

**GENDER
EQUALITY**



International
Labour
Office

Gender Mainstreaming in the Public Employment Service in Ukraine

User's Guide

Valli Corbanese

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Project Brief: EU-ILO Project in Ukraine “Gender Equality in the World of Work”

The Project’s core objective is to enable key state bodies and social partners to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment in the world of work by developing, implementing and monitoring gender-sensitive employment policies and programmes. The Project employs awareness-raising activities, communicates information, and supports the development and implementation of locally adapted tools and pilot interventions.

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FOREWORD

Ukraine has made significant legislative progress in the promotion of gender equality. It has ratified a number of international agreements, adopted a '*Law on Ensuring Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men*' and is implementing national and regional programmes to ensure gender equality. Nevertheless, women in Ukraine continue to suffer from multiple forms of discrimination. Gender inequality persists due to gaps in the enforcement of gender equality legislation. Discrimination in employment and gender stereotypes limit women's access to jobs with better working conditions, which in turn reinforce existing inequalities.

In response to a request for technical assistance from the Ukrainian Government, the European Union and the International Labour Office (ILO) launched the joint technical cooperation project '*Gender Equality in the World of Work*' in 2009. Its core objective has been to enable state bodies and social partners to promote gender equality and women's empowerment in the world of work by developing, implementing and monitoring gender-sensitive employment policies and programmes.

As the key state agency responsible for effectively matching labour supply and demand, the Public Employment Service of Ukraine (PES) can play a significant role in promoting gender equality in the labour market, especially if equal opportunity principles are embedded within its operations. The way in which the PES implements its core functions – making available labour market information and job-brokering, employment counselling and vocational guidance, and the administration of passive and active labour market policies – may become an important tool in promoting equal access to quality employment for women and men and in redressing existing inequalities.

This user's guide was designed for staff of local employment offices, to be used during training sessions on gender mainstreaming. It accompanies the Guide developed for trainers of the Public Employment Service of Ukraine, which contains examples, individual and group activities and other resources, including a glossary of key gender mainstreaming terms, guidelines for the design, implementation and validation of gender mainstreaming workshops and other questionnaires and forms.

The user's guide was developed by Valli Corbanese, who relied on her experience working with the PES in a number of transition countries. The development of the package was initiated by Gianni Rosas, a former Senior Employment Specialist at the ILO Decent Work Technical Support Team and Country Office for Central and Eastern Europe in Budapest. The finalization of the package would not have been possible without the invaluable feedback of the counsellors and trainers of the Public Employment Service of Ukraine, who participated in a validation workshop held in Kyiv in February 2011, and the team of the EU-ILO project *Gender Equality in the World of Work*. The technical aspects of the package were coordinated by Verena Schmidt and Natalia Popova of the ILO Decent Work Technical Support Team and Country Office for Central and Eastern Europe in Budapest.

Mark Levin
Director

Decent Work Technical Support Team and
Country Office for Central and Eastern Europe

ORIENTATION FOR THE USER

What is this Guide for?	The purpose of this booklet is to help the staff of the Public Employment Service (PES) of Ukraine explore gender mainstreaming principles, understand the steps involved in identifying and remedying gender equality gaps in the delivery of employment services and programmes, and monitor the impact of the actions taken.
Who is this Guide for?	This guide has been designed for the counsellors and staff of the Public Employment Service of Ukraine who interact with unemployed clients and employers.
How to use this Guide	The purpose of this booklet is to help the staff of the Public Employment Service (PES) of Ukraine explore gender mainstreaming principles, understand the steps involved in identifying and remedying gender equality gaps in the delivery of employment services and programmes, and monitor the impact of the actions taken.
How is this guide structured?	The guide consists of four chapters. The first chapter helps the reader understand key gender equality terms and concepts. The second chapter focuses on gender analysis and audit tools to identify equality challenges. The third chapter deals with planning an action to address gender equality challenges. The fourth chapter concludes with key indicators to measure the performance of the employment service in achieving equality of outcomes between men and women in employment. The annexes offer a glossary of selected gender terms, explanations of selected labour market indicators and a non-exhaustive list of suggested readings.

CHAPTER 1

Key concepts: sex, gender and equality

What is gender equality?

Gender equality (or the equality of opportunities between men and women) is the enjoyment of equal rights, opportunities and treatment by men and women of all ages in all spheres of life and work, without the limitations set by gender roles. *Gender roles* refer to the activities that men and women do; for example, in many countries the roles of men and women are segregated by sex with men working outside the house and women responsible for home and care duties.

Equal opportunity in the world of work means that men and women have an equal chance to apply for a particular job, to be employed in a productive occupation, to attend educational or training courses, to be eligible to attain certain qualifications and to be considered for a promotion in all occupations, including those dominated by one sex.

... and discrimination?

Discrimination is any (direct or indirect) distinction, exclusion or preference based on age, race, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or other grounds that nullifies or impairs equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation. Direct discrimination exists when the unequal treatment stems directly from laws, rules or practices making an explicit difference between workers based on the grounds mentioned above. For example, a job advertisement that reads:

“We seek young strong men, preferably less than 25 years of age, to work in the warehousing department of a furniture business”

constitutes direct discrimination on the basis of sex and age.

Indirect discrimination consists of rules and practices which appear neutral but that, in reality, lead to disadvantages primarily suffered by persons of one sex, race, colour or other characteristic. For instance, setting job requirements or criteria for pay which appear neutral but are irrelevant to the requirement of the job (such as a height or weight requirement for an office manager) may in practice exclude a large percentage of female or male applicants, or persons of a certain race.

¹ ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, No 111 (1958). In many countries, discrimination in employment is also prohibited on other grounds, such as age, migrant or marital status, maternity or family responsibilities, sexual orientation, disability or infectious diseases.

Is this discrimination?

Read the two stories below. Decide whether Peter and Sonja were discriminated against, and if so, decide what is likely to happen.

Peter, who just graduated from the Art and Design Institute, registered with four of his friends (all young women who graduated with him) with the employment office to find an internship in order to gain work experience. When he registered, however, only two internship positions for designer were being offered, both in a company producing women's lingerie. An employment office counsellor organized interviews with the lingerie company for the woman candidates only, offering Peter an interview for an internship in car sales instead.

The employment office discriminated on the basis of sex. The fact that all Peter's fellow graduates got an interview with the lingerie firm and he did not may indicate that the counsellor considered an internship in such a company unsuitable for a man.

Sonja worked as a painter for a property developer for four months. When she lost her job because the company moved its place of business to another town, she registered at the local employment bureau. When a full-time position with another property development company opened up, the employment bureau did not short-list her for an interview. When she asked for an explanation, the employment office told her that the company manager specifically asked for a man because of the physically demanding nature of the job.

The employment bureau discriminated on the basis of sex. The bureau failed to short-list her, even though she could do the job as demonstrated by her prior employment history, and the bureau complied with a discriminatory request of an employer.

Different treatment of a specific group of individuals is allowed if the objective is to:

- protect certain groups of workers on special grounds, for example young people under 18 years of age are not allowed to work in hazardous occupations; or
- promote equality by affirmative or positive action. This includes special temporary measures to redress the effects of past or continuing discrimination with a view to establishing equality of opportunity and treatment in practice.

Why is equality important?

Gender equality is a fundamental human right. Empirical evidence has proven that gender equality is not only an end in itself, but also a means of achieving wider development goals ranging from poverty reduction, increased productivity and aggregate output, reduced fertility and lower infant mortality. All of these factors contribute to economic growth. Enhancing women's economic capabilities creates major economic benefits in terms of productivity, labour supply and human capital allocation, enhancing the tax base and stimulating economic growth. Conversely, gender inequality can be a significant hindrance to economic growth. Countries with the highest levels of inequality are often those with the lowest levels of per capita income. Despite the progress made in the last few decades, gender equality in employment remains an elusive goal. For instance:

- **Women face a double burden of paid work** (e.g. remunerated work outside the household) **and reproductive work** (care and household duties). Unpaid work in the household is not recognized as being of economic value and is not usually counted in the system of national accounts. Estimates of women's reproductive labour suggest that it accounts for about one third of world economic production. In developing countries, when unpaid agricultural work and housework are considered along with wage labour, women's work hours are estimated to exceed men's by 30 per cent.
- **Women make up a large proportion of people working in the informal economy**, where decent work deficits are most serious. Within the informal economy women tend to be concentrated at the lower end (domestic work and contributing family workers in agriculture). Evidence from many countries demonstrates how women working in the informal economy are major contributors to their families' incomes and to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Some estimates suggest that the informal economy contributes around 41 per cent of non-agricultural GDP in certain regions of the world.
- **Labour force participation rates** of women have been growing over the last few decades, but still **remain below that of men**. **Women often experience higher rates of unemployment** even when they are better educated. Unemployment rates hide large numbers of women who are discouraged workers or who are taking a break from the labour market for child-rearing.

Why is equality important?

- **Serious wage and income differentials exist between men and women.** This is one of the most persistent forms of discrimination. Wage gaps are not only characteristic of low-skilled occupations, but can also be found in high skilled jobs (for example, accounting and computer programming). Women's lower educational qualifications and intermittent labour market participation are not the main reason for the gender wage gap. Instead, factors such as occupational segregation, job classification systems, biased pay structures and weak collective bargaining are important contributors to unequal pay.
- **Occupational segregation and segmentation is common in labour markets around the world.** Approximately half of all workers in the world are in occupations where at least 80 per cent of workers are of the same sex. This has significant costs, such as maintaining rigidities in the labour market, higher male-female wage gaps, the underutilization of women's labour and lower levels of output and future growth rates. A study estimated that ending gender inequality in the labour market could increase women's wages by 50 per cent and increase national output by 5 per cent.
- **Women are migrating in greater numbers.** Faced with few opportunities in their home labour markets, increasing numbers of women migrate abroad. Migrant remittances are becoming the largest source of foreign revenue for emerging countries, with women migrants playing a major role in contributing to their country's development. Additionally, female migrants have a positive effect on the labour market in destination countries by enabling other women to seek productive and remunerative employment outside the home.
- **Women often face greater barriers to starting a business** because of limited access to entrepreneurship training and capital, and a lack of mentoring and network support. Women's businesses are often smaller than men's and low productivity increases the failure rate of women's micro-enterprises, particularly in businesses that use women's traditional skills (such as cooking, sewing and hairdressing).

CHECKPOINT

To check your familiarity with gender-related terms and definitions, try to match the terms in the floating cards with the definitions contained in the table below. The answers can be found in Annex 1 (Glossary of gender-related terms).

Gender blind	Special temporary measures to redress the effects of past or continuing discrimination with a view to establish equality of opportunity and treatment in practice.
Gender equity	Research examining similarities, differences and relations between women and men.
Gender gap	This describes measures and actions that do not recognize and ignore possible differences between the positions, needs, constraints, opportunities and interests of women and men.
Affirmative action	This is about equality of outcomes and results. It is a means to ensure that women and men have an equal chance not only at the starting point, but also when reaching the finish line.
Occupational segregation	It is the difference in any area between women and men in terms of their levels of participation, access to resources, rights, power, influence, remuneration and benefits.
Gender norms	The ideas that people have about what men and women should be like. For example, in many societies women are expected to be good housewives, while men are expected to be leaders of their family and community.
Indirect discrimination	Rules and practices which appear neutral, but that in practice lead to disadvantages primarily suffered by persons of one sex, race, colour or other characteristic.
	This occurs when women and men are concentrated in different types and at different levels of activity and employment. Women tend to be confined to a different range of occupations than men (horizontal segregation) and to lower job grades (vertical segregation).

**What are
“gender
mainstreaming
strategies”?**

Gender mainstreaming strategies are plans of action aimed at achieving gender equality. Gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes.² These strategies address both the practical and strategic needs of men and women, respectively. They may include the design of gender-specific measures to redress the effects of past or continuing discrimination through the empowerment of one or the other sex.

There are two steps involved in the formulation of any gender mainstreaming strategy. The first is to carry out a gender analysis, which includes: **I)** the collection of data disaggregated by sex and the analysis of trends, patterns and inequalities; **II)** identification of women’s and men’s needs, constraints and opportunities, including access to resources and benefits; and **III)** the review of the capacity of organizations/institutions to promote gender equality (gender auditing). The second step is to plan on action to tackle the equality gaps identified in the gender analysis. This may include implementing gender-specific measures or changing organizational procedures and processes.

**Why it is
necessary to
mainstream
gender
principles in
the public
employment
service?**

Modern public employment services (PES) play three key roles in the labour market:

- 1) they increase the efficiency of the labour market;
- 2) they serve as a means of promoting equitable access to the labour market and protecting the position of those who might otherwise be disadvantaged; and
- 3) they serve to mitigate the negative impact of structural adjustments on labour demand.

As such, the PES can play an important role in promoting gender equality. The way in which the PES implements its core functions – the dissemination of labour market information and job-brokering (mediation), employment counselling and vocational guidance, and the administration of active labour market policies – may allow it to make important strides in the achievement of equality between men and women and to redress labour market gaps.

² *Mainstreaming the gender perspective into all policies and programmes in the United Nations system. Report of the Secretary-General*, United Nations Economic and Social Council, 1997.

CHAPTER 2

Gender analysis and audit

How to identify gender equality gaps in the labour market?

How men and women perform in a particular labour market, along with the service delivery modalities used by the PES, are essential to identify the equality challenges that need to be addressed.

Gender analysis requires that data disaggregated by sex be reviewed, including both the data generated by the PES through its core functions (registration of individual jobseekers and vacancies posted by employers, job placement information, the administration of active labour market policies) and data acquired through surveys. Sole reliance on administrative figures may lead to the under- or over-estimation of certain problems and, as a consequence, to the design of actions that have a limited impact on improving equality across the board. Generally, the more information the PES has on the functioning of the labour market and the underlying causes that affect the employment performance of different groups of the population, the better it can target employment services and programmes to deliver on the objectives of the national employment strategy.

An example of how to carry out an analysis of labour market data is provided below. Table 2.1 reports some basic statistical figures for Ukraine recorded in 2001 and 2008 (note that the figures from at least two different years are needed to understand trends and patterns). The objective is to arrive to some gender-related conclusions and to identify the cause/effect relationship stemming from the information provided. The following questions should help you “read” the figures in the table:

1. Which conclusions can be drawn from the demographic data? (Share of men and women in the overall Ukrainian population; life expectancies; share of youth (less than 14 years of age); share of the working-age population (15-64 years old); share of the elderly);
2. What do the education figures tell you? (Literacy rate of young people; net enrolment rates in primary, secondary and tertiary education);
3. Is there a gender gap? (Differences in the activity, employment and unemployment rates of men and women);
4. Is the administrative data (PES data) different from the survey figures? If so, what is the reason? (Total number of unemployed registered, share of men and women registered as unemployed).

³The document setting forth the national employment policy usually includes a detailed analysis of the labour market situation. This can be used to benchmark the data of the employment service.

Table 2.1: Ukraine, Key figures 2001-2008

		Ukraine	
		2001	2008
Demography	GDP growth (annual %)	9,2	2,1
	Population	48683864	46258200
	Female (percentage)	53,7	53,8
	Population aged 0-14 (% of total)	16,8	13,9
	Population aged 15-64 (% of total)	68,8	70,1
	Population aged 65+ (% of total)	14,3	15,9
	Life expectancy at birth (years)	68,2	68,2
	Male	62,7	62,5
	Female	74,0	74,2
	Youth literacy rate (% of 15-24)	99,8	99,8
	Male	99,7	99,7
	Female	99,8	99,8
	Activity rate	57,1	58
	Male	64	65,5
	Female	51,4	51,8
Labour market	Unemployment rate	10,8	6,4
	Male	11	6,7
	Female	10,8	6,0
	Long term unemployment incidence**	58,4	24,0
	Male	...	...
	Female	...	...
	Employment-to-population ratio	49,9	53,5
	Male	56,4	60
	Female	44,7	48,2

Labour market	Vulnerable employment **	9,7	18,3
	Male	9,1	16,9
	Female	10,3	19,8
	Informal employment *		
	Male	...	52,7
	Female	...	47,3
Education	Net primary enrolment rates		89,3
	Male	...	89,1
	Female	...	89,5
	Net secondary enrolment rates	90,9	84,4
	Male	90,0	84,4
	Female	91,8	84,8
	Gross tertiary enrolment rates	52,3	79,4
	Male	48,3	70,8
PES data	Female	56,5	88,4
	Registered unemployment		625000
	Male (% on total)		...
	Female (% on total)		
	Registered long term unemployment		
	Male (% on total)		
	Female (% on total)		
	Percentage receiving UB		
	Male (% on total)		
	Female (% on total)		

Source: World Bank Country data, downloadable at <http://data.worldbank.org/country>.

* O. Kupets, *Gender mainstreaming in the Ukrainian labour market and the role of the Public Employment Service*, October 2010 (unpublished).

** ETF, *Ukraine Country Report*, ETF Turin 2009.

Demographics	The demographic figures indicate that women exceed men in the population count. The youth cohort is shrinking while the working-age population is increasing, meaning that the baby boom of earlier years is being absorbed. The share of elderly people in the population is increasing, and this, combined with a decreasing share of children, means that Ukraine will soon have to face problems brought about by an “ageing population”. Life expectancy is well below the average of the European Union (which is 82 years for women and 75.8 for men).⁴ Since in Ukraine (like in the EU) women live longer than men but retire earlier (at 55 years of age), the social security and protection systems may be jeopardized. As the demand increases for disbursements given to elderly people and the available income of the shrinking working population decreases, a feminization of poverty among elderly people may come about as well.
Education	The country has high youth literacy rates, with young men and women on the same footing when enrolling in primary education. However, while primary and secondary enrolment rates are approximately the same, rates of enrolment in tertiary education show that young women study more than young men. Yet higher education for women does not automatically translate into better labour market performance, as the activity and employment rates for women are lower than that of men and the share of women in vulnerable employment is higher compared to the share of men.
Employment	Despite a higher proportion of women in the population, women’s inactivity rates are higher than men’s, while their employment rates are substantially lower. Vulnerable employment (e.g. the share of own account workers and contributing family members) is more common among women than among men. This may indicate that women are more likely to become own account workers or to work as contributing family members, although the figures disaggregated by economic sector would be needed to clearly identify the cause of this difference. An additional set of data worth analysing for gender equality purposes is the inactivity rate, disaggregated by sex and by reason of inactivity. Often these figures reveal that women are more likely to be inactive because of education or because they are engaged in care and household duties, while men are more likely to be inactive due to disability or discouragement (meaning that they ceased searching for a job because they no longer believe that they can find one, even though they are available or willing to work).

⁴ EU statistics can be downloaded at <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/eurostat/home/>.

Administrative data	The unemployment levels differ substantially between the survey-based data and the administrative data. The Labour Force Survey reported that approximately 1.4 million individuals were unemployed in 2008, while the PES register recorded only 625,000 unemployed persons (less than half). This may indicate that registering with the PES is not an attractive option for finding work. Although the relevant figures are not reported in Table 2.1, the share of women in the unemployment register is higher than men, even though they have slightly lower unemployment rates. This may be due to the fact that men register less, as they can find employment more easily than women can (especially in the informal economy, since over half of male employment is informal).
Cause-effect relationship	Labour market data provides a situational picture, but it does not explain what causes the particular situation. In order to understand the reasons behind the figures, the available data must be analyzed and a set of theoretical explanation(s) should be devised. This work is generally done by labour market researchers and analysts who publish their work at the national and international level. However, by talking to the unemployed and to employers, the staff of the PES can also reach conclusions as to why certain situations arise.



Table 2.2 below provides additional data on the Ukrainian labour market. Try to identify all of the possible causes of the situations described by the figures. Suggestions are provided on the next page.

Table: 2.2. Additional examples of labour market data (Ukraine ca 2008)

In the period 2001-2008 the activity rates for men increased from 64% to 65.5%, whereas for women they increased by only 0.4 percentage points (from 51.4% to 51.8%).
Women are more engaged than men in own-account work (52.9 % in 2008), while men prevail in wage employment (52.5%).
There is a gender wage gap, with women's wages on average only 77.2% of men's wages.
More women than men register as unemployed with the PES, even though the unemployment rate for men, especially those in the younger cohort, is higher than the rate for women.

In the period 2001-2008 the activity rates for men increased from 64% to 65.5%, whereas for women they increased by only 0.4 percentage points (from 51.4% to 51.8%).

■ Economic growth has raised men's wages, thus increasing household income. This has led some married women to abandon the labour market.

■ A lack of public childcare facilities makes it difficult for workers with family responsibilities to engage in the labour market. Since childcare duties fall predominantly on women, this has had an impact on their activity rates.

Women are more engaged than men in own-account work (52.9 % in 2008), while men prevail in wage employment (52.5%),

A disaggregation of self-employment statistics by economic sector is necessary to correctly interpret this data. It may be that self-employed women are concentrated in female-dominated sectors (like personal services or handicrafts). If this is the case, self-employment for women may be interpreted as a survival strategy, e.g. faced with no possibility for wage employment, many women revert to own account work to gain an income. This data seems to be confirmed by the sharp increase of women in vulnerable employment.

There is a gender wage gap (women's wages are on average 77.2% of men's wages).

There are a number of possible explanations for this figure. First, women may have a lower level of educational attainment, and this has an effect on wage levels (although this is not the case in Ukraine). Women are also often employed in occupations and economic sectors where the wage levels are lower compared to those in male-dominated jobs and economic sectors. A disaggregation of employment data by occupation and economic sector for men and women can help detect the reason of gender wage gaps.

More women than men register as unemployed with the PES, even though the unemployment rate for men, especially those in the younger cohort, is higher than that for women.

This may be due to the type of benefits women and men receive when they register with the PES. For instance, if women are less likely to work in the informal economy as compared to men, they will also be more likely to be entitled to unemployment benefits. As the PES registration is the first step to claim unemployment benefits, this may partly explain the difference in registration rates.

Annex 2 (*Selected key labour market indicators*), appended to this Guide, provides examples of the most common labour market indicators (definitions and examples) that you may use to get a better understanding of employment figures.

Available labour market information should be analyzed not only in terms of the two sexes, but also within the same sex group and correlated to other variables. Often, in fact, more favourable figures for one of the sexes may hide negative features. For instance, the Ukrainian labour market indicators show that there is a strong correlation between educational attainment and employment, e.g. the better educated a person is the more likely s/he is to be employed. The fact that women tend to be more educated than men may lead, at the aggregate level, to better employment rates for women as compared to men. However, the higher employment rate of highly educated women and men may hide an education/occupation mismatch. A simple method to measure mismatch compares a person's level of educational attainment with a one-digit occupational classification applied to their main job. A mismatch occurs when the educational attainment of the worker is higher than the educational level required by the job. The following matrix schematically displays this mismatch, with the grey areas representing the mismatch. The comparison of the matrix compiled for men and women, respectively, may indicate whether women (or men) are more likely to experience a mismatch.

Table 2.3. Education and occupational mismatch as a function of ISCO and ISCED

ISCO-08 Major Groups		ISCED-97 Educational attainment						
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6
		ISCO-08 Skill level						
		1st	2nd		3rd		4th	
1	Managers							
2	Professionals							
3	Technicians and associate professionals							
4	Clerical support workers							
5	Service and sales workers							
6	Skilled agricultural, forestry, fishery workers							
7	Craft and related trades workers							
8	Plant and machine operators and assemblers							
9	Elementary occupations							
0	Armed forces occupations							

How to identify gender equality gaps in the operations of the PES

The tool used to examine the extent to which equality is being institutionalized in an organization, department or work unit is the Participatory Gender Audit (PGA). This is a self-assessment exercise that takes a closer look at how the PES is performing in terms of gender equality and mainstreaming. It takes into account objective data as well as staff perceptions on whether or not internal practices for gender mainstreaming being effectuated, and identifies critical gaps and challenges and the ways to address them (through a plan of action). It also lays the foundation for the initial baseline on gender mainstreaming in the PES to benchmark the progress that is or will be made.

This approach ensures that those who participate in the process learn how to critically assess their attitudes and practices and to develop ideas on improving their performance on gender equality. The outcome of the audit is usually a set of actions aimed at changing the policies, programmes and practices that are causing gender equality gaps.

The first step of a PGA is to carry out a desk review to gather quantitative and qualitative information on the work of the organization, department or work unit. Examples include:

Administrative resources

- Staff lists, including managers, technical specialists and support staff, described by their category and their main areas of responsibility;
- Rules and regulations specific to the work unit, including personnel policy and procedures;
- Key reports of the section/department and budgetary documents.

Technical/substantive work issues

- Key documents and procedures of the organization/department/work unit;
- Reports of major meetings and training activities;
- Training materials in current use;
- Other relevant documents specific to the work unit.

Information/promotion materials

- Document summarizing the work of organization/department/unit, if available;
- Public relations materials, brochures, posters, leaflets, publications with photographs, graphics, and so on;
- Intranet and Internet web site links;
- Newsletters – electronic and print.

The information collected is then discussed with other members of the PES staff.

Box 2.1. Tips on how to screen key documents for the gender audit

- Select the documents that are most significant and have a direct bearing on the organization/unit's work.
- Review documents that do not deal specifically with gender equality/mainstreaming, as these can yield useful information about the ways in which gender issues are integrated (or are not integrated) into the PES's work in general. Documents which deal with gender only implicitly or marginally, or which leave it out completely, are indicative of changes needed;
- The gender sensitivity of the documents is also important to review. This is determined not just by the information the documents provide, but also by their perspective, style and tone;
- Verify whether images, photographs and drawings communicate messages that promote gender equality, or perpetuate stereotypical roles by portraying, for example, men in power or women as caregivers.
- Is the language used gender-sensitive or gender-blind? For example, is the term "work hours" used instead of "man-hours" or "chairperson" instead of "chairman"?
- Are data and other information disaggregated by sex?

The review of the services and programmes that the PES offers to clients, how they are provided, and the effect these have on men and women, respectively, is an important step in identifying gender equality gaps in the work of the PES. This allows us to estimate the different effects (positive, negative or neutral) of any activity, measure or procedure implemented.

Ideally, every single service provided under each of the PES's functions should be screened. However, certain PES services are more likely to present gaps than others, such as vocational guidance, job placement and the administration of active labour market programmes. For example, vocational guidance services may not promote the taking up of non-traditional careers to men and women; counsellors dealing with active labour market programmes may offer unemployed women the option to participate in training or public work programmes (less costly) while men are offered employment subsidies (more expensive); and job-brokering services may tend to place women in female-dominated jobs/sectors and men in male-dominated jobs/sectors.

After the gender audit of the core PES functions is undertaken – following the screening of documents, talks with PES colleagues and an analysis of the administrative data – participants should answer questions about the data, as shown in the example below. The examples cover registration, counselling and guidance, job placement, services to employers, and the administration of active labour market programmes. Each example ends with tips for improving gender mainstreaming relevant to that area.

REGISTRATION

Data to be collected	Questions
Registered unemployed persons by sex, age group and rural/urban divide	■ What type of personal data does the PES collect? Are there limits to the types of personal data that the PES can disclose to third parties (including employers)? ■ Can jobseekers register only in person at the PES offices, or are alternative registration means possible (ICT tools)? ■ Are jobseekers required to fill in forms and/or provide additional documents when registering? Are these easy or difficult to fill out? ■ Are there significant differences between the share of men and women registered with the PES? ■ Are these differences in line with the data on participation and unemployment of women and men stemming from household-based surveys? ■ What is the age composition of registered unemployed persons within the sexes? Do young women register more or less compared to young men? And compared to older women? ■ Is the share of women registered as unemployed in rural areas higher or lower than their male peers, or as compared to women and men registered in urban areas? If so, why?
Registered men and women jobseekers by education and qualification level	■ Are there significant differences between the education level/qualifications of men and women registered with the PES? Do these differences persist within age groups as well? ■ Are the education and qualification figures of persons registered with the PES in line with the disaggregated figures of household-based surveys?

TIPS

1. The information gathered during registration should be disclosed only insofar as it is necessary for job placement. For example, personal and familial information may be necessary to give persons priority for participation in active measures, but it should not result in differential treatment. The PES should consider how to collect information, the purposes for which it will be used and whether it creates unfair assumptions about individuals (resulting, for instance, in the differential treatment of women with children as compared to men with children);
2. The informational material disseminated upon registration should be checked to make sure that it does not give the impression that a particular type of employment is more suited to one sex, or age group compared to another. The preparation of information material specifically for unemployed women may be considered in order to attempt to overcome gender segregation in occupations (i.e. with illustrations showing women working in non-traditional occupations).

3. Check that the registration inquiries dealing with education/training, competencies, occupation and work experience are based on skills. Women often downplay the knowledge and skills they have acquired in informal settings, and might stress feminine skills in order to meet societal expectations. Test different formats and procedures to see which work best for each sex, keeping in mind that women may have developed specific skills while doing unpaid domestic or care work.

COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE

Data to be collected	Questions
Unemployed persons by type of service (job search, counselling and guidance), sex, age group and level of education/qualification	■ Are there significant differences between the type of services men and women use or are directed to? For instance, do women use the job search training or self-service provisions more than men do, or vice versa? ■ What is the age composition of unemployed persons within the sexes? Do young women use more or less self-services compared to young men? Compared to older women? ■ Is the labour market informational material used for job search services the same for all persons? Does it tend to perpetuate gender stereotypes? ■ Which methods are used to assess the level of education/qualification clients have? Are skills that are acquired in informal settings recognized? ■ Is the share of men receiving vocational guidance higher or lower than the share of women? If so, why? ■ What is the workflow leading from basic job search assistance to individualized employment counselling? ■ Are men more likely to have access to individual employment planning (and therefore to active labour market programmes) than women?

TIPS

1. The staff providing group informational sessions should be aware of the fact that unemployed individuals have different needs and face different barriers in employment and occupation. Verify whether or not it is more effective to have single-sex sessions, as women sometimes feel more comfortable participating when men are not present. Age is also an important consideration: the group should be more homogeneous for the session to be more effective.
2. Employment counsellors should remain conscious of the need to work in a non-discriminatory way. Women respond to different cues than men, and interviewing styles should be adapted to respond to the differing needs of men and women. Consider the possibility of increasing or lengthening the counselling sessions for women facing specific difficulties.

3. Counsellors need to challenge stereotypical attitudes towards jobs and encourage individuals to consider non-traditional areas of work. Written material or specific programmes should be developed that help challenge these stereotypes.
4. Consider a system whereby guidance and counselling is subject to a “gender equality peer review”⁵ This means that periodically counsellors will be observed by their peers and colleagues during their routine work to see whether they use gender discriminatory or gender-conscious practices. The following should be considered:
 - Is the counsellor equally attentive and responsive when interviewing men and women?
 - Is the counsellor considering skills acquired by men and women in informal settings to be equally important and relevant?
 - Is the counsellor stressing the impact of an occupation on family responsibilities more or less when counselling women and men?
 - Is the counsellor offering part-time or full-time employment mainly to one sex?
 - Is the counsellor suggesting jobs and occupations based on their perception of what is most suitable? Is the counsellor actively challenging stereotypes associated with jobs and occupations, or are they merely accepting the client’s perceptions and ideas?
 - Does the counsellor present men and women with information on a wide range of opportunities, including non-traditional training and work experience programmes? Did they suggest non-traditional vocational training or work positions to men and women equally?
 - Is the counsellor proposing equally active measures to men and women (i.e. training programmes, wage subsidies and public works), or are women and men referred mainly to certain measures only, for example to training and employment subsidies, respectively?

JOB PLACEMENT AND SERVICES TO EMPLOYERS

Data to be collected	Questions
Data search on unemployed persons for matching purposes by sex, age group, occupation and economic sector	• (For an IT-based register): Are the keywords used to screen jobseekers for vacancies linked to gender? For example, do they include descriptions such as “caring skills” or “physical strength”? • Does the IT screening process allow for direct or indirect sex discrimination? • Are certain jobs perceived as being more suitable for women or men (by jobseekers, by employers and by the PES staff)? • Is the PES staff’s screening process gender-biased? Do women get screened for female dominated jobs and men for male dominated jobs?

⁵This approach may be limited by large staff workloads or a desire to respect client confidentiality. However, it may be nonetheless useful in the initial training of new PES recruits or during staff re-training programmes organized by the PES.

	■ How many women in the last 12 months were matched to male dominated jobs and how many men were matched to female dominated jobs? ■ Are the qualifications of jobseekers expressed differently between the two sexes? ■ Are men and women jobseekers equally represented in the interview lists prepared by PES staff? ■ Are the PES staff's screening requirements related to skill, physical effort or responsibility in such a way that they favour one sex compared over the other?
Registered vacancies by occupation, education and qualification level Vacancies filled by sex, age-group, occupation and economic sector	■ Is the language used when registering vacancies gender neutral? ■ Does the vacancy registration system allow for indirect sex discrimination? ■ Does the way in which the qualifications are expressed in vacancies affect the number of application of the two sexes? ■ Do the vacancies of male dominated jobs require higher qualifications than female dominated jobs? ■ Are vacancies referring to skill, physical effort and responsibility worded or organized in such a way to discourage one sex from applying?
Job mediation results by sex, age, qualifications level and occupational classification	■ Are there differences between the occupations and economic sectors that men and women are matched with? ■ Are men (or women) matched to male (or female) dominated occupations? ■ Are men and women with similar qualifications matched to similar job posts? If not, why? ■ Is sex a factor when the PES selects candidates for job interviews? Does the PES disclose the sex of candidates prior to their job interviews? ■ Are women selected by employers more or less than men?

TIPS

There are various arguments the employment services can rely on to convince employers not to discriminate on the basis of sex. Discrimination is bad for business and equal opportunities are cost-effective, and they should therefore be integrated into all management, personnel and employment practices. By putting equal opportunity policies into action employers also enjoy a number of other advantages, including:

- reduced staff turnover, savings in recruitment costs and training, and improvement in motivation and performance (which can, in turn, reduce turnover levels);

- a broadening of the “talent base” which develops people’s abilities faster and creates the potential for new and flexible approaches to the work;
- a healthier and more productive working environment;
- an improved corporate image for prospective employees and customers.

In short, employers have much to gain from reducing occupational segregation in the workplace. The employment service can assist employers in the following ways:

1. Challenge negative views among employers about recruiting women and inform employers of the better business rationale for equality, giving them the ability to:
 - Recruit from a wider pool of talent and skill;
 - Create a more diverse workforce which better reflects the customer base;
 - Widen the range of skills among employees to improve the quality of service delivery;
2. Work with employers to “rebrand” work opportunities and re-define skills in male-dominated sectors so that they are appealing to both sexes;
3. Encourage employers to understand the connection between gender equality and a competitive and productive workforce;
4. Help employers review recruitment and selection criteria to ensure that they do not contain outdated, narrow or irrelevant criteria that may exclude or discourage one sex;
5. Encourage employers to give all atypical applicants who meet the minimum selection criteria an interview;
6. Assist employers in designing explicit selection criteria, adopting a structured approach to interviewing, and developing competency-based selection procedures;
7. Carry out equality and diversity training for managers and other personnel responsible for recruitment;
8. Help employers adopt positive action strategies to encourage applications from underrepresented groups;
9. Make financial incentives available to employers who take on atypical apprentices and/or workers.

The employment service should develop a procedure to address employers who appear to be discriminating on the grounds of sex. For example, counsellors should remind employers that:

- treating somebody who is married less favourably than a single person of the same sex is direct discrimination;
- it is unlawful to instruct or put pressure on the employment service to discriminate by insisting that the service refer only women or men to them for a particular job;
- The law does not require employers to recruit somebody who cannot perform the job. Employers can set reasonable ability requirements, so long as these apply equally to both sexes.

ACTIVE LABOUR MARKET PROGRAMMES

Data to be collected	Questions
Percentage of entrants into ALMPs by type of programme, sex, age group, occupation and economic sector Percentage of ALMP participants employed at follow-up by type of programme, sex, age group, occupation and economic sector	■ Do men and women have equal opportunities to participate in longer, more expensive programmes (for instance, public works rather than employment subsidies)? ■ Is the PES staff's screening process for ALMPs gender-biased (e.g. are men and women referred to different types of programmes because of their sex)? ■ How do the shares male and female programme participants compare to shares of male and female registered unemployed persons? ■ Are ALMPs used to introduce men and women to male or female dominated jobs or economic sectors?

TIPS

1. A correct diagnosis of the causes of employment problems is essential for the design of effective employment programmes. Such causes are normally grouped into three broad categories:
 - Mismatch between the skill level of jobseekers and the skills demanded by employers (mismatches between the supply and demand of skilled labour). This can be effectively tackled by training programmes aimed at raising the qualifications of the unemployed;
 - Low labour demand, meaning that the supply of workers seeking a job exceeds the demand, or the number of vacancies available. This may also be caused by high labour costs that reduce the incentive for enterprises to invest. It can be addressed by providing incentives to employers to recruit workers (employment subsidies);
 - Long spells of unemployment, caused by the dissemination of incorrect information on job availability, skill mismatch or a low demand for work. These induce a process of de-motivation, resulting in the reduction of individuals' job search activity and the subsequent decrease in the probability of their becoming employed. This may be addressed through the dissemination of accurate labour market information, by providing job search assistance, counselling and guidance, and also by conditioning unemployment or social assistance benefits on job search activity.

2. In practice, however, high unemployment levels in many labour markets are the result of the combined effect of all the factors listed above. Integrated programmes, combining training with vocational guidance, labour market information, job search assistance and subsidized employment are therefore preferred, as they are more likely to lead to permanent employment. The impact evaluations of active labour market programmes carried out in several countries provide strong, positive evidence in support of this.
3. While individual labour market adjustment programmes may be pursued, there are advantages to integrating them into a single approach that are especially for beneficial for special groups.

Box 2.2 Evaluation results: what works for whom?
Lessons from ILO evaluations around the world

Intervention	Appear to help	Comments
Job search assistance Employment services	Unemployed adults when economic conditions are improving, with women and youth possibly benefiting more	Relatively more cost-effective than other measures due to low intervention costs. Possible deadweight loss if not effectively targeted.
Training for long-term unemployed persons	Women and other disadvantaged groups	No more effective than job-search assistance in increasing re-employment probabilities and earnings. Two to four times more costly.
Formal classroom training	Women re-entrants; does not appear to help prime-age men and older workers with low levels of formal education	It is important that courses have strong labour market relevance. They should lead to a recognized qualification. Programmes should be kept relatively small in scale.
On-the-job training	Women re-entrants; single mothers	Must directly meet labour market needs. Strong links with local employers are required. Can also increase the risk of job displacement.
Retraining workers displaced in mass lay-offs	Little positive impact; positive results mainly when the economy is improving	No more effective than job-search assistance and significantly more expensive. Rate of return usually negative.

Training (vocational skills)	Disadvantaged groups, especially prime age women	Results are patchy. Positive effects are as common as minimal or negative effects. Higher positive impact when training involves placement with a private sector employer. Less effective than other measures, especially direct job creation. Creaming, deadweight and substitution effects.
Employment and wage subsidies	Long-term unemployed persons	Benefits to participants not significant compared with control group. Sometimes used by firms as a permanent subsidy programme. High deadweight and substitution effects.
Subsidies for employers	Disadvantaged groups such as long-term unemployed persons, unskilled youth, welfare recipients, disabled persons and women with long absences from the labour force	Positive impact, but usually with high deadweight and substitution effects.
Direct employment: traditional job-creation and intermediate labour market schemes	Unqualified unemployed persons and youth	Positive effects on employment and income. More short-term than long-term advantages. Those with no qualifications have increased chances of staying in employment. Occasional displacement, deadweight and substitution effects.

The exercise described above allows you to: **I)** appraise each of the core functions of the PES; **II)** identify the areas or tasks that are the most problematic in terms of gender equality; and **III)** build a baseline, i.e. the starting point from which the effect of the actions taken will be measured.

The most problematic areas or tasks may be summarized in a matrix, as shown below. It is useful to then formulate actions aimed at correcting the most pressing gaps or challenges identified in the matrix.

SUMMARY OF PES SERVICES AND PROGRAMMES

Appraisal	Gap/challenge	Baseline
Example: The registration procedures for unemployment are burdensome and require long waiting periods.  cause	Example: Men register with the PES less than women and consequently have less access to employment services and programmes.  effect	Example: 65% of registered jobseekers are women (2008); 35% of registered jobseekers are men (2008).

CHAPTER 3

Planning an action on gender equality

How to address gender equality gaps

The identification of the main gaps and challenges and the establishment of a cause-effect relationship between the challenges and their causes are crucial for devising ways to address them. The findings of the gender analysis and the audit build the basis for designing and prioritizing options for actions.

Prioritizing an action involves three steps:

1. Listing of all the gaps or challenges identified by the analysis of the PES data and the audit of its core functions;
2. Establishing a hierarchy (ranking) among the challenges to select those that should be addressed as a matter of priority. Remember that the number of gaps or challenges to be addressed should be realistic, taking into account organizational constraints and limited resources;
3. Developing for each priority gap or challenge a range of options for action, selecting those that are the most feasible and affordable (see Box 3.1).⁶

Options for action are all of the possible ways in which a problem can be addressed. They must be linked to the cause of a certain problem, since addressing the cause will help solve the problem. However, since resources are an issue, the choice of action must reflect a realistic assessment of what can be achieved and the effect this will have on men and women, respectively.

Box 3.1. Criteria for prioritizing options

Affordability

This criterion compares the cost of the option to its expected returns.

- How much will this option cost?
- Who will pay for it? Are the requisite financial resources likely to be found for this option?
- Will the benefits of taking this action outweigh its costs?

⁶ G. Rosas, Rossignotti, G., *Guide for the preparation of national action plans on youth employment*, ILO Geneva, 2008.

Feasibility	This criterion refers to the resources available for implementing the option. – Is the proposed option feasible from a technical, organizational and administrative perspective? – Is there any evidence that this choice will achieve the expected results? – What is the time frame required to implement the option? – Are the existing staff's capacities adequate to implement this course of action? Do they need training? – Will staff development costs affect the affordability of the option?
Source: Adapted from World Bank and Canada School of Public Service: <i>Policy Analysis in Government. Step 3: Option Identification and evaluation</i>, Washington D.C., 1994. See also G. Rosas, Rossignotti, G., <i>Guide for the preparation of national action plans on youth employment</i>, ILO Geneva, 2008.	

	An example of a possible option to combat the challenge that men register less frequently with the PES than women can be found below.
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AFFORDABLE AND FEASIBLE OPTIONS FOR GENDER EQUALITY ACTION

Appraisal	Gap/challenge	Baseline	Options
Example: The unemployment registration procedures are burdensome and require long waiting periods. ↑ cause	Example: Men register with the PES less than women and consequently have less access to employment services and programmes. ↑ effect	Example: 65% of registered jobseekers are women (2008); 35% of registered jobseekers are men (2008).	Example: 1. Increase the number of staff working at the registration desk during peak periods (recruit more staff to work as registrars). 2. Introduce touch screen/ internet-based registration systems for the unemployed. 3. Launch an advertisement campaign (TV, radio and other media) to inform the public of the services offered by the PES.

Box 3.2. Additional examples of affordable and feasible options

1. A lack of childcare facilities hampers the participation of women in the labour market. However, an option proposing that the PES construct and run childcare facilities is neither affordable (because of the costs involved) nor feasible (as the competence to

build and run such facilities are outside the scope of the PES). The provision of childcare grants for inactive women to allow them to participate in an active labour market programme or to find employment would be more affordable and more feasible.

2. Women prevail in public sector jobs, which means that men are underrepresented. This can be addressed by giving priority to private sector jobs in the delivery of employment services and programmes to women. However, job competition is high in a tight labour market and this increases the overall cost of programmes geared to ease the entry of unemployed women into the private sector. Such an option would only be feasible if there is space to increase the financial resources available for ALMPs. It is affordable if the expected return on the investment (economic and social) is high enough.⁷
3. Men register as unemployed persons less than women do. However, a wider selection of job vacancies may attract men to the service. Increasing the selection of vacancies that the PES makes available can be achieved through a number of means, including: 1) increasing counsellors' contact with employers and increasing the extension of services to employers (for instance, job analyses and psycho-attitudinal testing of prospective employees are services that employers appreciate and that are not very expensive to set up, but require a change in internal procedure and possibly an increase in staff); 2) increasing collaboration with private employment agencies (PEAs) so that their vacancy listings are also available in the PES (probably the most feasible and affordable option in the short-term); and 3) improving the PES web portal and allowing employers to register vacancies directly in the database (a process which involves software and hardware costs, changes made to existing procedures and the training of staff).

How to plan an action

Planning an action means to set a series of tasks or steps designed to achieve an objective. The plan should identify what is to be achieved, who is responsible, how and when the measures are going to be implemented, and what resources are required to implement the action.

The **objective** should indicate what the plan aims to achieve by the end of its implementation. The objective should be as clear and concise as possible. It needs to be accompanied by one or more quantifiable or verifiable targets to be reached.

- ✓ For example, an objective could be *"To provide men and women with equal access to PES services and programmes"*.

Targets provide benchmarks for monitoring the progress made in the achievement of objectives and assessing the impact of the action taken

- ✓ For example, a target of the above-mentioned objective could be *"Increase the number of men/women receiving individualized employment services by 15 per cent"*.

⁷ This is measured by comparing the cost of the programme for an unemployed woman with the returns in terms of taxes and social contributions that she would pay to the State if employed for six months.

How to plan an action

The **outputs** indicate the change that is expected to happen within the planned time frame. These should take the form of realistically achievable ends. When defining outputs, the aim (the longer term goal) should be kept in mind, as well as the resources that are available.

- ✓ An example of output could be *"An ICT-based system developed and used by all PES local offices for the registration of unemployed men and women"*.

Each output should be accompanied by one or two well-chosen indicators that are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound. An example of an indicator for the output listed above could be:

- ✓ *"A 5 per cent annual increase in the number of men registering with the PES's local offices"*.

Indicators need to be carefully drafted and calculated on the basis of the baseline. Box 3.3 below offers some tips on how to develop suitable indicators.

When deciding on indicators, it is usually best to work initially with levels rather than with percentages. For example, if the indicator refers to an increase in the share of men registering with the PES, it can be calculated as follows:

1. Take the total number of men that registered with the PES in the prior year (inflow), for instance 15,750 (meaning that the inflow of women was 29,250, applying the baseline share of 35/65).
2. Consider what can be reasonably achieved in one year, i.e. the introduction of a web based registration system that will definitely bring an additional 5,300 men to the PES, although it will not have a notable impact on the registration of women.
3. The PES has experienced a two per cent decrease in the inflow of unemployed persons in the last year. If the total number of registered unemployed persons in the prior year was 650,000, a 2 per cent decrease equals a decrease of 13,000 individuals registering with the service (and applying the percentages of the baseline, this means 4,550 fewer men and 8,450 fewer women per year).
4. Therefore, the inflow of men in the next period is determined by adding the natural inflow of men (- 4,550 men) to the number of men induced by the action (+5,300 men) for a total net inflow of 750 men.
5. The expected increase in the inflow of men in the next year is thus going to be 4.7 per cent ($750 \times 100 / 15,750$), and this becomes the indicator for the given output.

Box 3.3. Tips for the development of indicators

Relevance. Indicators should be relevant and carefully tailored to the aims of the user.

Disaggregation. All data should be disaggregated by sex. This is key for the development of gender-sensitive indicators. When possible, data should also be disaggregated by age, level of education and other variables.

Comprehensibility. Indicators should be easy to use and understand, and should be developed to the levels necessary for the institutional capabilities of the user.

Clarity of definition. A vaguely defined indicator will be open to several interpretations, and may be measured in different ways at different times and places which could lead to ambiguity. Care must be taken in defining the norm or benchmark. For example, in examining the status of women, is the norm the situation of men in a particular region, or is it that of women in other regions?

The number of indicators chosen should be small. There are no hard and fast rules to determine an appropriate number of indicators, but a rule of thumb is that the user should avoid an overload of information or over-aggregation, as designing a composite index based on aggregation or weighing schemes may conceal important information. In general, the number of indicators should be as small and as disaggregated as possible, especially for new actions. A larger set may be developed over time.

Specificity. The selection of indicators should reflect those gaps or challenges that the action seeks to address.

Technical soundness. Data should be reliable. The user or reader should be informed of how the indicators were constructed. Information should be provided on their meaning, how they are to be interpreted and their limitations. Indicators must be available on a timely basis. Forward-looking. A well-designed system of indicators must not be restricted to information reflective of current concerns. Indicators must also measure trends over time.

Adaptability. Indicators should be readily adaptable for use in different regions and in changing circumstances.

Джерело: Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators, 1997, [http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/inet/images.nsf/vLUIImages/Policy/\\$file/WID-GUID-E.pdf](http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/inet/images.nsf/vLUIImages/Policy/$file/WID-GUID-E.pdf)

The indicators must be **gender sensitive**, meaning that they need to capture gender-related changes. Whereas gender statistics provide factual information about the status of women, a gender-sensitive indicator provides direct evidence of the status of women or men relative to a reference group.

An example of a gender statistic is:

- ✓ *95 per cent of women in Ukraine are literate today, as opposed to 80 per cent five years ago.*

	An example of a gender-sensitive indicator is: ✓ <i>95 per cent of women in Ukraine are literate today as compared to 97 per cent of men, and compared to 80 and 90 per cent five years ago, respectively.⁸</i> Using the indicator calculated above, its gender-sensitive description will read: ✓ <i>There is a 5 per cent annual increase in the number of men registering with PES local offices as compared to the 3.2 per cent decrease of women registering with the PES.</i> This means that the composition of the inflow into the PES in the next year will be 44.2 per cent for men (compared to the 35 per cent baseline) and 55.8 per cent for women (compared to the 65 per cent baseline).
	Activities are short statements that describe a series of individual tasks that will be carried out. The implementation of the tasks specified in the activities should bring about the change described in the relevant output. Achieving the outputs should, in turn, lead to the attainment of the objective set out An example of an activity under the output mentioned above could be: ✓ <i>“Draft and approve technical specifications for the introduction of a new ICT and internet-based registration system for the unemployed”.</i>
	By now, you will have: 1) identified the most pressing gaps or challenges that need to be addressed; 2) designed a baseline (point of departure) for each challenge, and 3) decided on the most effective option to address each challenge. These will be used to formulate objectives, targets, outputs, indicators and activities to be undertaken to improve gender mainstreaming in your work unit.

⁸ G.T. Beck, *Using gender- sensitive indicators. A reference Manual for Governments and other stakeholders*, Commonwealth Secretariat, June 1999

As shown in the example below, the gap or challenge you identified has been reversed, serving instead as your objective. Your baseline will help you calculate the final target, using the same process used to calculate indicators earlier on). Your output is the most affordable and feasible option that you have identified to solve the gap or challenge, and the indicator points to how you will measure the success of your action. Once the objective, outputs and activities have been designed, remember to appraise the impact that each of your actions will have on men and women, respectively.

Example: Action plan to address gender equality gaps

Gap/challenge	Baseline	Options
Men register with the PES less than women and consequently have less access to employment services and programmes.	65% of registered jobseekers are women (2008); 35% of registered jobseekers are men (2008).	1. Introduce touch screen/ internet-based registration systems for the unemployed.



Objective	Target	Output	Indicator	Activities
Improve unemployed men and women's access to PES services and programmes.	Increase the number of men using the PES's services by 15 per cent by 2013. Link to timeframe	Touch screen/ internet-based registration systems for the unemployed are introduced in local employment offices. Link to resources	5 per cent annual increase in the number of men registering with the PES compared to a 3.2 per cent decrease of women registering with the PES.	1. Draft and approve technical specifications for the introduction of a new ICT and internet-based registration system for the unemployed. 2. 3.

It is important to remember that preconditions for effective gender mainstreaming in a complex organization like the PES include a clear and transparent organisational structure, clear enforcement mechanisms and a strong focus on achieving equality.

Box 3.4 below offers some suggestions that the employment service may consider for improving the attainment of equal opportunities for men and women.

Box 3.4. Gender equality options, measures and programmes for the PES administration

Gender equality options, measures and programmes	Comments / Results
1. Systemic reform of the employment service	
Tiered approach Profiling system	This approach provides access to basic service to all the jobseekers with greater efforts being made towards “hard to place” candidates. Unemployed persons considered better off are offered “soft assistance” that ranges from job-search skills to group counselling and self-service, while the hard to place candidates are provided with intensive and individualized services through integrated packages of active labour market programmes. Such approaches are considered to be effective in achieving gender equality as well, since sex is often a determinant of labour-market disadvantage. The profiling system is an alternative approach to the tiered approach. It normally results in the creation of individual employment plans, describing the path a specific individual should follow to find employment.
Gender awareness training for all PES personnel	Training is the most common approach, but its effectiveness is enhanced if it is accompanied by other programmes and approaches. It needs to be sustained over time and its results must be measured (e.g. how are unemployed women benefiting? Is the service more gender-friendly as a result of training?).
Gender-sensitive procedures and guidelines for interactions with clients	The service designs and implements workflow procedures aimed at redressing gender inequalities in the treatment given to clients. A code of practice is established, which is subject to monitor and impact review. (See, for example, the manual of the Malta employment service for gender sensitive vocational guidance. This approach is sometimes accompanied by “gender inspection” practices.)

“Gender peer review” of career guidance and employment counselling	The practice, workflow and procedures of the employment service are regularly reviewed by gender specialists in lieu of the gender targets set beforehand. Usually the review is preceded and followed by gender training activities.
Gender sensitive informational materials and campaigns aimed at challenging gender stereotypes	Often the PES uses the same informational material for long periods of time, and little attention is paid to whether or not the material distributed to clients perpetuates gender segregation in employment, i.e. includes pictures of men performing plumbing or construction jobs that lend credence to the notion that such employment is only suitable for men. Some countries, notably Canada, the US and the UK, launch periodic campaigns to challenge gender stereotyping in employment and occupation, addressed to both individuals and companies.
Revision of contracting training procedures for training providers (performance reviews)	Training providers contracted by the PES are required to implement measures (and set targets) to address gender segregation. Training providers offer workplace internship sessions, mentoring, work trials and shadowing opportunities in non-traditional occupations. They are also required to organize courses with flexible hours. During performance reviews, the PES verifies the attainment of the gender targets set.
Childcare allowances to accompany ALMPs	The PES offers an allowance or bonus to public childcare facilities to help women participating in active labour market measures to manage their child-rearing responsibilities.
2. Targeting unemployed women	
Skill analysis in counselling and guidance processes	This approach is introduced when the national qualification system is biased in favour of formal education. The unemployed client undergoes a skills and competencies assessment to verify what knowledge and skills they possess, however they were acquired. Such assessments are useful in widening the occupational choice of clients. Usually they are carried out by skills centres accredited with the employment service or the Ministry of Education.
Activation of single-sex training courses and work trials in non-traditional occupations	This provides clients the possibility to try out non-traditional occupations (for example, childcare for men and construction work for women). The fact that the trials and courses are single-sex helps clients overcome psychological barriers to participation due to socially entrenched stereotypes. It is normally accompanied by confidence building and assertiveness modules.

3. Targeting employers	
Gender awareness-raising programmes for employers	Offered by the PES to employers free of charge. They promote the business case for equality and diversity and help employers comply with the legal requirements on equality in employment and occupation.
Employers' recruitment and selection criteria structures	The employment service helps employers revise their recruitment processes, job requirements and vacancy announcement procedures to ensure that they comply with the existing legislation. Usually this is preceded by gender awareness programmes that are provided at no charge.
Employers' code of good practice on gender equality	The PES assists employers in designing and enacting sets of corporate rules on gender equality. Such rules can cover advertising, recruitment, promotion, and sexual harassment in the workplace.
Job evaluation and job analysis approaches	Job descriptions and salary scales within a company are revised based on the competencies required for each job (through job analyses), including level of responsibility and accountability. The final result is that same competencies, in different occupations are remunerated at the same level, thus ensuring equal pay for work of equal value.
Financial incentives to take on atypical workers	This approach is achieved through the distribution of wage subsidises. Companies that recruit atypical workers are subsidized for a period of time. The subsidies are normally accompanied by mentoring and coaching for workers. Since wage subsidies generate high substitution and displacement effects, this approach is normally envisaged as an affirmative action.

CHAPTER 4

Performance monitoring of the PES's service delivery

What is performance monitoring?

Performance monitoring involves the regular supervision of the effects of the actions taken to ensure they are meeting the objectives and targets set. Monitoring also serves to identify ways in which actions could be redesigned to better promote gender equality. The need for redesign is particularly strong when initial gender differences are high and have major impacts on women or men's chances in the labour market and on their ability to adapt to new developments over time.

Performance measurements may assess the impact of past activities (through monitoring and evaluation), as well as the setting of benchmarks for future performances (targeting). Implementing performance measurement systems, however, presupposes the existence of reliable data and suitable indicators.

Performance indicators provide the PES with information that can ensure the efficient delivery of programmes and services, estimating the extent to which they are achieving gender targets. Attention should be paid to both qualitative and quantitative indicators. For example, an increase in the placement rate of women may be desirable, but if women are exclusively placed in segregated, low-paid jobs there is a problem of quality of performance.

How is the performance of the PES monitored?

The most commonly used measures to monitor the PES's performance are indicators for demand, output, outcome and impact. Their methods for calculation and variable disaggregation are explained in the tables and paragraphs that follow.

INDICATORS TO MEASURE THE PES'S PERFORMANCE: DEMAND INDICATORS

Demand Indicators	Description	Disaggregation
Composition of clients (individuals/companies)	$\frac{\text{Number of clients by typology in year } t}{\text{Total number of clients in year } t}$	<u>Individuals</u> by sex, age, education, , unemployment duration, type of disadvantage <u>Companies</u> by economic sector, dimension
Stock variation of clients (people/companies)	$\frac{\text{Number of clients in year } t - \text{Number of clients in year } t-1}{\text{Number of clients in year } t-1}$	<u>by type of service</u> (LMI, counselling, placement, active labour market programmes) <u>Individuals</u> by sex, age, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage <u>Companies</u> by economic sector, dimension
Inflow of clients (people/companies)	$\frac{\text{Number of new clients in year } t}{\text{Stock of clients at the end of year } t-1}$	<u>Individuals</u> by sex, age, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage <u>Companies</u> by economic sector, dimension

Demand indicators

Demand indicators provide information on the clients of the PES: individual jobseekers and employers. They help the service monitor how specific policies, programmes and actions are influencing the labour market. They measure variations in the number of unemployed persons by their individual characteristics (such as sex, age, level of education) and variations in enterprises posting vacancies. For example:

- ✓ The success of an outreach programme aimed at promoting labour market participation of women can be measured by the yearly increase in the inflow of women jobseekers (indicator: yearly increase in the inflow of jobseekers by sex).
- ✓ The progress of convincing employers in emerging economic sectors to use the services of the PES can be measured by the yearly increase of the number of enterprises in these sectors (inflow of companies by economic sector).

The figures from the PES registry on jobseekers and employers (administrative data) are used to determine the demand indicators.

INDICATORS TO MEASURE PES PERFORMANCE: OUTPUT INDICATORS

Output Indicators	Description	Disaggregation
Degree of coverage of target population (companies)	$\frac{\text{Number of companies using NES services} \times 100}{\text{Total number of companies in the reference area}}$	- by economic sector - by dimension
Degree of coverage of target population (people)	$\frac{\text{Number of people using PES services} \times 100}{\text{Targeted population (active population or unemployed persons in the reference area)}}$	- by type of PES service - by sex - by age - by education - by unemployment duration - by type of disadvantage (disabled, ethnic minority)
Implementation	$\frac{\text{N° implemented actions}}{\text{N° planned actions}}$	by activity and target group

Output indicators

Output indicators are mostly used to evaluate the performance of local employment offices. They provide an overview of the coverage of the PES in terms of jobseekers and enterprises. For example:

- ✓ An action to promote women's integration in the labour market can be measured by an increase of women using the PES mediation service as compared to the number of women detected as unemployed in the Labour Force Survey in the specific area (degree of coverage of the target population by sex and PES service).

This set of indicators is more useful when it is read together with outcome indicators. For example, a local employment office may show a high degree of coverage for the target group selected (i.e. for long-term unemployed women) but have a very low placement rate (gross placement rate by sex and length of unemployment spell). This may indicate a problem in the mediation function (e.g. counsellors find it difficult to convince employers to recruit long-term unemployed women). Combining and sequencing activities (for example, counselling combined with an active programme such as wage subsidies) may address this problem.

Output indicators

The data source for the output indicators is the PES registry on jobseekers and employers (administrative data), the Labour Force Survey (or the Household Budget Survey or the Census) and establishment surveys (business surveys, job vacancy surveys or wage surveys).

Indicators to measure PES performance: Outcome indicators

Outcome Indicators	Description	Disaggregation
Gross Placement rates (individuals)	$\text{Number of placements} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Number of placements}}{\text{Target population}}$	- by type of service - by type of client (people/ companies) - by type of job <u>Type of service</u> (LMI, counselling, placement, active labour market programmes) <u>Individuals</u> by sex, age, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage, occupation, type of contract <u>Companies</u> by economic sector, dimension
Gross Placement rates (companies)	$\text{Number of hirings} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Number of hirings}}{\text{total hirings}}$	- by type of service - by economic sector - by dimension - by type of hiring
Cost per placement	$\text{Total cost} = \frac{\text{Total cost}}{\text{Number of placements}}$	- total - by type of service - by clients completing the intervention
Degree of ex post satisfaction (companies)	$\text{Number of clients satisfied by the service} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Number of clients satisfied by the service}}{\text{Total number of clients}}$	- by type of service - by economic sector - by dimension

Outcome indicators

Outcome indicators need to be looked at closely to identify how well the PES is progressing. Generally, the most significant indicator is the gross placement rate of the unemployed by individual characteristics and their cost. The more disaggregated the figures the better, as this allows for the comparison of men and women. For instance:

- ✓ If an action planned by the PES is to increase the number of men employed in a female-dominated sector, like elderly care, the gross placement rate by sex, occupation and economic sector will allow for the comparison of women and men who were placed in these jobs in a certain period of time. Comparing these with the figures of the prior period will allow the PES to determine to what extent the actions are successful.

Cost is an important variable to measure: it allows for the determination of whether or not a service or programme is cost-effective, e.g. whether the rate of return in terms of placement justifies the resources invested.

For example:

- ✓ The total costs of training programmes to upgrade the skills of men are lower than those for women because the latter require longer periods to acquire job competencies (indicator total cost by type of service). However, placement after a training programme is more likely for women than for men, meaning that the cost per placement is lower for women.

Performance monitoring often stops at the determination of gross placement rates and does not investigate the quality of such placements. For example, it is not so difficult to place a good number of unemployed women in low quality or poorly paid jobs. It is much more difficult to place women in high-paid jobs of higher quality. That is why it is important to measure the "quality of jobs" brokered by the PES as well. This can be done by investigating the occupations men and women are placed into; the type of employment contracts men and women clients sign (permanent vs. temporary, full-time vs. part-time); and their hours of work, wage levels and other work conditions. It is also helpful to ask clients of their opinion as to the quality of the services they have received. Increasingly, employment services offer client satisfaction surveys to help them identify the areas of service delivery that need improvement.

Outcome indicators can be measured by administrative data (the PES registry on the outflow into employment combined with the records of the social insurance or tax administration) or survey-based data (questionnaires administered to clients usually six months after the end of the service/programme in which they were involved). The second method is more reliable since it also detects clients working informally.

INDICATORS TO MEASURE PES PERFORMANCE: IMPACT INDICATORS

Impact indicators	Description	Disaggregation
Rate of immediate transition	Number of beneficiaries hired at the end of the scheme (or given a better income) ----- Total placed in the period	– By sex, age group, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage, occupation, type of contract
Net placement rate (individuals)	Gross placement minus deadweight and substitution losses ----- Total placed	– By sex, age group, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage, occupation, type of contract
Net placement rate (companies)	Gross placement minus deadweight and substitution losses ----- Total hiring	– By economic sector and size
Quality jobs	% of hired beneficiaries in full time and permanent jobs after 12 months ----- % of full time and permanent jobs in the region	– By sex, age group, education, unemployment duration, type of disadvantage, occupation, type of contract

Impact indicators

Impact indicators measure the net effect of employment services (generally) and active labour market policies (specifically) on aggregate employment and unemployment by estimating deadweight, substitution and displacement effects.

Net impact evaluations are rarely carried out, as they are lengthy and costly. However, they are indispensable to:

- deciding whether PES programmes were adequately designed, targeted, sequenced and administered;
- measuring the impact on individuals in terms of employment and income;
- comparing the outcomes of different programmes;
- demonstrating what works and for whom.

Impact indicators rely on survey-based data based on a sample of unemployed persons who were involved in PES service or programme. The survey usually takes place two to three years after the service/ programme has ended.

CHECKPOINT

Based on the indicators formulated to measure the progress of your gender equality actions, try to identify which among the PES performance monitoring indicators (demand, output and outcome) would be most effective. An example is provided below. Remember that multiple indicators are possible.

MEASURING PERFORMANCE IN ACHIEVING GENDER EQUALITY

Plan of action indicator	Performance monitoring indicator
5 per cent annual increase in the number of men registering with PES local offices as compared to a 3.2 per cent decrease in women Example	Demand Indicator <i>Composition of clients:</i> Number of individual clients by sex in year t/ total number of clients in year t <i>Stock variation of clients:</i> Number of clients by sex in year t/ Number of clients by sex in year t-1 <i>Inflow of clients:</i> Number of new clients by sex in year t/ Stock of clients by sex at end year t-1 Output indicators <i>Degree of coverage of target population:</i> Number of men registering with the PES *100/ Number of unemployed men in the reference area Number of women registering with the PES *100/ Number of unemployed women in the reference area

FINAL TIP

The process highlighted in this Guide to mainstream gender equality principles can be used by an individual, a small team of PES staff members (i.e. counsellors dealing with vocational guidance or placement officers), a single work unit or a department of the PES. It can also be used by an entire local employment office or the whole employment service organization.

Clearly, formulating a gender equality strategy for the highest levels of the PES yields better long-term results and ensures a uniform approach to gender equality throughout the organization. However, given the specificities of local labour markets, this strategy may also be combined with locally based plans of action geared towards the achievement of the ultimate goal of gender equity in employment and occupation. Nonetheless, gender equity is best promoted through the direct services provided by individual PES staff members to men and women, respectively.

GLOSSARY OF GENDER EQUALITY TERMS

Affirmative (positive) action	Involves special temporary measures to redress the effects of past or continuing discrimination with a view to establishing equality of opportunity and treatment in practice.
Direct discrimination	This exists when unequal treatment stems directly from laws, rules or practices that explicitly difference between persons of different sexes.
Equal remuneration	This refers to the notion that rates and types of remuneration should be based not on an employee's sex (or other personal attributes) but on an objective evaluation of the work performed.
Femininity and masculinity	Different ideas and expectations about the characteristics, abilities and behaviour of women and men.
Gender	Refers to the social differences and relations between men and women that are learned, vary widely within and between cultures, and change over time.
Gender analysis	Research examining similarities, differences and relations between women and men.
Gender blind	Describes measures and actions that neither recognize nor ignore possible differences between the position, needs, constraints, opportunities and interests of women and men.
Gender equality	Refers to the enjoyment of equal rights, opportunities and treatment by men and women of all ages in all spheres of life and work.
Gender equity	This is about equality of outcomes and results. It is a means to ensure that women and men have an equal chance not only at the starting point but also when reaching the finish line.
Gender gap	This is the difference in any area between women and men in terms of their levels of participation, access to resources, rights, power and influence, remuneration and benefits.
Gender mainstreaming	A means of integrating equality concerns across the board into all policy objectives and all activities in order to promote equality of all workers, irrespective of sex
Gender roles	Refers to the activities that the two sexes actually do. They can be flexible or rigid, and they vary according to the individual characteristics of people and change over time.

Gender-sensitive	Refers to measures and actions that address the different situations, roles, needs and interests of women and men.
Gender stereotypes	The ideas that people have on what men and women are capable of doing, for example that women are better housekeepers and men are better leaders.
Gender values and norms	The ideas that people have on what men and women should be like, for example the beliefs that women should be good housewives and men should be leaders of their family and community.
Indirect discrimination	Rules and practices which appear neutral but in practice lead to disadvantages primarily suffered by persons of one sex, race, colour or other characteristic.
Occupational segregation	Occurs when women and men are concentrated in different types and at different levels of activity and employment. Women tend to be confined to a different range of occupations than men (horizontal segregation) and to lower job grades (vertical segregation).
Sex	This refers to the biological differences between women and men which are universal and, generally, difficult to change.

SELECTED KEY LABOUR MARKET INDICATORS⁹

Working-age population

Young people below a certain age are either physically unable to work because of their age or are not allowed to work due to national labour legislation or compulsory education systems. In countries where compulsory schooling and employment working-age legislation have broad coverage and are widely respected, the age specified in these regulations is used to determine the appropriate minimum age for measuring the economically active population. The *United Nations Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses* specify that the minimum age limit adopted for census questions on economic activity should never be higher than 15 years.

In addition to using a minimum age limit, certain countries use also a maximum age limit. Adoption of a specified upper age limit means that all persons above that age are excluded from the economically active population count. Generally an inquiry into economic characteristics is restricted to persons under 65 years of age.

EXAMPLE

Neverland has a total population of 10,000 people. Mandatory education lasts nine years (from the ages of six to 15), and the retirement age is set for both men and women at 65 years of age.

The population of Neverland is composed of the following age-groups:

- 1,000 people are children aged 0 to 14,
- 2,000 people are young aged people 15-24,
- 5,000 people are people aged 25-64,
- 2,000 people are people above 65 years of age.

Working-age
population

The working-age population of Neverland is 7,000 people.

Labour force participation rate

The labour force participation rate is the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. Breaking down the labour force rate by sex and age creates a profile of the distribution of the economically active population within a country.

The labour force is the sum of employed and unemployed persons. The labour force participation rate is defined as the ratio of the labour force to the working-age population, expressed as a percentage.

⁹This summary is extracted from the Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), published every year by the International Labour Office (ILO). It contains a core set of 20 labour market indicators that cover various aspects of decent work deficits around the world. The complete set can be downloaded in English at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/strat/kilm/index.htm>.

EXAMPLE

The working-age population of Neverland is 7,000 individuals. Of these, 2,500 are employed and 1,700 are unemployed.

The labour force comprises 4,200 individuals.

The labour force participation rate is $(4,200 \times 100) / 7,000 = 60\%$.

The inactivity rate is $100\% - 60\% = 40\%$.

The measurement can be broken down by sex and by the following standardized age groups: 15+; 15-64; 15-24; 25-54; 25-34; 35-54; 55-64 and 65+. The group of persons aged 25-54 years corresponds to the “prime working age”.

This measure indicates the relative size of the supply of labour available for the production of goods and services. It plays a central role in the study of factors that determine the size and composition of a country’s human resources and is used to formulate projections of the future supply of labour. The information is used to create employment policies and to determine training needs. It also is relied upon in the calculation of the expected working lives of the male and female populations and their rates of accession to, and retirement from, economic activity, factors that are crucial for the financial planning of social security systems.

Employment-to-population ratio

The employment-to-population ratio (sometimes referred to as the “employment rate”) is defined as the proportion of a country’s working-age population that is employed.

EXAMPLE

The working-age population of Neverland is 7,000 individuals. Of these, 2,500 are employed and 1,700 are unemployed.

The employment-to-population ratio is $(2,500 \times 100) / 7,000 = 35.7\%$.

Employment is defined as the engagement of persons above a specified age who performed any work in the reference period for pay or profit (or pay in kind), or were temporarily absent from a job due to illness, maternity or parental leave, holiday, training or an industrial dispute. Unpaid family workers who work for at least one hour are included in the employment count, although many countries use a higher hour limit in their definition.

A high employment-to-population ratio means that a large proportion of a country’s population is employed, while a low ratio means that a large share of the population is not directly involved in market-related activities, either because they are unemployed or because they are uninvolved in the labour force. Although a high overall ratio is typically considered to be positive, the indicator alone is not sufficient for assessing the level of decent work or the level of a decent work deficit. Additional indicators are required that relate to earnings, hours of work, informal employment, underemployment and working conditions. Indeed, the ratio could be high for reasons that are not necessarily positive: for example, where education options are so limited that young people

take up any work available rather than remain in school. The employment-to-population ratio is of particular importance when broken down by sex, as the ratios for men and women can provide information on gender differences in labour market activity.

Status in employment

The indicator of status in employment distinguishes between three categories of employed persons. These are: (a) wage and salaried workers (also known as employees); (b) self-employed workers; and (c) contributing family workers (also known as unpaid family workers). These three groups of workers are presented as percentages of the total number of employed persons for both sexes, and for males and females separately.

EXAMPLE

Of the 2,500 persons employed in Neverland (1,800 men and 700 women), 1,500 are employees, 600 are employers or self-employed persons, 170 are members of cooperatives and 230 are contributing family workers.

- Wage-employment makes up 60% of the total employment $(1,500 \times 100) / 2,500$.
- Self-employment makes up 30.8% $(600 + 170) \times 100 / 2,500$.
- Contributing family members constitute 9.2% of the total employment $(230 \times 100 / 2,500)$.

Breaking down employment information by status in employment provides a statistical basis for describing workers' behaviour and conditions of work. A high proportion of wage and salaried workers in a country can signify advanced economic development. If the proportion of self-employed workers without hired employees is sizeable, it may be indicative of a large agriculture sector and low growth in the formal economy.

Employment by sector

The indicator for employment by sector divides employment into three broad groupings of economic activity: agriculture, industry and services. The agriculture sector includes work in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing. The industry sector comprises mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction and work in the public utility sector (electricity, gas and water). The services sector consists of work in wholesale and retail trade, restaurants, hotels, transport, storage and communications, finance, insurance, real estate and business services, community services, social services and personal services.

Part-time workers

The part-time workers indicator focuses on individuals whose working hours total less than "full time". Because there is no agreed international definition of a minimum number of hours that constitute fulltime work, the minimum is determined on a countrywide basis, typically somewhere between 30 and 40 hours a week.

Two measures are included in this indicator: total part-time employment as a proportion of total employment, sometimes referred to as the “part-time employment rate”, and the percentage of the part-time workforce comprised of women. The part-time indicator can be further divided into “voluntary” and “involuntary” part-time. Involuntary part-time workers are those workers who accepted part-time work because they could not find a full-time job.

EXAMPLE

Of the 2,500 persons employed in Neverland, 500 work less than 30 hours per week. Of these, 350 are women.

The part-time employment rate is 20% ($500 \times 100 / 2,500$). Women represent 70% of the part-time workforce ($250 \times 100 / 500$).

There has been rapid growth in part-time work in recent decades in the developed economies. This relates to the increase in the number of women in the labour force market, but also reflects an attempt to introduce labour market flexibility in the changing work organizations within industries and to respond to the growth of the services sector. The shift towards more flexible working arrangements is of concern to policymakers because it is assumed that such working arrangements are less economically secure and less stable than full-time employment.

Hours of work (KILM6)

There are two measurements of working time that create an overall picture of the amount of time that employed persons worldwide devote to work activities. The first measure expresses the hours worked by employed persons per week, while the second measure expresses the hours worked annually per person. The statistics are presented separately for men and women and according to the following hour ranges:

- less than 20 hours worked per week,
- between 20 and 29 hours,
- between 30 and 39 hours,
- 40 hours and over and
- 50 hours and over.

“Excessive” hours of work – over 50 hours per week – may be a concern, as they may indicate that inadequate wages are being earned. Long hours can be voluntary or involuntary (imposed by employers). Overemployment, or the “inadequate employment related to excessive hours”, has been defined as “a situation where persons in employment wanted or sought to work less hours than they did during the reference period, either in the same job or in another job, accepting a corresponding reduction of income”.

Employment in the informal economy

Employment in the informal economy includes all jobs in informal economic enterprises or the employment of persons who, during a given reference period, were employed in an informal enterprise, irrespective of their employment status or whether it was their main or secondary job.

The criteria for informal economy enterprises are as follows:

- They are private unincorporated enterprises, i.e. enterprises owned by individuals or households that do not constitute separate legal entities and for which complete accounts are unavailable that would permit a financial separation of production activities from the other activities of its owner(s).
- All or at least some of the goods or services produced are meant for sale or barter.
- 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 enterprise registration acts, tax laws or social security laws), and/or their employees are not registered.
- They are engaged in non-agricultural activities, including secondary non-agricultural activities of enterprises in the agricultural sector.

Informal employment comprises the total number of informal jobs, whether carried out in formal or informal economy enterprises (or households) during a given reference period. It comprises:

- *Own-account workers and persons employed in their own informal economy enterprises and own-account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for use by their own household*, such as subsistence farming or do-it-yourself construction of one's own dwelling.
- *Contributing family workers*, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal economy enterprises. The informal nature of their jobs is due to the fact that contributing family workers usually do not have explicit or written contracts of employment, and usually their employment is not subject to labour legislation or social security regulation.
- *Employees holding informal jobs*, whether employed by formal or informal economy enterprises or as paid domestic workers. Employees are considered to have informal jobs if their employment relationship is, in law or in practice, not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to employment benefits (i.e. advance notice of dismissal, severance pay, or paid annual or sick leave). Informal jobs can arise due to the non declaration of jobs or employees, and include casual jobs or jobs of a limited short duration, jobs with hours of work or wages below a specified threshold, employment in unincorporated enterprises or by persons in households, jobs where the employee's place of work is outside the premises of the employer's enterprise, and jobs to which labour regulations are not applied or enforced.
- *Members of informal producers' cooperatives*. The informal nature of their jobs is directly related to the informal characteristics of the cooperative to which they belong.

Unemployment rate

The unemployment rate is defined as the quotient resulting from the division of the total number of unemployed persons by the labour force (sum of the total persons employed and unemployed). It is the labour force, or the economically active portion of the population, that serves as the base for this statistic, not the total population.

EXAMPLE

The labour force participation of Neverland is comprised of 4,200 persons (2,500 are employed and 1,700 are unemployed).

The unemployment rate is 40.4% $(1,700 \times 100) / 4,200$.

Unemployed persons are defined as those individuals without work who have sought work in a recent period and are currently available for work. Persons who have not sought work in a recent period but have a future labour market stake (i.e. arrangements for a future job start) also counted as unemployed.

Discouraged workers are persons not currently in the labour market that want to work but do not actively “seek” work because they view their job opportunities as limited, because they have restricted labour mobility, because they face discrimination, or because of structural, social or cultural barriers.¹⁰

The criterion that workers be available for work during a short reference period also excludes many people from the unemployed count. A short availability period tends to exclude those who would need to make personal arrangements before starting work, i.e. to care for children or elderly relatives. Various countries have acknowledged this coverage problem and have extended the “availability” period to two or more weeks following the reference period.

Youth unemployment

The term “youth” refers to persons aged 15 to 24 years and “adult” refers to persons aged 25 years and over. The indicator consists of four distinct measurements, each representing a different aspect of the youth unemployment problem:

- (a) youth unemployment rate (youth unemployment as a percentage of the youth labour force);
- (b) ratio of the youth unemployment rate to the adult unemployment rate;
- (c) youth unemployment as a proportion of total unemployment; and
- (d) youth unemployment as a proportion of the youth population.

EXAMPLE

The total youth population is 2,000. Of these, 1,000 are still in school, 450 are employed and 550 are unemployed.

- The youth unemployment rate is 55% $(550 \times 100 / 550 + 450)$.
- The ratio of youth unemployment to adult unemployment is 2. The adult unemployment rate is 27.3%. 1,700 persons are unemployed and 550 youth are unemployed, so the adult unemployed population is $1,700 - 550 = 1,150$. The adult unemployment rate is 27.3% $(1,150 \times 100 / 4,200)$. The ratio is $50 / 27.3 = 2$.
- The share of youth unemployment as a part of total unemployment is 32.3% $(550 \times 100 / 1,700)$.
- Unemployed youth constitute 27.5% of the total youth population $(550 \times 100 / 2,000)$.

¹⁰The relaxed unemployment rate also includes discouraged workers in the unemployment count. This measure is determined by adding the total number of discouraged workers to the labour force and to the unemployed.

The youth unemployment rate can serve as a useful proxy for the health of the labour market situation facing this group and the analysis of the four indicators above can highlight some of the main characteristics of the youth unemployment problem. For example, in a country where the youth unemployment rate is high and the ratio of the youth unemployment rate to the adult unemployment rate is close to one, it may be concluded that the problem of unemployment is not specific to youth. When both indicators are high, it means that young people suffer more difficulties in finding a job than do adults. The problem of unemployment is unequally distributed when, in addition to a high youth unemployment rate, the proportion of youth unemployment in total unemployment is high. In this case, employment policies might usefully be directed towards easing the entry of young people into the world of work.

Long-term unemployment

The indicator on long-term unemployment looks at the duration of one's unemployment, e.g. the length of time that an unemployed person has been without work and looking for a job. The standard definition of long-term unemployment is unemployment for continuous periods extending for a year or longer (52 weeks and over). The indicator includes two separate measures of long-duration unemployment:

- (a) the long-term unemployment rate – those unemployed for one year or longer as a percentage of the labour force; and
- (b) the incidence of long-term unemployment – those unemployed for one year or longer as a proportion of the total unemployed population.

EXAMPLE

The unemployed population in Neverland is 1,700 people. Of these, 1,200 have been unemployed for a year or longer.

- The long-term unemployment rate is 28.5% ($1,200 \times 100 / 4,200$).
- The incidence of long-term unemployment is 70.5% ($1,200 \times 100 / 1,700$).

While short periods of joblessness are less of a concern, especially when unemployed persons are covered by unemployment insurance schemes, prolonged periods of unemployment bring many undesirable effects, particularly a loss of income and diminishing employability.

High ratios of long-term unemployment indicate serious employment problems for certain groups in the labour market and often slow rate of job creation. Conversely, a high proportion of short-term unemployed persons indicates a high job creation rate with greater turnover and mobility in the labour market. Such generalizations must be made with caution, however, as many factors – including the coverage of unemployment benefit programmes – can influence the relationship between long-term unemployment and the relative job health of a given country. Women tend to have higher unemployment rates than men, including those for long-term unemployment.

Unemployment by educational attainment

This indicator focuses on unemployment among workers categorized by their level of educational attainment. Specifically, the indicator expresses the distribution of a country's total number

of unemployed persons according to five levels of schooling: 1) less than one year, 2) less than primary level, 3) primary level, 4) secondary level, and 5) tertiary level. The categories of educational attainment used in the indicator are conceptually based on the ten levels set forth in the *International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)*.

EXAMPLE

The unemployed population of Neverland is 1,700 people. Of these, 700 have a primary education or less, 800 have completed secondary education, and 200 have a tertiary education.

The share of unemployment by level of educational attainment is

- Primary education: 41.2% ($700 \times 100 / 1,700$);
- Secondary education 47% ($800 \times 100 / 1,700$);
- Tertiary education 11.8% ($200 \times 100 / 1,700$).

This indicator can provide important insights into the relationship between the educational attainment of workers and unemployment, having important implications for both employment and educational policy. If it is confirmed that persons with low education levels are at a higher risk of becoming unemployed, the political reaction may be either to seek to increase education levels or to create more low-skilled occupations.

Alternatively, a higher share of unemployment among persons with higher education could indicate a lack of sufficient professional and high-level technical jobs. In many countries, qualified jobseekers are being forced to accept employment below their skill level. Where the supply of qualified workers outpaces the increase in the number of professional and technical employment opportunities, high levels of skill-related underemployment are inevitable. The presence of highly educated unemployed persons in a country can result in a “brain drain” whereby educated professionals migrate to find better employment opportunities abroad.

Time-related underemployment

This indicator reflects the number of employed persons whose hours of work in the reference period are insufficient in relation to the more desirable employment situation in which the person is willing and available to engage. The international definition of time-related underemployment is based on three criteria: it includes all employed persons who, during a short reference period, were

- a) willing to work additional hours,
- b) available to work additional hours and
- c) had worked less than a threshold relating to working time.

Two time-related underemployment rates are normally used: one gives the number of persons in time-related underemployment as a percentage of the labour force, and the other presents the time-related underemployed as a percentage of total employment.

EXAMPLE

The unemployed population of Neverland is 1,700 people. Of these, 400 are willing and available to work additional hours (they currently work less than 30 hours per week).

- Time-related underemployment in Neverland is 9.5% ($400 \times 100 / 4,200$).
- Underemployed workers represent 23.5% of total unemployment ($400 \times 100 / 1,700$).

To satisfy this criterion, workers should report that they want another job or jobs in addition to their current employment; that they want to replace any of their current jobs with another job or jobs with increased hours of work; that they want to increase the hours of work of any of their current jobs or that they want a combination of these three possibilities. This criterion also encompasses those persons who are actively seeking to work additional hours, using the same definition of job search as in the measurement of unemployment.

Underemployment reflects the underutilization of the productive capacity of the labour force. In order to draw a more complete picture, one needs to examine indicators such as the labour force, employment-to-population ratios, inactivity rates, status in employment, working poverty and labour productivity.

Statistics on time-related underemployment can be useful in analyzing the efficiency of the labour market in terms of the ability of the country to provide full employment for all those who want it. This indicator can thus provide insights for the design, implementation and evaluation of employment and social policies and programmes.

Inactivity rate

Individuals are considered to be outside the labour force, or inactive, if they are neither employed nor unemployed, that is not actively seeking work. When added together, the inactivity rate and the labour force participation rate will equal 100 per cent.

This indicator takes on greater importance if broken down by reason of inactivity (care duties, retirement, disability, pursuing education, belief that no job is available or unwillingness to work), age group and sex.

A subgroup of the inactive labour force comprises discouraged workers. Regardless of the reasons for their being discouraged, these potential workers are generally considered underutilized. The presence of discouraged workers is confirmed if the measured labour force grows as unemployment falls. People not counted as unemployed (because they were not actively searching for work) when few jobs were available may start looking for work when the probability of their finding a job improves. Furthermore, when the number of discouraged workers is high, policymakers may attempt to assist this group by improving job placement services.

Educational attainment and illiteracy

This indicator reflects the levels and distribution of the knowledge and skills of the labour force. The indicator includes two measures pertaining to educational levels (educational attainment of women and men in the labour force and the proportion of young workers aged 25 to 29 years having completed tertiary education), and a third measure estimating illiteracy amongst the youth and adult populations.¹¹

The ability to examine educational levels in relation to occupation and income is useful for policy formulation and for a wide range of economic, social and labour market analyses. Statistics on levels and trends of the educational attainment of the labour force can:

- (a) provide an indication of the capacity of countries to achieve important social and economic goals;
- (b) give insights into the broad skill structure of the labour force;
- (c) highlight the need to promote investments in education for different population groups;
- (d) be used to analyze the influence of skill levels on economic outcomes and the success of different policies in raising the educational level of the workforce;
- (e) give an indication of the degree of inequality in the distribution of educational resources between groups, particularly between men and women; and
- (f) provide an indication of the skills of the existing labour force, with a view to discovering untapped potential.

Growing wage disparities between low-skilled and high-skilled workers in many countries provide strong evidence of the increasing returns on education. The distribution of educational attainment can thereby play a significant role in determining a country's income distribution.

Occupational wage and earning indices

This indicator looks at trends in occupational wages (i.e. wage rates or earnings) by industry group. Wages for individual occupations provide greater insight than do the broad averages covering many occupations within an industry. The wage and earning indices are disaggregated by occupation group and skill level on the basis of the *International Classification of Occupation – ISCO88* (Box 3).

Box 3 Major ISCO groups, descriptions and skill levels

Skill levels	Major group and description
4th (University degree required)	Professionals (2): This group includes occupations whose main tasks require a high level of professional knowledge and experience in the fields of physical and life sciences, social sciences or the humanities. Their main tasks involve increasing the existing stock of knowledge, applying scientific or artistic concepts and theories and teaching about the foregoing.

¹¹ Literacy is defined as the ability to read and write a simple sentence. The estimates are national, based on data collected either through national population censuses or household surveys.

2nd (Secondary education and/or formal training such as on-the-job training and experience, or apprenticeships)	Clerks (4): This includes occupations whose main tasks require the knowledge and experience necessary to organize, store, compute and retrieve information. Their main tasks consist of performing secretarial duties, operating word processors and other office machines, recording and computing numerical data and performing a number of customer-oriented duties.
2nd (Secondary education and/or formal training such as on-the-job training and experience, or apprenticeships)	Service workers and sales workers (5): This group includes occupations whose main tasks require the knowledge and experience necessary to provide personal and protective services, and to sell goods in shops or at markets. The main tasks consist of providing services related to travel, housekeeping, catering, personal care, protection of individuals and property, maintaining law and order, or in the sale of goods in shops or at markets.
2nd (Secondary education and/or formal training such as on-the-job training and experience, or apprenticeships)	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers (6): This group includes occupations whose tasks require the knowledge and experience to produce farm, forestry and fishery products. Their main tasks consist of growing crops, breeding or hunting animals, conserving and exploiting forests, and selling products to purchasers or resellers.
2nd (Secondary education and/or formal training such as on-the-job training and experience, or apprenticeships)	Craft and related trades workers (7): This group includes occupations whose tasks require the knowledge and experience of skilled trades or handicrafts which involve an understanding of materials and tools to be used and knowledge of all stages of the production process, including the characteristics and use of the final product. Their main tasks consist of extracting raw materials, constructing buildings and making various products as well as handicraft goods.
2nd (Secondary education and/or formal training such as on-the-job training and experience, or apprenticeships)	Plant and machine operators and assemblers (8): This group includes occupations whose main tasks require the knowledge and experience necessary to operate and monitor large scale, and often automated, industrial machinery and equipment. Their main tasks consist of operating and monitoring mining, processing and production machinery and equipment, driving vehicles, driving and operating mobile plant, or assembling products.
1st (Primary school education)	Elementary occupations (9): This group covers occupations that require the knowledge and experience necessary to perform simple and routine tasks involving the use of hand-held tools and in some cases considerable physical effort with limited personal initiative or judgement. Their main tasks can involve informally selling goods, watching and protecting property, cleaning and washing, working as labourers in mining, agriculture, fishing, construction and manufacturing.

Labour productivity and unit labour cost indicators

Productivity represents the amount of output per unit of input. Output is measured as “value added”, which is the total production value minus the value of intermediate inputs such as raw materials, semi-finished products, services purchased and energy inputs. Value added – the “gross domestic product” (GDP) in the national accounts – represents the compensation for the input of services from capital (including depreciation) and labour directly engaged in production.

The GDP concepts for the aggregate economy are expressed in market prices that reflect the market value of the output produced. The measure is expressed in terms of Purchasing Power Parity (PPP), which is the amount of a country's currency that is required to purchase a standard set of goods and services worth one US dollar.

An example of the productivity levels for Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU countries) and CIS countries from 1996 to 2006 is presented below.

	1996	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Productivity levels (value added per person employed, constant 2000 US\$ at PPP)	11787	14215	15281	16148	17088	18121
Annual change in productivity (%)	4,0	7,5	5,7	5,8	6,0	5,8

Unit labour costs are defined as the average cost of labour per unit of output and are calculated as the ratio of total labour costs to real output. Total labour compensation includes not only gross wages and salaries of employees but other labour costs that are paid by employers, including employers' contributions to social security and pension schemes.

In addition to employees' compensation, the estimated labour costs of the self-employed are included when possible, included with the assumption that the labour compensation of one self-employed person equals that of one employee.

Labour productivity estimates can be used to develop and monitor the effects of labour market policies. Unit labour costs represent a direct link between productivity and the cost of labour used in generating output. On the one hand, a rise in an economy's unit labour cost represents an increased reward for labour contributions to output. On the other hand, however, a rise in labour costs greater than the rise in labour productivity may indicate weaknesses in a country's competitiveness if other costs are not adjusted in compensation. As a competitiveness indicator, unit labour costs are particularly relevant for the manufacturing industry, where many internationally tradable products are produced.

Poverty, working poor and income distribution indicators (KILM 20)

The indicators used for monitoring poverty reduction and progress toward the first UN Millennium Development Goal (MDG) estimate the size of the population living below the international poverty lines of US\$1 and US\$2 a day. This is supplemented by other poverty measures, including estimates of the population living below a nationally defined poverty line.

The *working poor* are defined as individuals who are working but fall below an accepted poverty line. The ILO calculates upper- and lower-bound estimates of the working poor. Upper bound estimates are calculated using the equation $working\ poor = poverty\ rate * population$. Lower-bound estimates of the working poor are calculated using the equation $working\ poor = poverty\ rate * labour\ force$.

The shares of the working poor in Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU countries) and CIS countries from 1996 to 2006 are displayed below.

	1996	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
US\$1 working poor share in total employment (%)	7,5	3,4	3,1	2,8	2,2	1,9
US\$2 working poor share in total employment (%)	32,8	27,2	25,0	23,8	22,7	21,7

Because of the multiple dimensions of poverty, there are various approaches to measuring it. The three most common approaches are described below.

1. One common approach is to analyze information on personal consumption expenditure and, in a few cases, personal income.
2. A second approach focuses on “basic needs” and reflects deprivation in terms of material requirements for the fulfilment of minimal human needs, including food and employment. The concept takes into account the need for basic health care and education, as well as essential services such as access to safe water. The concept of the Human Poverty Index (HPI), developed by the UNDP, is a composite index that combines three dimensions: limitations on life expectancy, illiteracy and overall standard of living.
3. The third approach, which combines elements of the two previous approaches, relates to the capabilities required for a person to function in a particular society. This approach covers a wide range of capabilities, varying from the capability of being well nourished to more complex social achievements, such as the capability of gaining computer literacy. Poverty is defined in terms of being out of the societal mainstream, notably outside the labour market. Poverty analyses from this angle have led to the development of the concept of “social exclusion”.

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