over 200,000 in 1990. Includes estimates and projections of activity rates by sex and age group, and estimates of the distribution of the economically active population by sex and major sectors of economic activity. Database covers time span 1950-2010, with annual estimates for the years 1995-2005 and every ten years for the period 1950-2010 [available online].

4. LABOCT: Database on ILO October Inquiry on wages and hours of work relating to 159 occupations, 49 industry groups and retail prices of 93 food items (wages and hours of work data since 1983, retail prices since 1985) [available online].

5. LABCOMP: Database on ILO-comparable annual average estimates for some 30 countries since 1981 on total and civilian labour force, total employment by age group, by industry sectors, civilian employment, total unemployment by age groups and unemployment rates. All estimates are available by sex [available online].

6. LABISCO: Database for definitional descriptions and titles of occupational groups coded to ISCO-88 and ISCO-68, corresponding to the index as published in the ISCO-88 publication. Available in English, French and Spanish [available on diskette upon request; a summary of ISCO-88 is available online].

7. SEGREGAT: Database on employment (or labour force) by detailed occupational group and sex, obtained from population censuses or labour force surveys for years near 1970, 1980, 1990 and 2000. Over 80 countries covered [available in machine-readable form upon request].

8. HIES: This database on household income and expenditure statistics provides the main results of the most recent household income and expenditure surveys or similar household surveys conducted in various countries, areas and territories. It contains five basic tables: (i) household income by source; (ii) characteristics of household by income or expenditure class; (iii) distribution of consumption expenditure by income or expenditure class; (iv) distribution of household by expenditure class and household size; and (v) distribution of household by income class and household size [available on diskette upon request].

9. UNION: A special database on trade union membership. Based on official figures mainly from national publications, it contains data for 45 countries from 1990 onwards [available in Excel files upon request].

10. LABMINW: Numeric database on legal/statutory minimum wages, where relevant by region, industry or occupational group, covering some 80 countries, from 1980 to date [available in Excel files upon request].

11. PSEDB: Database on public sector employment containing statistics for more than 120 countries and territories, on total employment, employment in the private sector, and public sector employment by sex, by type of institutional unit, by level of government and by economic activity. Depending on the country the statistics are available for the years (close to) 1985, 1990 and 1995, as well as for 1996 to 2000 [available in Excel files upon request].

12. INFORMAL SECTOR EMPLOYMENT: Information on informal sector employment and informal sector survey methodologies for developing countries and transition countries. Number of persons employed in the informal sector and share of informal sector employment in total employment, by sex [available in machine-readable form upon request].