

GENDER EQUALITY AND THE LABOR MARKET

Cambodia, Kazakhstan and the Philippines





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Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines

Asian Development Bank

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6 ADB Avenue, Mandaluyong City

1550 Metro Manila, Philippines

Tel +63 2 632 4444

Fax +63 2 636 2444

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Abbreviations

ADB	–	Asian Development Bank
ASEAN	–	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BFC	–	Better Factories Cambodia
BPO	–	business process outsourcing
CEDAW	–	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DMC	–	developing member country
DOLE	–	Department of Labor and Employment
ECCD	–	early childhood care and development
FAO	–	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GAD	–	gender and development
GDP	–	gross domestic product
GMAP	–	gender mainstreaming action plan
GREAT	–	Gender-Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of Women
ILO	–	International Labour Organization
LFPR	–	labor force participation rate
MDG	–	Millennium Development Goal
MOLVT	–	Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training
MOWA	–	Ministry of Women's Affairs
MSMEs	–	micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises
NEA	–	National Employment Agency
NGO	–	nongovernment organization
NSDP	–	national strategic development plan
NSPS	–	national social protection strategy
NWTF	–	Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation
PCW	–	Philippine Commission on Women
PDP	–	Philippines Development Plan
PESO	–	public employment service office
PLEP	–	Philippine Labor and Employment Plan
SMEs	–	small and medium-sized enterprises
TESDA	–	Technical Education and Skills Development Authority
TVET	–	technical and vocational education and training
UNDP	–	United Nations Development Programme
WRTS	–	wholesale and retail trade and services

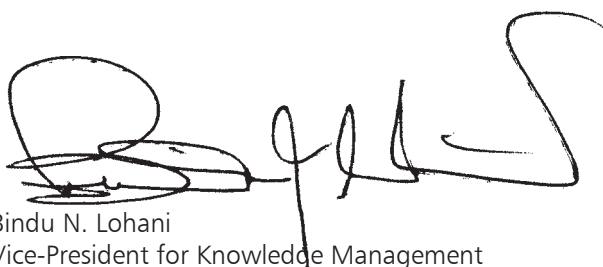
Foreword

I ncreasing job opportunities and decent work for women are essential for inclusive growth, and they are vital for advancing economic and social development in a country. This approach to attaining economic and social wealth is based on reliable academic and statistical evidence and is increasingly accepted by international and national financial and development organizations across the globe, including in Asia. However, attitudes toward providing decent work to men and women alike, irrespective of their ethnic origin and class, continue to be ambiguous, complex, and controversial, because the issue touches on deeply felt societal values in interpersonal relations, culture, religion, economics, and politics.

In Asia, as in other parts of the world, it is mostly women who continue to experience the greatest disadvantages resulting from gender inequalities and entrenched discrimination in work and in life. The economic and social contributions made by women in the family, the workplace, and society tend to be devalued. There are, however, many strategies which have been developed to counter gender discrimination and promote equality for working men and women through legislation and social and economic policies to reverse the unequal labor market outcomes for women.

In order to document the nature and extent of gender inequalities in the labor market, as well as to capture and share these promising initiatives, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) initiated studies in three countries—Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines—to identify how these countries promote gender equality in their labor markets. In addition, in view of the interest in sharing good practices in developing member countries, ADB, in cooperation with the International Labour Office in Bangkok, supported the production of two global good practice reports—one on legislation and legal practices and the other on economic and social policy practices—as well as updates for Cambodia and the Philippines.

The product of this combined project is five reports. The two global reports, authored by Robyn Layton and Fiona MacPhail, illustrate how the combination of good practices in law and social and economic policies working together can improve equitable employment opportunities, remuneration, and treatment for women and men at work. It is important for social justice and is also smart economics. Another report, also authored by Robyn Layton and Fiona MacPhail, analyzes and makes recommendations for gender equality in the labor market in Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines. The series concludes with two reports on gender equality in the labor market, focused on the situation in Cambodia and the Philippines, to support the development of decent work and gender equality good practices in these countries.



Bindu N. Lohani
Vice-President for Knowledge Management
and Sustainable Development
Regional and Sustainable Development Department
Asian Development Bank

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Executive Summary

This report is drawn from national studies on Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines. It comprises a gendered analysis of labor markets, policies, and legislation in each of three developing member countries (DMCs) of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and provides recommendations for legislation and policies that have the potential to expand or improve employment and work opportunities for women in specific sectors.

The present report is a desk review that includes good practice examples from each DMC and case studies in certain industrial sectors, and refers to two separately published global good practice reviews: one on social and economic policy and the other on legislation.¹

Major Themes of Gender Inequality and Constraints on Women in the Market

Attaining inclusive growth requires expanding employment opportunities and decent work outcomes for women to promote gender equality in labor markets. However, economic growth in these DMCs has not translated into sufficient employment growth, and there has been little improvement in gender equality in the labor market in either Cambodia or the Philippines, as measured by the share of women in waged employment in the nonagriculture sector. In the three DMCs discussed here, the estimated proportion of women's annual earnings to men's annual earnings stands at less than 71%.

Generally speaking, therefore, employment growth has not contributed to gender equality in the labor market. Employment growth alone, however, is not sufficient to judge inclusive growth, especially in low-income countries where there is significant underemployment and a large informal employment sector. Gender inequality in the labor market is ascertained by reference to seven gender gaps (or deficits for women): the labor force participation rate (LFPR), human capital, the unpaid domestic and care work burden, employment rate, share of vulnerable employment, decent work, and social protection. An assessment of the labor market reveals that although some gender gaps have been reduced, women in each DMC still suffer persistent gender deficits—although not necessarily the same deficit or to the same extent in each DMC.

Labor Force Participation Rate Gender Gap

Some progress has been made in reducing the gap between men and women in the LFPR in Kazakhstan and the Philippines. The lowest LFPR gender gap is 7.5 percentage points in Cambodia, and the gap is 10.7 percentage points in Kazakhstan but stands at 28.5 percentage points in the Philippines. The lower women's LFPR compared to that of men arises from inferior employment and decent work opportunities, human capital differences, and unpaid domestic labor and care constraints. In the Philippines, in particular, the very low LFPR of women, combined with the very high national population, represents a substantial underutilization of women's labor in the paid labor market.

There has been little improvement in gender equality in the labor market in either Cambodia or the Philippines, as measured by the share of women in waged employment in the nonagriculture sector

¹ See Asian Development Bank (ADB) and International Labour Organization (ILO). 2013. *Good Global Economic and Social Practices to Promote Gender Equality in the Labor Market*. www.adb.org/gender; ADB and ILO. 2013. *Good Global Legal Practices to Promote Gender Equality in the Labor Market*. www.adb.org/gender

Human Capital Gender Gap

A gender gap in human capital exists in varying degrees in all three DMCs, but it is most evident in Cambodia, where there are pronounced quantitative differences between men and women in terms of literacy and total years of schooling. In Kazakhstan and the Philippines, the differences are qualitative and reflect differences in the type of schooling; it takes the form of gender segregation in types of training and education. Both types of human capital gap constrain women's participation in the labor market and contribute to the gender gap in decent work.

Unpaid Domestic and Care Work Gender Gap

There is a strong gendered division of domestic labor, with women having primary responsibility for household and care work and a higher total work burden relative to men

There is a strong gendered division of domestic labor, with women having primary responsibility for household and care work and a higher total work burden relative to men. In Cambodia, the unpaid work gap is 3.5 hours per day; in Kazakhstan, it is about 2.7 hours per day; and in the Philippines, women provide 84% of the total household time allocated to child care. Gendered social norms contribute to women having greater responsibility for and time commitments to domestic and care work, and this has been slow to change, despite women's increased participation in paid work. Relatively high fertility rates in all three DMCs continue to demand women's unpaid labor, especially given the low provision of child care services.

Employment Rate Gender Gap

Women have lower employment rates than men, which gives rise to an employment rate gender gap in all three DMCs. Similar to the LFPR gap, the employment rate gender gap is particularly pronounced in the Philippines; in 2012, the employment rate gender gap stood at 26.2 percentage points. There has been a slight decline in the employment rate gender gap in Kazakhstan; in 2012, the gap was 11.6 percentage points. In Cambodia, however, the gender employment rate gap has increased to 7.5 percentage points due to the greater increase in the employment of men relative to women.

Vulnerable Employment Gender Gap

The gender gap in share of vulnerable employment (the sum of own-account and unpaid contributing family workers) is highest in Cambodia (at 8.7 percentage points), and the share of vulnerable employment is very high for both men and women. The level of vulnerable employment in the Philippines and Kazakhstan is lower; the gender gap is 5.5 percentage points in the Philippines and 2.4 percentage points in Kazakhstan. Women not only are more likely to be in vulnerable employment but also are more likely to fall in the category of unpaid contributing family workers, which offers the fewest opportunities for decent work.

Decent Work Gender Gap

"Decent work" includes a number of dimensions, such as productive employment, rights at work, security of work, social protection, and social dialogue. The decent work gender gap exists partly because women have less access than men to wage employment. One major indicator of productive employment and decent work is the level of remuneration. Low wage work is generally indicative of a lack of productive employment and is more prevalent among women in all three DMCs, particularly in Cambodia. In the Philippines, the average daily basic pay, in real terms, has declined for both women and men. There is a pronounced gender wage gap (the difference between the average wage for men and the average wage for women, expressed as a percentage of the average wage for men) in Cambodia and Kazakhstan. The gender wage gap, unadjusted for gender differences in human capital, is 32% in Kazakhstan and 27% in Cambodia. Adjusted for gender differences in human capital, the gender wage gap in the Philippines is between 23% and 30%.

Social Protection Gender Gap

A gender gap in social protection, particularly access to social insurance such as pensions, exists in all three DMCs. This arises largely because women have less access to formal wage employment.

In summary, despite a decline in the gender gap in human capital (in Cambodia) and participation (in Kazakhstan and the Philippines), the gender gap in productive and decent work persists and in some cases has increased. The gender wage gap in all three DMCs has a profound and compounding effect on women in the labor market, not only because they are subject to the deficits of employment, more vulnerable work, and the unpaid work burden, but also because they are paid at a lower rate than men in many sectors even when they do find work.

Addressing Challenges and Reducing Constraints on Women in the Labor Market

The common constraints on women in the labor market in each DMC are the domestic work and care burden and women's more limited access to resources, including education, training, government services, credit, and financial services. Women also face pervasive discrimination, including lack of social protection, in most aspects of employment and work.

The approach to these challenges will be different in each country, but there are common elements. For instance, all three DMCs face the task of generating employment growth, reducing vulnerable employment, and improving decent work opportunities. This will require broad macroeconomic responses to expand employment opportunities as well as policies and legislation to improve decent work, social protection, and active labor market support.

The use of macroeconomic policies to directly expand employment has been limited, and gendered impacts remain underexplored

Policies

The three DMCs examined in this report do not recognize gender equality as a normative macroeconomic goal in their national development plans. The use of macroeconomic policies to directly expand employment has been limited, and gendered impacts remain underexplored. By contrast, trade policies have been linked with employment, and Cambodia and the Philippines have identified employment targets or indicators.

There is a need for country-specific analyses of the gendered impacts of fiscal and monetary policy, along with gender-sensitive and transformative program design and implementation. Reducing women's unpaid domestic and care work is an important strategy to facilitate the participation of women on more equal terms with men in the labor market. This includes developing a child care services policy. Similarly, the promotion of the export of goods and services should be linked with analysis of gendered employment effects; such analysis should be complemented with an employment analysis of import policies.

There are opportunities to build upon some existing positive elements. In the Philippines, for instance, an employment-led growth model is envisaged and employment targets are set, though they are not sex-disaggregated. Cambodia, with the support of the International Labour Organization (ILO), is discussing a national employment plan to address the importance of employment and to promote employment and decent work. It is recommended that increased employment be recognized as a macroeconomic goal and that gender-equitable targets be set and monitored.

Active Labor Market Supports

Two active labor support policies include training and skills development and social protection. First, each country can increase the engagement of women in relevant technical and vocational

education and training (TVET) programs, linking these to the labor market and ensuring that women have access to training in nontraditional fields. This requires increased connection with industry and employer groups and the development of public–private partnerships, including links with public and private employment agencies. Each stage should involve women and should specifically target their needs before they take up TVET programs. Furthermore, young women frequently require specific encouragement to undertake nontraditional curriculum studies that will open up future employment opportunities on an equal basis with men. Such training programs should be accompanied by measures to reduce discrimination against hiring women in nontraditional occupations and industries.

Second, each country has very different social insurance schemes and levels of economic development, but the common gap is the lack of social security coverage for the informal sector, which predominantly affects women. Cambodia, with the assistance of the ILO, recently developed a national social protection strategy (NSPS) for the poor and vulnerable. The core vision of that strategy is to provide effective social safety nets and sustainable, affordable social security for the poor and vulnerable. Two of the five NSPS objectives specifically mention women. The Government of Kazakhstan and the Government of the Philippines may find a similar approach helpful in devising coverage for the informal sector in their respective countries.

Legislation and Mechanisms

Young women frequently require specific encouragement to undertake nontraditional curriculum studies that will open up future employment opportunities on an equal basis with men

To varying degrees, each of these DMCs includes a guarantee of equality and nondiscrimination in their constitutions and labor legislation, but further improvements are required. Cambodia, for instance, needs to clarify its definition of discrimination. In Kazakhstan, the definitions are contained in a policy document, creating uncertainty about its use in interpreting legislation. Furthermore, neither Cambodia nor Kazakhstan has legislation providing for temporary special measures, and the prohibition of sexual harassment must be made explicit in these two DMCs.

Each country should amend its legislation to properly enact the concept of equal remuneration for work of equal value, which is of relevance to reducing the wage gap. It is recommended that each DMC take steps to develop and implement an independent minimum wage–setting process that is transparent, applies objective criteria, and includes the involvement of social partners.

Limiting the use of multiple short-term contracts is good legislative practice to address one important aspect of precarious work, a problem in each DMC.

Each country must provide effective, simple, and well-publicized mechanisms to encourage women to make complaints and seek redress for discrimination and sexual harassment in their working environments. Women’s voices need to be heard on these issues, and women’s participation through trade unions and women’s collectives and organizations should be encouraged. Each DMC also needs to significantly improve the effectiveness and coverage of the labor inspectorate to address and ensure implementation of decent working conditions. There are structural issues and funding challenges, particularly in Cambodia. Initiatives to address these issues include developing public–private partnerships to achieve improved labor inspection and using social dialogue.

Gender Mainstreaming, Gender Targets, and Gender Action Plans

Men and women face different constraints on obtaining productive employment, decent work, and/or government services. Because women are the most disadvantaged and suffer the most deficits, strategies to address their specific constraints must be developed. Such strategies include gender mainstreaming and gender-specific programs. The mechanisms include sex-disaggregated data, targets (e.g., quotas for women in services received, employment targets, and targets for beneficiaries of services), gender budgets, and opportunities for women to participate in planning for gender equality in the civil service, nongovernment organizations (NGOs), and the private sector.

Gender mainstreaming plans and sex-disaggregated target setting in Cambodia and gender budgeting and auditing in the Philippines are good examples of policy innovation. These could be expanded and monitored more closely to ensure implementation. Continued expansion of target setting in sector policies is recommended in Cambodia and could also be introduced in Kazakhstan and the Philippines. Lack of effective implementation is a common problem in each of these DMCs, and setting explicit targets and monitoring and assessing outcomes is one of the most effective ways to reduce gender inequality.

Expanding and Improving Decent Work Opportunities for Women

This report recommends expanding employment and decent work opportunities for women in the agriculture, industrial, manufacturing, and services sectors, as well as in entrepreneurship in each of the DMCs under discussion.

Agriculture

Agriculture is one of the largest sectors of women's employment in the three DMCs and is identified as a priority for development and export, with food security being an important goal in each DMC. Despite ongoing agrarian reform, women own less land in their own name than men and are disadvantaged through inheritance laws, land titling systems, and their ability to purchase land. Women are more likely than men to be responsible for subsistence crops and to lack access to cash crops and the resulting income. Furthermore, women receive less agriculture extension training and less credit and have lower levels of participation in farmers' organizations. In addition to reducing gender-specific constraints in agriculture, there also are opportunities to support women's paid work in processing and value-added production.

Despite ongoing agrarian reform, women own less land in their own name than men and are disadvantaged through inheritance laws, land titling systems, and their ability to purchase land

The overarching agriculture policies and plans do not address the situation of women in the sector. Although there are references to gender issues in a number of plans and strategies in the Philippines and gender mainstreaming action plans in Cambodia, such plans do not appear to exist in Kazakhstan. It is recommended that each DMC develop an overarching agriculture strategy to reduce constraints on women, increase women's productivity and incomes, and ensure their inclusion in the transition from subsistence to commercial agriculture. Improving the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data in each DMC is an essential prerequisite, enabling the mapping of where women work, the products they produce, and their roles in production. Case studies and examples of good practices are identified in this report.

Manufacturing and Industry

Each of the three DMCs has an export-oriented development strategy that is designed to promote economic growth through industrial production, manufacturing, and employment while also taking advantage of resource endowments and creating supportive policies and laws.

In the Philippines, women's share of manufacturing employment has declined over the previous decade, along with a decline in absolute employment numbers. However, the past few years have shown a slight increase in absolute numbers, which is potentially indicative of a turnaround in the sector's employment prospects. Most manufacturing is conducted in the economic zones, and the percentage of women working in those zones is estimated to be 64%. The percentage may be even higher in industries such as electronics and apparel. The overarching manufacturing policies are essentially gender-blind, and the government appears to be crafting an integrated manufacturing plan to increase growth and diversification. Such a plan is needed to ensure identification of subsectors and products that can enhance women's employment and that also make provisions to include rural women. Women's involvement and interests should be factored into all stages of the development of such a plan.

In Cambodia, export-led development has occurred primarily in manufacturing, specifically in the garment, textiles, and footwear subsectors. Cambodia's manufacturing sector is characterized by low labor productivity and infrastructure deficits. The country's comparative advantage arises from its cheap and abundant workforce of young women, who compose the overwhelming majority of the labor force. Although there have been improvements in decent work, assisted by the Better Factories Cambodia program, some challenges remain. Ensuring the industry's longer-term economic viability requires continued growth and diversification, which must be addressed through policy and in cooperation with private industry. Cambodia needs to move up the value chain in the global garment industry, which will require industry restructuring, skills development, and social protection. This report provides recommendations on ways to achieve such a move through skills training, promotional opportunities, and broader extension of the Better Factories Cambodia program within the industry.

The fast-growing petroleum and mining sector is vital to Kazakhstan's economy, but women are not sharing in those increased employment opportunities

The fast-growing petroleum and mining sector is vital to Kazakhstan's economy, but women are not sharing in those increased employment opportunities. Women are only minimally represented in the sector and are particularly absent from the higher paying jobs in those industries. Not only are there legal prohibitions against women working in certain jobs but also few women possess the university training that would qualify them for these positions in engineering and industrial management. The government should adopt specific gender policies and strategies to target employment for women in these industries, including providing the necessary educational, training, and vocational skills. Kazakhstan also identifies light industry as one of its 16 priorities. One potential project that could provide increased employment for Kazakh women involves a clustered development of wool production and garment making. This development should also incorporate decent work standards.

Services

The services sector is large and heterogeneous in productivity, incomes, and decent work. The wholesale and retail trade and services (WRTS) sector accounts for a large share of women's employment in all three DMCs and typically comprises self-employed workers and microenterprises that sell food and household goods or repair vehicles. Women are overrepresented in the sector, accounting for approximately 60% of all WRTS workers in all three DMCs.

Other service subsectors that offer present and future opportunities to expand and advance women's employment include public sector employment, tourism, and business process outsourcing (BPO) in the Philippines. Public sector-related employment typically offers better opportunities for decent work and social protection than private sector employment. There are, however, three main constraints faced by women. First, women have less access to public sector employment. This is most evident in Cambodia, where the female share of employment in public administration is only 13%. Second, women have less access to higher-level occupations within the public sector. For example, in Kazakhstan, there is a high-level occupation gender wage gap of 20%. Third, women are crowded into lower wage parts of public services employment, such as the education and health subsectors, where wages are relatively low. Addressing such gaps in each DMC will provide opportunities for expanded employment and decent work in the public sector. Constraints on women should be addressed through the setting of minimum targets and timelines, implementing specific strategies to encourage women to apply for work, and developing special programs to enable women to access higher-paid work and more senior management positions.

Tourism is already a priority for each of the three DMCs but there are further opportunities to increase the gender responsiveness of the tourism strategies. Cambodia appears to be the only DMC to include a gender mainstreaming action plan as part of its tourism strategy. Tourism provides employment opportunities for women at a number of different occupational levels, and ecotourism in particular could provide significant opportunities for rural women. Important policy issues to be addressed include the effects of tourism on the physical environment and

the social and cultural structure of the country, and such risks as an increase in sex tourism and trafficking of women and girls. These issues require a combination of legislation and policies and women should be involved at all stages of their development. In addition, policies should incorporate focused action plans that include targets for the participation of women across all subsectors of tourism and related sectors.

Finally, the BPO sector has experienced rapid growth over the past decade, although it only accounts for about 1.7% of total employment in the Philippines. Nonetheless, the sector is an important source of employment for college-educated women. Further expansion of employment and improvement of decent work opportunities for women in the BPO sector will require ensuring that women obtain appropriate skills across all categories of present and future BPO activities; introducing measures to increase the entry of women into areas presently dominated by men, such as hardware and software technology-based jobs; examining employment practices and the reasons for pay differentials among men and women in various jobs; and enhancing safety and working conditions.

Entrepreneurship

Each of the three DMCs has policies that take account of gender issues in relation to entrepreneurship, albeit in differing ways. When setting up a business, women have different motivations and requirements than men. For instance, women need access to improved microcredit programs and can benefit from improved access to information, training, and outreach services to build their capacity to start up their businesses and upgrade them over time. Measures to support and facilitate women upgrading their businesses and employment circumstances are necessary to encourage a progressive integration of rural women's businesses into the formal economy. This report makes recommendations in this area for each DMC, particularly with relation to women in rural areas, and highlights examples of good practice.

Women need access to improved microcredit programs and can benefit from improved access to information, training, and outreach services to build their capacity to start up their businesses and upgrade them over time

Introduction

This gender equality and labor market report identifies key aspects drawn from the national reports and other secondary literature and discusses them in the context of two global good practice reviews: one on economic and social policy and one on legislation.¹ The two global good practice reviews are intrinsic to the analysis and recommendations made in this report.

Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines—three of the Asian Development Bank’s (ADB) developing member countries (DMCs)—vary considerably in their economic, social, and political development as well as in their cultural context and their advances in gender equality. A brief background overview of their historical context and gender advancement is presented here.

Kazakhstan

Kazakhstan differs notably from the other two DMCs under examination in terms of its geography and culture. In contrast to Cambodia and the Philippines, which are located in Southeast Asia and are members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Kazakhstan is a Central Asian republic. The economic and political situation in Kazakhstan reflects its transition to independence and a free market economy following the collapse of the Soviet Union and Kazakhstan’s formal recognition as an independent state on 25 December 1991. Kazakhstan has high levels of foreign direct investment and a large export sector, as a consequence of its oil and gas industry, which has led to a sustained period of economic growth. It is now an upper-middle-income country and has a higher per capita income than Cambodia, the Philippines, or the other Central Asian republics.

Since independence, Kazakhstan has made progress toward achieving gender equality. The laws of Kazakhstan widely recognize the principle of nondiscrimination based on gender, including recognition in the constitution and in the labor code. Kazakhstan has also made progress in improving the legal framework for the prevention and elimination of violence against women, such as ratifying the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) on 29 June 1998 and joining its Optional Protocol on 4 July 2001. Kazakhstan has also enacted the Law on Combating Domestic Violence, which provides comprehensive measures for the prevention of physical, psychological, sexual, or economic violence against women and guarantees special social services for victims of violence. Kazakhstan has also implemented gender equality policies in public administration.

The number of women in decision-making positions also has progressively increased. At the beginning of 2010 there were 19 women in the Mazhilis, the lower house of the bicameral parliament of Kazakhstan, representing 18% of the total number of Mazhilis members (Government of Kazakhstan and UN Country Team 2010).

Cambodia

Cambodia is also a country in transition, a result of 3 decades of internal violence encompassing the Khmer Rouge regime (1975–1979), a period of Viet Nam–backed socialist rule (1979–1989),

Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines ... vary considerably in their economic, social, and political development as well as in their cultural context and their advances in gender equality

¹ See Asian Development Bank and International Labour Organization (2013a and 2013b).

and civil conflict until the arrival of the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia in 1992. More than 2 million people died during the Khmer Rouge period, and this has had long-term implications for population demographics of age, sex, education, literacy, and employment.

Traditional attitudes toward women in Cambodia have a significant effect on the labor market. Women traditionally have been considered of lower status than men, and this has led to gender inequality, which perpetuates disparities in employment. Nonetheless, gender relations in Cambodia are undergoing significant change. Although the culturally defined behavioral norms for women constrain their opportunities outside of the household, economic, social, and political developments are opening up new opportunities for women. The Constitution of 1993 clearly reflects the principle of gender equality, and Cambodia is a signatory to several international agreements, including CEDAW. The 1997 labor code recognizes gender-specific concerns, affords women rights in employment and inheritance laws, and seeks to counter human trafficking.

Significant progress has been achieved in women's representation in elected positions, both in local communities and in the national assembly. Women's representation in deputy provincial governor and deputy secretary of state positions has exceeded current or final gender targets, although women's representation in top decision-making positions, such as provincial governor, secretary of state, or minister, needs to be increased.

The Philippines

Women traditionally have been considered of lower status than men, and this has led to gender inequality, which perpetuates disparities in employment

The Philippines, in contrast to the other two DMCs, is not a country in transition. It has been a self-governing commonwealth state since 1935 and formally attained independence as a republic in 1946. It is also different geographically; it comprises an archipelago of 7,107 islands rather than a single landmass. This geographic composition makes the Philippines highly challenging to administer and complicates the provision of infrastructure, services, and programs. It also contributes to regional inequalities and differential employment and work opportunities. The Philippines also has a far larger population than the other two DMCs under examination. Its estimated population of just under 100 million makes the Philippines the world's 12th most populous country.

The Philippines has a proud tradition of gender advancement. It was one of the first republics in Asia to grant women's suffrage and has ratified several international agreements, including CEDAW. In 1987, the government introduced a constitution that legislatively affirmed women's equality with men. The Philippines Development Plan for Women also was developed in 1987, followed by the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995–2025 as well as the Framework Plan for Women. The Philippines has many good practice policies and objectives and has passed gender-sensitive legislation; however, it continues to struggle to operationalize these through specific, targeted actions to deliver real outcomes for women.

The Philippines has shown improvement in women's political participation, and women are increasingly visible as leaders and decision makers. There have been two women presidents and one woman vice president. In the 2010 elections, two women were reelected as senators, and the number of women in the House of Representatives increased from 21 in 1995 to 45 in 2007. Locally, there was a steady increase in the number of women elected to city and municipal governments, particularly as governors, vice mayors, and councilors.

Common Themes and Challenges

Notwithstanding the many differences among these three DMCs, each country has advanced in varying degrees toward increasingly inclusive economic growth and gender awareness to improve women's employment. The outstanding common characteristic of these DMCs is that each has an extensive rural population and relies on the agriculture sector for employment, economic growth, exports, and food security. The agriculture sector is a significant source of employment for women and is important for poverty reduction in rural areas. Agriculture is the largest sector for women's employment in Cambodia (75%) and Kazakhstan (26%), and the second-largest sector in the Philippines (22%). Despite the significance of agriculture in all three DMCs, few farmers, particularly women farmers, have access to high-quality inputs, credit, or information on farming techniques and markets.

Common challenges for women in these countries include the domestic work and care burden; limited access to resources, including credit and financial services; inadequate education and training programs; lack of government services; disadvantages in social protection coverage; and pervasive discrimination in most aspects of employment and work. Given the differences among the DMCs in economic development, trade patterns, and gender inequality, strategies to promote gender equality for inclusive growth in the labor market must reflect specific historical and current conditions.

Despite the significance of agriculture in all three developing member countries, few farmers, particularly women farmers, have access to high-quality inputs, credit, or information on farming techniques and markets

Structure of the Report

The present report is divided into five sections. Following this brief introduction and background on the three countries and their differing characteristics, Section II presents a gendered analysis of employment and inclusive growth in each country. Section III is a gendered analysis of policy in each country, covering macroeconomic policy, employment policy, sector policies, and labor market supports, with reference to global good practices. Section IV discusses legislative frameworks and laws from a gendered perspective. Finally, Section V offers recommendations as to policies and laws to further promote and enhance women's work in the DMCs by reference to global good practices.



Gendered Employment and Inclusive Growth

Review of Key Terms

Gender equitable employment and decent work are necessary for achieving gender equal and inclusive growth. Key terms are explained below:

The International Monetary Fund argues that gender matters for efficiency reasons, because of the “misallocation of women’s labor as a result of discrimination, social norms, of lack of opportunity results in economic losses”

Inclusive growth, as defined by ADB, means “raising the pace of growth and enlarging the size of the economy, while leveling the playing field for investment and increasing productive employment opportunities, as well as ensuring fair access to them. It allows every section of the society to participate in and contribute to the growth process equally, irrespective of their circumstances” (ADB 2011a; 2011b, 4). ADB’s inclusive growth strategy comprises three elements: sustained growth and productive employment, social inclusion and, equal access to economic opportunity and social safety nets (ADB 2012c). Thus, inclusive growth requires an expansion of productive employment and decent work, and labor markets must be rebalanced to ensure that women gain greater benefits from employment opportunities.

Many international agencies and national governments recognize the contribution of gender-equitable employment to inclusive growth (ADB and ILO 2011; ILO 2009a). Gender-inclusive growth requires that productive employment and decent work increase and that the gender gap declines across a range of employment-related indicators. According to the ILO, this means promoting gender equality in the labor market toward achieving equality of opportunity and treatment, and equal remuneration for work of equal value.

The International Monetary Fund (2013, 52) argues that gender matters for efficiency reasons, because of the “misallocation of women’s labor as a result of discrimination, social norms, of lack of opportunity results in economic losses.” The importance of productive employment, decent work, and gender equality in the labor market is also reflected in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people, was added in 2008 to measure progress toward MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Gender-specific education and employment targets are included to measure MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women. Key indicators for MDG 3 are the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education; the share of women in wage employment in the nonagriculture sector; and the proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament (UNDP 2008c).

Decent work, as defined by the ILO, “involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men” (ILO, Decent Work). Decent work requires consideration not only of levels of remuneration but also of: rights at work security in work; conditions of

work; organization, representation, and voice; and patterns of equality and inclusion (Rodgers 2008, 66). Indicators to measure these decent work dimensions have been proposed, but data limitations still curtail concrete analysis of decent work patterns.²

Gender equality in the labor market requires going beyond the counting of wage employment to an analysis of decent work for men and women.³ Women are often subject to vulnerabilities by working in jobs that suffer from “decent work deficits.” Women are likely to be engaged in vulnerable employment (defined as own-account work and unpaid contributing family work) that is characterized by low productivity (return for labor), drudgery (in terms of working hours and working conditions), and lack of access to social protection and basic workers’ rights (Otoabe 2011, 9). Gender inequality in the labor market is indicated by not only the higher share of women in vulnerable employment but also the gender wage gaps, and occupational and industrial segregation by sex. Despite increases in women’s labor force participation rates and human capital, women’s share of vulnerable employment has increased in many countries, indicating that without good policies and special measures to close gender gaps, gender equality in the labor market will persist. Thus, promoting gender equality in the labor market encompasses the whole decent work spectrum, and is geared toward achieving equality in labor market outcomes for men and women.

High quality employment is associated with high wages, high employment security, good work-life balance, and high social protection (ADB 2011e, 6). A lack of data precludes direct measurement of employment quality; therefore, ADB uses employment status or class of worker data as a proxy. Wage and salary workers are viewed as having high-quality jobs, whereas own-account and unpaid contributing family workers are considered to have lower quality jobs. This is only a proxy, because some wage workers, particularly those in small enterprises, will not have benefits, social security, or job security, and some own-account workers will have high and stable incomes. ADB’s measurement of low-quality jobs is consistent with the ILO definition and measurement of vulnerable employment, which is defined as the sum of own-account workers and unpaid contributing family workers.

Women are likely to be engaged in vulnerable employment ... that is characterized by low productivity ... drudgery ..., and lack of access to social protection and basic workers

Productive employment is defined by the ILO as “employment yielding sufficient returns to labor to permit the worker and her/his dependents a level of consumption above the poverty line” (ILO 2012h, 3).

Gender equality is recognized as a human right. The Department for International Development of the United Kingdom notes that “gender equality is not a complicated idea. It’s simple: women must have the same rights as men and discrimination has to stop” (DFID 2007, 2). The World Bank, in its flagship publication, the *World Development Report 2012*, has recognized that “gender equality matters in its own right.”⁴ Thus, gender equality is viewed as an independent development objective, as well as for instrumental reasons contributing toward efficiency and growth—the idea of gender equality being “smart economics” (World Bank 2011b, 3). That is, gender equality is a pragmatic policy goal that enhances growth and development.

The ILO enumerates three principles that must be included in the concept of gender equality in the labor market: The first principle is “equal remuneration between men and women for work of equal value.” This accords with ILO’s fundamental Convention 100 on equal remuneration,

² For the 10 indicators, see ILO (2012f).

³ See Floro and Meurs (2009), note on p.4 “ [w]omen’s participation paid labour and access to decent work is particularly affected by the burden of combining reproductive and paid work. This adds stress not accounted for in traditional conceptions of decent work, which focus on paid work and do not examine related changes in reproductive labour.”

⁴ World Bank (2011b, 3) states that “gender equality matters intrinsically, because the ability to live the life of one’s own choosing and be spared from absolute deprivation is a basic human right and should be equal for everyone, independent of whether one is male or female.”

and requires not only that men and women are equally rewarded when they do the same jobs but also that they are rewarded equally when they do different jobs but which may be of equal value. Convention 100 calls for “equal value” to be assessed by objective appraisal of jobs on a nondiscriminatory basis.⁵ Conceptually, the equal remuneration principle applies to all work in both the formal and informal sectors although, in practice, this may be difficult to monitor.

The second and third principles are laid down in ILO’s fundamental Convention 111 on eliminating discrimination in employment and occupation by promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in the labor markets. The second principle, equality of opportunity “means having an equal chance to apply for a job, to attend education or training, to be eligible to attain certain qualifications and to be considered as a worker or for a promotion in all occupations or positions, including those dominated by one sex or the other” (ILO 2008b, 20). The third principle is that of equality of treatment, which “refers to equal entitlements in pay, working conditions, security of employment, reconciliation between work and family life, and social protection” (20).

Despite the recognition of gender equality in law, there has been a lack of progress toward gender equality of outcomes in the labor market

Despite the recognition of gender equality in law, there has been a lack of progress toward gender equality of outcomes in the labor market. The term gender equity is therefore used to emphasize that specific strategies are needed to ensure gender equality and fair and just outcomes for women as well as men. Such strategies are referred to as “special measures of protection and assistance” in ILO Convention 111 and as “temporary special measures” in CEDAW.⁶

The importance of attaining these equalities derives not only from their intrinsic moral value but also, as noted above, from their economic and social benefits. Given the positions of disadvantage that many women experience around the world, a movement toward gender equality in the labor market would bring with it significant economic and social benefits. There is, as the United Nations Development Programme puts it, a “business case” for gender equality (ILO 2008a, 2), or, as the World Bank (2011b, 3) states, “[g]ender equality matters for development—It is smart economics.” The economic benefits arise from the productivity increases which come from better education and training of a currently less-than-optimally-educated and -trained segment of the population. Increasing women’s human capital and employment opportunities improves resource allocation and contributes to economic growth.

However, increasing women’s income through labor force participation does much more than this. Studies have shown that women who earn cash income attain greater autonomy within the household and this changes the distribution of resources within the household.⁷ This reallocation typically favors children and female children in particular. The increase in women’s autonomy (a snapshot) also contributes to an increase in women’s empowerment (a process) defined as the “processes by which those who have been denied the ability to make choices acquire such ability” (Kabeer 1999, cited in Braunstein 2008, 6). This then links with the wider findings, which demonstrate that increases in women’s educational levels and income are associated with lower fertility, lower infant mortality rates, and decreased malnutrition incidence (UNDP 2008b, 1).

Gender mainstreaming requires that gender analysis be incorporated into all existing policy making and decision making, in both the public and private sectors, to ensure that policies and decisions are gender equality-enhancing at best, or gender-neutral at minimum. Gender-specific

⁵ This requires comparing factors such as skill, effort, responsibilities and working conditions. This would include, for example, comparing female-dominated jobs systematically with male-dominated jobs through job evaluations, taking note of women’s skills which are frequently undervalued. (ILO 2007, para 4). See also Oelz, Olney, and Tomei (2013) and ILO (2008a).

⁶ The author is appreciative of communication with Nelien Haspels on this point.

⁷ For a review of the intra-household mechanisms through which such allocations occurs, see Braunstein (2008).

policies, in contrast, are designed to address and reverse existing disadvantages directly by the introduction of policies targeted for women.⁸

Gender mainstreaming pays particular attention to institutional decision making and evaluation. It requires policy makers to acquire a “gender reflex,” that is, to ask what effect any policy will have on men and women (Rubery 2005, 1). To include gender analysis of effects in labor market policy formation requires that gender-disaggregated statistics be collected for all critical decent work components, to inform policy formation. This is one of the first tasks of gender mainstreaming. Other institutional measures can also be taken. Examples of how this has been achieved by European Union members in the public sector, a sector that is often expected to take the lead in this regard and to provide an example for the private sector, include

- gender mainstreaming in developing national strategies,
- interministerial committees and steering groups tasked with gender mainstreaming,
- departmental task forces for specific monitoring and evaluation of programs,
- gender parity/equality advisors on key committees,
- gender analysis of budgets,
- guidelines for gender mainstreaming of government employment policies,
- gender assessment of all new legislation, and
- funding for nongovernment organizations (NGOs) promoting gender equality (Fagan et al. 2005).

Affirmative or positive action. Positive action means special temporary measures or more favorable treatment to members of disadvantaged groups in order to speed up the pace of their recovery from long-standing, entrenched discrimination (e.g., hiring targets or quotas for groups that have been subject to discrimination). Giving effect to the principle of equal opportunity and treatment means more than treating persons in the same way: it calls for initiatives to give all individuals the opportunity to compete on an equal footing for decent work. Consequently, positive action is not discriminatory, because it aims at leveling the playing field when long-standing segregation has occurred and simply outlawing discrimination is not enough (ILO, *Discrimination in the Workplace*).

To include gender analysis of effects in labor market policy formation requires that gender-disaggregated statistics be collected for all critical decent work components, to inform policy formation. This is one of the first tasks of gender mainstreaming

Variation in Development across Countries

The ability to provide productive employment and decent work is expected to vary according to a country's level of development. Low-income, low-human development countries with a high percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) and employment in agriculture will find it difficult to provide productive employment and decent work. Countries at higher productivity and incomes will be more able to provide productive employment and decent work. There is a positive statistical relationship between cross-section GDP per capita and the percentage of wage workers in total employment (ADB 2011d, Figure 10).

The three countries focused upon in this report occupy different stages of development. Based on either per capita gross national income or the Human Development Index, the ranking of the three countries in ascending order is Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan. Cambodia is a low-income country with a per capita gross national income of \$830 and a Human Development Index value of 0.543. The Philippines is a lower-middle-income country with a per capita gross national income of \$2,210 and a Human Development Index of 0.654. Kazakhstan is an

⁸ Key documents highlight good practices on gender and employment are ILO (2004); Chen, Vanek, and Carr (2004); European Commission (2000); ILO (2008b); and UNDP (2008a). For tools on gender and employment mainstreaming, see ILO (2011h); and for further resources, see ILO (2007a).

upper-middle-income Central Asian country with a per capita gross national income of \$8,220 and a high Human Development Index value of 0.754 (see Table 1).

The degree of gender inequality in the three countries varies directly with the level of development. Specifically, the Gender Inequality Index, which reflects gender disadvantage across reproductive health, empowerment, and the labor market, is the highest in Cambodia (at 0.473), reflecting greater gender inequality than in the Philippines (0.418) or Kazakhstan (0.312).⁹

A country's pathway to inclusive growth depends on a variety of factors beyond its current level of development, including economic structure, social norms, institutions, gender relations, and policies. These three countries display significant differences in these respects and thus require different pathways to inclusive growth.

The degree of gender inequality in the three countries varies directly with the level of development

Emerging from a 2-decade period of violence and civil war, Cambodia adopted a market-based, export-oriented, foreign direct investment development strategy after 1992, with the active engagement of international development partners. Following the 1996 bilateral trade agreement with United States, the country's export strategy has emphasized garment production. Even so, Cambodia remains primarily an agrarian economy, with over 80% of the population living in rural areas (National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia Socio-Economics Survey Tables). Women have restricted access to assets and employment, although export-oriented garment production has raised the demand for women's labor outside of agriculture. The 1993 Constitution recognizes the principle of gender equality, and social norms are changing as a result of the marketization of the economy. Nevertheless, women's full economic participation remains considerably constrained by traditional gender norms and roles, which ascribe greater status and power to men, and this is reflected in the country's relatively high Gender Inequality Index score of 0.473 (see Table 1; UNIFEM et al. 2004).¹⁰

Although it industrialized early, the Philippines' subsequent economic growth has been slow, and foreign direct investment, industrialization, and product export (particularly of electronics) have declined, with adverse employment consequences (Usui 2012). Despite high levels of human capital, women's labor force participation rate is much lower than men's, even compared to other Southeast Asian countries. The Philippines has had a more stable political regime than Cambodia and Kazakhstan; however, it experiences regional instability, characterized by violence and displacement, particularly in the south (Hedman 2009).

The Philippines, one of the first countries in Asia to grant suffrage to women, has ratified several international agreements, including CEDAW. In 1987, the government introduced a constitution that legislatively affirmed women's equality with men. Nonetheless, despite a variety of gender-responsive initiatives, the intended positive effects for women have not materialized as intended (ADB et al. 2008).

Kazakhstan has undergone significant privatization and marketization since its independence and has embarked on an export-oriented development strategy, emphasizing oil and gas resources (Mitrofanskaya 1999; Toleubayev, Jansen, and van Huis 2010; Agency on Statistics 2012). The global financial crisis resulted in a decline in demand for exports, decreased growth, and rising inflation. Women's education and labor force participation are relatively high as a result of the Soviet-era development model, but considerable gender segregation exists in the labor market and gender inequality has increased since the transition to a market economy (UNDP 2005). Legal changes, which widely recognize the principle of nondiscrimination based on gender, have been introduced in the constitution and the labor code and provide a basis for advancing gender equity in the labor market.

⁹ A score of 0 indicates perfect equality between men and women and a score of 1 indicates complete inequality.

¹⁰ For changes in gender relations, see Brickell (2011).

Although gender equality is reflected in Kazakhstan's laws, women remain subordinate to men in daily life. This was recognized in the government's strategy for gender equality, which stated, "Owing to the existing stereotypes regarding the distribution of roles in society, women have fewer rights and opportunities in life than men" (Government of Kazakhstan 2005, 6). It also has been reported that gender inequality increased after independence in terms of patriarchal attitudes, domestic violence, and women's loss of decision-making power in the public sphere (ADB 2006a).

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Table 1 Development and Population Indicators in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan

Development and Population Indicator	Cambodia	Philippines	Kazakhstan
Per capita gross national income, 2011	\$830	\$2,210	\$8,220
Human Development Index ranking, 2012	0.543	0.654	0.754
Gender Inequality Index value, 2012	0.473	0.418	0.312
Gender Inequality Index ranking, 2012	96	77	51
Population, 2011	14.5 million	94.2 million	16.6 million
Average per annum population growth, 2000–2011	1.4%	1.9%	0.9%
Fertility rate (births per woman), 2010	2.6	3.1	2.6
Population increase, 2000–2011	2.1 million	17.4 million	1.7 million
Poverty (national threshold)	23% (in 2009)	28% (in 2012)	4% (in 2012)
Poverty (\$1.25 threshold), 2009	19%	18%	0%
Poverty (\$2 threshold), 2009	50%	40%	1%
Income inequality (Gini coefficient), 2009	0.36	0.43	0.29

Note: The Gender Inequality Index reflects gender disadvantage based on five indicators across areas of reproductive health, empowerment, and the labor market; it ranges from 0 (perfect equality between men and women) to 1 (complete inequality).

Sources: Asian Development Bank. 2011. *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2011*. Manila. Tables 1.1, 1.2, 1.17, and 2.3; Government of Cambodia, Ministry of Planning. 2013. *Poverty in Cambodia: A New Approach*. Phnom Penh. <http://www.mop.gov.kh/Projects/tabid/148/Default.aspx>; Government of Kazakhstan, Agency of Statistics. Standard of Living of Population. <http://www.eng.stat.kz/digital/Standard%20of%20living%20of%20population/Pages/default.aspx>; Government of the Philippines, National Statistical Coordination Board. 2013. Time Series Data. <http://www.nscb.gov.ph/poverty/dataCharts.asp>; United Nations Development Programme. 2013. *Human Development Report 2013*. http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR2013_EN_Statistics.pdf; World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>.

Employment Performance across Countries

The employment growth rate is an important indicator of the extent to which the benefits of GDP growth are being shared among the population. So-called jobless growth may indicate rising labor productivity, an important development objective that may be beneficial in increasing the incomes of those employed, but it may not lead to inclusive growth if those benefits are not widely shared. If women are to benefit from growth, their employment and earnings are important.

Employment growth is particularly important for achieving inclusive growth in countries experiencing high population growth. The most populous of the three nations, the Philippines, also had the highest population growth rate—1.9% per annum from 2000 to 2011—resulting in an increase of 17.4 million people, with the total population reaching 94.2 million in 2011 (see Table 1). Cambodia’s population growth rate was 1.4% per annum over the same period, for a population increase of 2.1 million over the decade and a total population of 14.5 million in 2011. The country had more boys than girls (up to 14 years of age) in 2008, which may indicate sex selection for boys, although anthropological literature supporting the existence of female infanticide was not found (ILO 2010c). In Kazakhstan, population growth averaged 0.9% per annum over the period 2000–2011. This low rate was due to negative rates in the early part of the decade, and the current fertility rate is the same as the rate in Cambodia, at 2.6 births per woman. The population of Kazakhstan increased by 1.7 million people over the decade, resulting in a total population of 16.6 million in 2011.

The Philippines has made little progress toward inclusive growth. There have been no reductions or limited reductions in poverty, income inequality, and gender inequality in the labor market

Cambodia has translated GDP growth into employment growth and has maintained high employment rates (see Table 2). Cambodia has made some progress toward inclusive growth, as evidenced by the decline in income poverty incidence during the 2000s. The poverty rate was estimated at 23% in 2009, based on the national income threshold. Nonetheless, despite employment growth, 50% of the population survives on less than \$2 per day, indicating that economic growth has not yet generated productive employment (see Table 1).

There has been a decline in income poverty and income inequality in Kazakhstan, indicating that growth has been inclusive to some degree. However, although progress in reducing absolute income poverty is a notable achievement, the further challenge is to reduce poverty as measured by broader capability and social inclusion dimensions, including access to social infrastructure such as safe drinking water (UNDP 2011a; ADB and UNDP 2012). The degree of income inequality varies by region and is reported to be considerably higher in the oil-producing regions (ADB and UNDP 2012). Poverty incidence is twice as high in rural areas, is particularly high in households with large numbers of children, and is increasing in female-headed households (Gavilovic et al. 2009).

The Philippines has made little progress toward inclusive growth. There have been no reductions or limited reductions in poverty, income inequality, and gender inequality in the labor market. In fact, relative to the national income threshold, income poverty incidence actually increased between 2003 and 2012, although a more positive conclusion is reached when comparing the Philippines’ performance to the international standards of \$1.25 and \$2 purchasing power parity (National Statistical Coordination Board, Poverty Statistics).

Employment elasticity alone is insufficient to judge inclusive growth, particularly in low-income countries.¹¹ First, employment rates in low-income countries are generally high because people must work to survive, even if they work for very low wages or self-employment income. Thus, high employment rates in developing countries may be more indicative of labor supply than of high labor demand and thus need to be interpreted with caution. Likewise, a lack of productive employment and hours of work (time underemployment) are hidden by conventional unemployment rate indicators. Extremely low unemployment rates in Cambodia, for example, should not be taken as indicative of a high aggregate demand for labor or a tight labor market; low unemployment rates can occur simultaneously with high poverty rates.

¹¹ Employment elasticity is calculated as follows: The annual percentage changes in employment and real GDP are calculated for each year over the period 2000–2010 and then averaged for the entire period; the average percentage change in employment is divided by the average percentage change in real GDP. Cambodia’s employment elasticities are comparable to the world averages of 0.47 for women and 0.41 for men; Kazakhstan’s employment elasticities are comparable to those for Asia (0.27 for women and 0.25 for men). See ADB and ILO (2011).

Second, despite the growth in employment, time-related underemployment, defined as the share of employed people working less than 40 hours per week but willing and available to work additional hours, remains common. In Cambodia, 41.0% of women and 31.9% of men report time underemployment (see Table 2).

Third, unemployment rates among youths are greater than the overall unemployment rate, indicating the difficulties young people experience in obtaining employment. In 2012, the unemployment rate in the Philippines for young women aged 15 to 24 was 18.2% and the rate for young men was 14.9% (See Table 2). The ratio of the youth unemployment to adult unemployment rate in the Philippines increased over the 2000s, indicative of an increasing unemployment problem for youth, although youth unemployment rates typically are higher than the adult and total unemployment rates and have been rising across many countries (ILO 2011d). There also is a gendered dimension: this ratio has increased more for young women than for young men, indicating that young women are having greater trouble than young men in finding work. Thus, although expanding the quantity of employment is necessary, improvements in the quality of employment, measured in terms of decent work and social protection, are vital.

Gendered employment indicators suggest that gender equality in the labor market remains a goal rather than a realized objective. In all three countries, women have lower employment rates than men, particularly in the Philippines, where the difference is about 26 percentage points. In Cambodia, gender equality in the labor market has improved marginally over the past decade. Cambodia tracks women's share of wage employment in the nonagriculture sector separately from employment in the industry and services sectors. From 1998 to 2008, women's share of wage employment in industry increased from 44% to 56%, and in services it increased from 21% to 30%. Despite these increases, the government recognizes that it is off track for meeting its commitment to attain gender parity in the wage labor market (Ministry of Planning 2011). Furthermore, women earn an estimated 71% of male annual earnings, on average (see Table 2).

Gendered employment indicators suggest that gender equality in the labor market remains a goal rather than a realized objective

In the Philippines, there is little evidence of an improvement in gender equality in the labor market, given that the share of women in wage employment in the nonagriculture sector rose only 1 percentage point, from 40.9% to 41.8%, from 2000 to 2011. Furthermore, women's annual earnings are only an estimated 60% of men's earnings (see Table 2).

In Kazakhstan, gender inequality indicators show that there is still progress to be made. Over the past decade, the share of women in wage employment in the nonagriculture sector increased from 48.5% to 50%. Although women now have the same share of wage employment in the nonagriculture sector as men, women do not have the same jobs or receive the same remuneration. It is estimated that women earn annually only 61% of what men earn (see Table 2).

Some progress toward gender equality in the labor market and inclusive growth has been made in all three countries, but substantial challenges remain. Most notably, despite economic and employment growth in Cambodia and the Philippines, there has been little improvement in gender equality in the labor market, as measured by the share of women in waged employment in the nonagriculture sector. In all three countries, the estimated ratio of women's annual earnings to men's stands at 71% or less.

Table 2: Most Recent Employment Indicators in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan

Employment Indicator	Cambodia		Philippines		Kazakhstan	
Women's share of wage employment in nonagriculture sector	41.8% (in 2008)		41.8% (in 2011)		50% (in 2008)	
Estimated gender annual earnings ratio, 2012	71%		60%		61%	
Estimated gender annual earnings gap, 2012	29%		40%		39%	
Average real gross domestic product growth, 2000–2010	8.08		4.74		8.46	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Average per annum employment growth, 2000–2010	3.24%	3.60%	2.59%	2.17%	2.23%	1.75%
Employment elasticity, 2000–2010	0.40	0.45	0.55	0.46	0.26	0.21
Employment rate, 2012	77.8%	85.3%	46.7%	72.9%	62.6%	74.2%
Youth (15–24) unemployment rate						
2008	3.3%	3.5%	19.4%	16.2%	8.2%	6.8%
2011	—	—	18.3%	15.2%	5.7%	4.8%
2012	—	—	18.2%	14.9%	5.0%	4.2%
Total unemployment rate						
2008	1.8%	1.5%	7.1%	7.6%	7.9%	4.6%
2011	—	—	6.6%	7.3%	6.2%	4.6%
2012	—	—	6.7%	7.2%	—	—
Time-related underemployment rate						
2009	41.0%	31.9%	9.2%	11.0%	—	—
2010	—	—	8.7%	10.2%	—	—
2011	—	—	9.2%	10.8%	—	—

Note: Employment rate is the number of people employed divided by the eligible population over the age of 15; time-related underemployment is the number of employed people working less than 40 hours per week but willing and available to work additional hours, divided by the number of employed people.

Sources: Asian Development Bank. 2011. *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2011*. Manila. Table 2.13; International Labour Organization (ILO). 2012. *Decent Work Country Profile: Cambodia*. Geneva. Table 2.1; ILO. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 2a, Table 9, Table 10; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>; World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/worlddevelopment-indicators>; World Economic Forum. 2012. *The Global Gender Gap Report 2012*. <http://www.weforum.org/issues/global-gender-gap>.

Although each of the three countries has attained marginal increases in women's share of wage employment in the nonagriculture sector, substantial gender inequality remains

Although each of the three countries has attained marginal increases in women's share of wage employment in the nonagriculture sector, substantial gender inequality remains. To achieve inclusive growth, employment-led economic growth must be gender equitable and reduce these gaps.

Gender Gaps in the Labor Market

Analysis of gender inequality in the labor market must take account of gendered constraints arising from informal and formal norms, beliefs, regulations, and laws.¹² For example, due to social norms, beliefs, and values within family and kinship systems, women have more limited resources in the form of assets, education, time, and social contacts. In addition, women's greater responsibility for unpaid domestic and care work affects their ability to engage in paid work on the same terms as men.

Social norms and more formal regulations and laws also mean that labor markets and the public sphere generally are not gender neutral. Specifically, gender stereotyping of jobs creates barriers to women's entry, resulting in occupational and horizontal segregation by sex; regulations prohibit women from certain jobs; standards relating to childbearing and rearing may create disincentives to hire women; and businesswomen are constrained, relative to men, in terms of access to credit, networking, and interaction with other businesses and government officials.

Finally, access to paid work does not necessarily result in women having control over their earned income. Women's control over their own earnings is influenced by education, marital status, age, household composition, debt, and social and cultural characteristics.¹³

Gender inequality in the labor market is examined here in terms of gender gaps (or deficits for women) relating to participation and outcomes in the labor market, including employment and decent work. The industrial sectors in which women work, along with gender-specific constraints on women's employment, are also discussed.

Labor Force Participation Gap

In all three DMCs, women's labor market participation is lower than men's due to inadequate employment and decent work opportunities, domestic labor and care constraints, and social norms. Together, these factors give rise to a gender labor force participation rate (LFPR) gap. Women's labor force participation rates also vary across countries as a result of cultural expectations about women's mobility and domestic and care responsibilities, and due to the presence or absence of substitutes for women's domestic work.

The LFPR gender gap in 2012 was 7.5 percentage points in Cambodia, 10.7 percentage points in Kazakhstan, and 28.5 percentage points in the Philippines (Table 3). Over the decade of the 2000s, the gender LFPR gap declined in the Philippines and to a lesser extent in Kazakhstan. In Cambodia, however, the gender LFPR gap rose in the middle of the decade and then ended the decade at the same level as it began.

Women's LFPR in the Philippines is the lowest of the three countries, at 50%. In Kazakhstan, women's LFPR is lower than men's, in part because of the lower retirement age for women—retirement age is 58 for women and 63 for men (Figure 1).

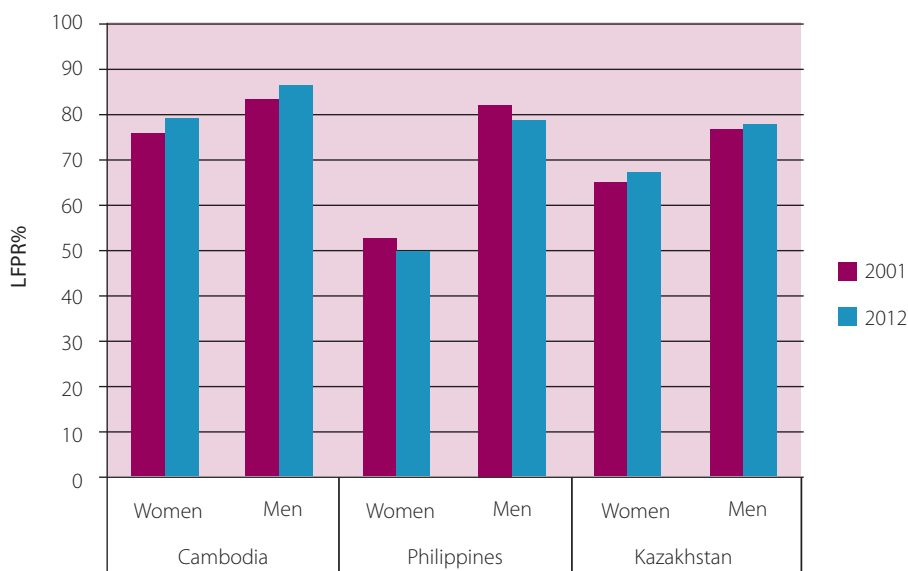
Women's LFPRs vary by age in the three countries, and there have been quite large increases in the LFPRs of older women over the decade 2000–2010. For women aged 55 to 64 years, there was an increase of almost 9 percentage points in Cambodia (Figure 2) and 14 percentage points in Kazakhstan (Figure 3). In the Philippines, there was an increase of 3 percentage points in the LFPRs of women aged 35–54 (Figure 4).

The labor force participation rate gender gap in 2012 was 7.5 percentage points in Cambodia, 10.7 percentage points in Kazakhstan, and 28.5 percentage points in the Philippines

¹² For the structures of gender constraints, see Kabeer (2008). For empirical support for a negative relationship between inequalities and social institutions and women's labor force participation rate, see Jutting et al. (2008).

¹³ See Kabeer (2012). For empirical examples, see Dasgupta (2002) and MacPhail and Dong (2007).

Figure 1 Labor Force Participation Rates, Women and Men in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan, 2001 and 2012



LFPR = labor force participation rate.

Sources: International Labour Organization (ILO). 2012. *Decent Work Country Profile: Cambodia*. Geneva. Table 3.1; ILO. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 1a; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE). Current Labor Statistics. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/PUBLICATIONS/Current%20Labor%20Statistics/index.html>; Government of the Philippines, DOLE. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Time allocation data show a strong gendered division of domestic labor, with women having primary responsibility for household and care tasks and a higher total work burden

For men, the LFPRs by age exhibit a more pronounced inverted U pattern and, further, in contrast to women in the Philippines, men's LFPRs declined over the decade in each age group in the Philippines (Figure 5).

Unpaid Domestic and Care Work Gap

Time allocation data show a strong gendered division of domestic labor, with women having primary responsibility for household and care tasks and a higher total work burden (the sum of time allocated to paid work and unpaid domestic and caring work) (OECD 2012, Figure 1.3). In Cambodia, women undertake more unpaid work than men; the gender unpaid work gap was 3.5 hours per day in 2004 for married people aged 18–64 (Cambodia Ministry of Planning 2007, Table 12). In Kazakhstan, the gender unpaid work gap was about 2.7 hours per day in both 2003 and 2006 among people aged 20–74 (UNECE, Statistical Database). In the Philippines, women provide 84% of the total household time allocated to child care (Tiefenthaler 1997).

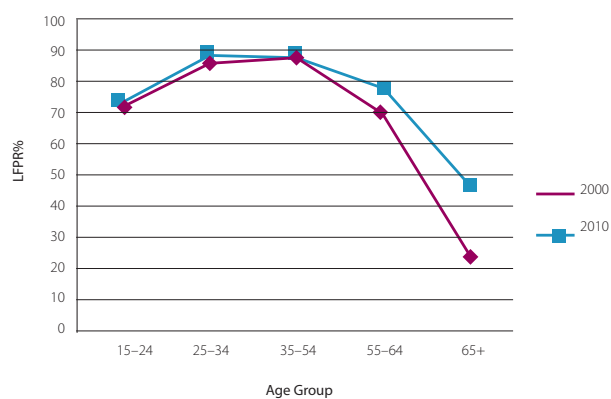
Table 3 Employment Indicators, Women and Men in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan, Selected Years (million)

Employment Indicator	Cambodia			Philippines			Kazakhstan		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
Labor force participation rate									
2000	—	—	—	47.7%; 11.605	79.6%; 19.307	31.9%	64.7%; 3.727	76.3%; 3.858	11.6%
2001	76.1%; 3.047	83.5%; 2.969	7.4%	51.8%; 12.711	82.4%; 20.098	30.6%	64.9%; 3.769	76.1%; 3.873	11.2%
2012	79.2%; 4.125	86.7%; 4.186	7.5%	50.0%; 15.815	78.5%; 24.617	28.5	66.8%; 4.338	77.5%; 4.452	10.7%
Employment rate									
2000	74.5%; 2.879	80.7%; 2.750	6.2%	42.1%; 10.259	70.9%; 17.913	28.8%	54.8%; 3.158	68.3%; 3.456	13.5%
2012	77.8%; 4.054	85.3%; 4.116	7.5%	46.7%; 14.757	72.9%; 22.850	26.2%;	62.6%; 4.064	74.2%; 4.259	11.6%
Vulnerable employment									
2001	—	—	—	48.6%; 5.946	43.0%; 7.707	5.6%	44.4%; 1.434	35.9%; 1.246	8.5%
2004	79.1%; 2.568	71.1%; 2.368	8.0%	46.3%; 5.551	40.6%; 7.988	5.7%	38.5%; 1.334	33.3%; 1.238	5.2%
2011	72.8%; 2.878	64.1%; 2.520	8.7%	44.5%; 6.503	39.0%; 8.797	5.5%	31.6%; 1.279	29.2%; 1.2642	2.4%
Low-wage work									
2004	35.1%	29.9%	5.2%	17.6%	13.1%	4.5%	—	—	—
2009	35.1%	28.6%	6.5%	18.6%	12.5%	6.1%	—	—	—
2010	—	—	—	18.2%	12.1%	6.1%	—	—	—
2011	—	—	—	17.7%	11.8%	5.9%	—	—	—

Note: Labor force participation rate is the number of employed and unemployed persons over the age of 15 divided by the eligible population. Employment rate is the number of people employed divided by the number of people in the eligible population. Vulnerable employment is the sum of own-account workers and unpaid contributing family workers divided by the total employed. Vulnerable employment for Cambodia reflects the working-age population 15–64 years of age; for the Philippines and Kazakhstan, the relevant age group is 15 and older. Low-wage work is defined as earning a wage less than two-thirds of median wage; a monthly wage is used in Cambodia and a daily wage is used in the Philippines.

Sources: Government of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics. Cambodia Socio-Economics Survey Tables: Education: Table 8. <http://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/social-statistics/cses/cses-tables>; International Labour Organization (ILO). 2012. Decent Work Country Profile: Cambodia. Geneva. Table 3.1; ILO. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 3; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

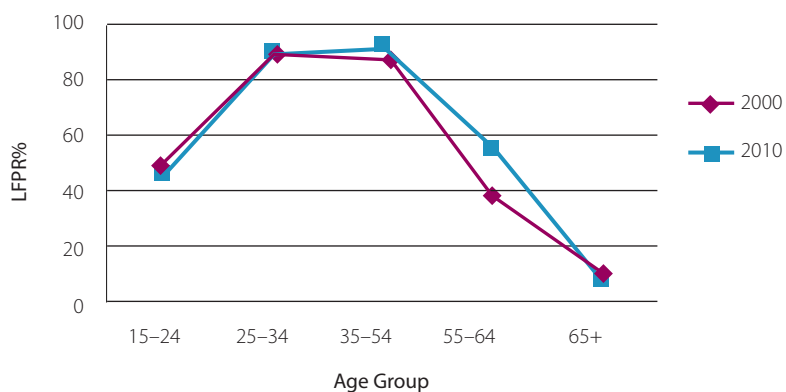
Figure 2 Women's Labor Force Participation Rates by Age in Cambodia, 2000 and 2010



LFPR = labor force participation rate.

Source: Compiled from International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 1a.

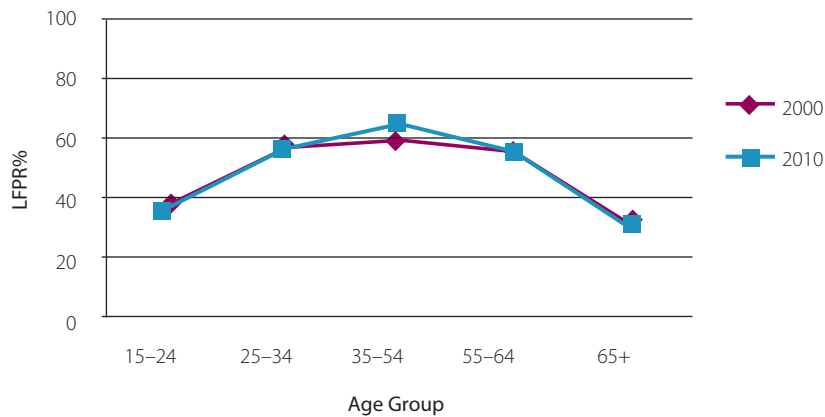
Figure 3 Women's Labor Force Participation Rates by Age in Kazakhstan, 2000 and 2010



LFPR = labor force participation rate.

Source: Compiled from International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 1a.

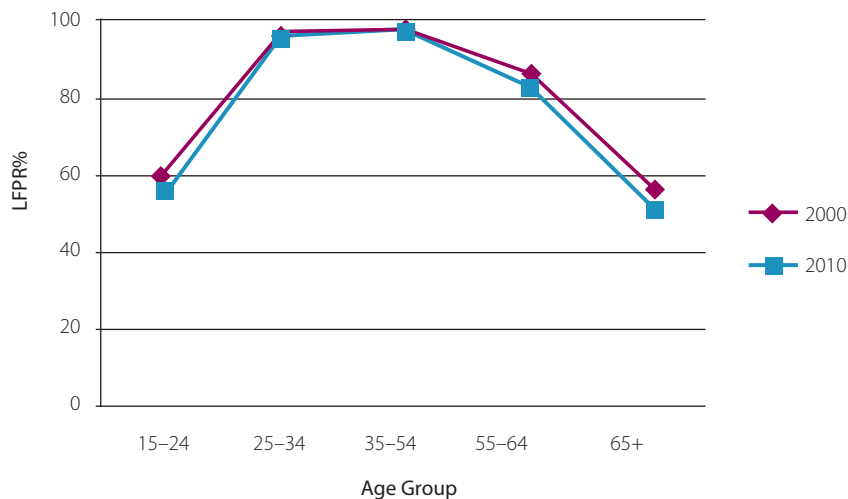
Figure 4 Women's Labor Force Participation Rates by Age in the Philippines, 2000 and 2010



LFPR = labor force participation rate.

Source: Compiled from International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 1a.

Figure 5 Men's Labor Force Participation Rates by Age in the Philippines, 2000 and 2010



LFPR = labor force participation rate.

Source: Compiled from International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 1a.

Domestic and care work can constrain participation in paid work. For example, in the Philippines, 31% of working age women reported that they were not in the labor force in 2011 because of household or family duties, compared to only 3% of men who reported this (DOLE, Decent Work Statistics Online Database).¹⁴

Gendered social norms contribute to women's greater responsibility for and time commitments to domestic and care work, and this has been slow to change, despite women's increased participation in paid work. Relatively high fertility rates in all three countries will continue to raise the demand for women's unpaid labor time, especially given the low availability of child care services.

Domestic and care work can constrain participation in paid work

¹⁴ See also Adair et al. (2002).

Human Capital Gap

Low levels of human capital among women and/or gender segregation in the types of training and education available to women constrain women's labor force participation. There exist varying degrees of human capital gender gap in all three countries, but the gap is most evident in Cambodia, where quantitative differences between men and women in literacy and years of schooling are pronounced. In the Philippines and Kazakhstan, the differences are qualitative and reflect differences in the type of schooling.

Low levels of human capital among women and/or gender segregation in the types of training and education available to women constrain women's labor force participation

In Cambodia, there was a 15 percentage point gender gap in literacy in 2011; 88% of men over the age of 15, compared to 73% of women, were estimated to have basic literacy, and the gender gap was larger in rural areas. The gender gap in completion of at least primary education was 17 percentage points in Cambodia, with 59% of men having completed primary education, compared to 42% of women (in 2011) (National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia Socio-Economics Survey Tables). Now, however, there is no gender gap in primary school enrollment in any of the three countries. In 2010, the female–male student enrollment rate was 0.99 in Cambodia and Kazakhstan and 1.02 in the Philippines (Table 4). The improvement in net enrollment rates in Cambodia and the decreased gender gap in primary school education should reduce constraints on girls and young women entering the labor market.

Although net enrollment rates for girls and boys in lower and upper secondary school increased substantially in Cambodia during the 2000s, they remain low compared to other countries, including the Philippines and Kazakhstan. For example, the net enrollment rate for girls and boys combined in lower secondary school was 32%, and the rate in upper secondary school was 22% in 2011 (Cambodia National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia Socio-Economics Survey Tables).¹⁵

Table 4 Education Indicators in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan, 2000 and 2010

	Cambodia				Philippines				Kazakhstan			
	2000		2010		2000		2010		2000		2010	
Education Level	NER ^a	F/M ^b	NER	F/M	NER	F/M	NER	F/M	NER	F/M	NER	F/M
Primary	91.4	0.89	95.9	0.99	95.7 (1991)	–	88.3	1.02	86.5	1.01	88.2	0.99
Secondary	15	0.56	–	–	59.3 (2005)	–	61.6	1.19	87.6	1.03	89.6	0.99
Tertiary	2.7	0.33	7.8 (2008)	0.53 (2008)	27.5 (2005)	–	28.9 (2008)	1.25 (2008)	28.1	1.18	40.8	1.44

F/M = female-to-male ratio, NER = net enrollment rate.

Notes: ^a Net enrollment rate is the enrollment of the official age group for primary or secondary education as a percentage of primary or secondary school-aged population. The NER for tertiary education is the total enrollment as a percentage of the population, regardless of age, comprising the 5-year age group following secondary school.

^b F/M refers to the ratio of female to male students.

Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. 2012. *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2012*. Bangkok. Tables I.27 and I.29.

¹⁵ See also Government of Cambodia, Ministry of Planning (2011, Figure 2.6).

In the Philippines and Cambodia, norms and poverty prevent some children, particularly girls, from attending school. In Cambodia, it appears that girls aged 6–17 are more likely than boys to be kept out of school to help with household chores and contribute to family income, indicative of social norms that place a higher value on education of boys.¹⁶ In Kazakhstan, there has been a substantial decline in preschool training since the socialist period, and the decline has been greater in Kazakhstan than in other transitioning countries (Cornia 2008).

There is substantial gender specialization in training and tertiary education in all three countries. In Cambodia, the number of people participating in technical and vocational education programs is very low, and gender disparities exist. Women are more likely than men to participate in training programs of short duration, and the types of training undertaken tend to reinforce gender stereotypes (ILO 2010c, Table 3.12; UNDP 2011b). In the Philippines, substantial gender differences exist in fields of university study, with women underrepresented in areas such as law, information technology, engineering, agriculture, and architecture. For example, women comprise less than 33% of the enrollments in engineering.¹⁷ In Kazakhstan, men at university specialize in the sciences, whereas women specialize in the arts and social sciences. Women comprise 92% of enrollment in health care and men comprise 68% of the enrollment in natural sciences. In addition, women's share of enrollment in technical and vocational schools is only about 30% (Agency on Statistics, 3011, Tables 6.15 and 6.16). Sex segregation by level and type of training limits women's opportunities for employment in more technical fields.

Although women's labor force participation rates have increased, this has not uniformly translated into reductions in the gender gaps in labor market outcomes

Education level, a proxy for human capital, is positively associated with labor force participation rates. In the Philippines, the LFPR for women with a college education was 57.3% in 2011 and the LFPR for women with a high school education was 45%. In contrast, men with a higher level of education had a lower LFPR; the LFPR for college graduates was 74.6%, whereas for high school graduates it was 77% (DOLE 2012, Table 2.14).

Education is also related to the speed of transition from school to work. In the Philippines, for example, only 20% of high school graduates were employed 1 year after completing their education, compared to 75% of college graduates. In addition, the length of time needed to find waged employment (as opposed to own-account employment or unpaid contributing family work) is longer for high school-educated workers than college-educated workers (Bird 2012a).

Gender Gaps in Labor Market Outcomes

Although women's LFPRs have increased, this has not uniformly translated into reductions in the gender gaps in labor market outcomes, including employment, decent work, and social protection.

Employment Gap

Employment rates, calculated as the number of employed people divided by the number of people in the eligible population (15 years and older), are lower for women than for men in all three countries under discussion. The employment rate gender gap is particularly pronounced in the Philippines, at 26.2 percentage points in 2012. There was a slight decline in the employment rate gender gap in the Philippines and Kazakhstan between 2000 and 2012. In Cambodia, however, the gap increased, due to the larger increase in the employment rate of men relative to the increase among women (Table 3).

¹⁶ For the Philippines, see Maligalig et al. (2010). For Cambodia, see Government of Cambodia (Socio-Economic Survey: Education).

¹⁷ Calculated from Government of the Philippines (Philippines Commission on Higher Education, Higher Education Enrollment and Graduates by Sector, Discipline Group, Sex, and Academic Year: AY 2004/05–AY2009/10).

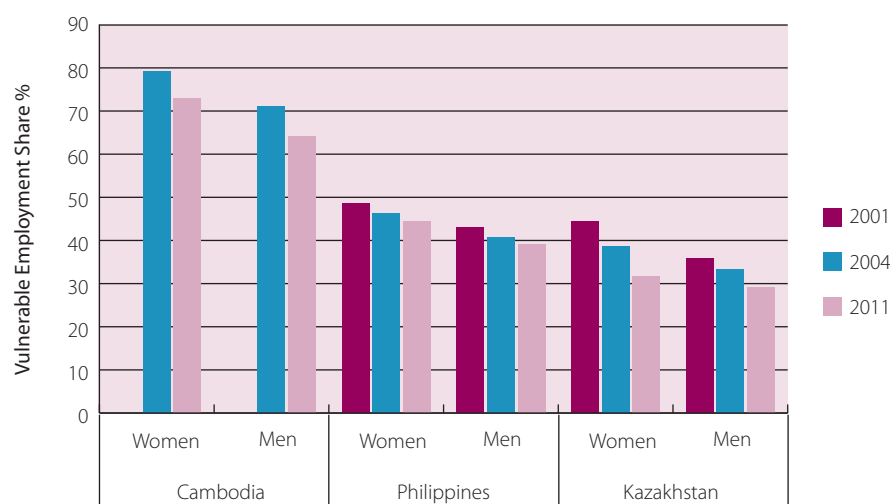
In addition, women are more likely to hold lower-quality employment or vulnerable employment (own-account work and unpaid contributing family member), which typically offers fewer opportunities for decent work and social protection. This has resulted in a vulnerable employment gender gap in all three countries. Own-account workers are less likely than wage workers to contribute to pension plans and other social insurance programs, and workplaces are less likely to be regulated by health and safety standards or regulation on working conditions. Although some own-account workers may be able to attain high productivity, high and stable incomes, voice through networks, and ability to purchase social security, the majority of own-account workers experience low productivity, low and unstable demand for their products and services, and few opportunities for decent work (Chen, Vanek, and Carr 2004). The agriculture sector and parts of the services sector are particularly prone to vulnerable employment.

Women are more likely to hold lower-quality employment or vulnerable employment ... which typically offers fewer opportunities for decent work and social protection

In Cambodia, the share of vulnerable employment is 73% for women and 64% for men, representing 2.9 million women and 2.5 million men. In the Philippines, the share of vulnerable employment is 45% for women and 39% for men (6.5 million women and 8.8 million men). In Kazakhstan, 32% of women are engaged in vulnerable employment and 29% of men are engaged in vulnerable employment (see Figure 6 and Table 3). The vulnerable employment gender gap did not decline in Cambodia, and it remained stable in the Philippines during the 2000s (Figure 7). The gender gap in Kazakhstan shrank as a result of a greater decline in the share of vulnerable employment among women compared to the share among men.

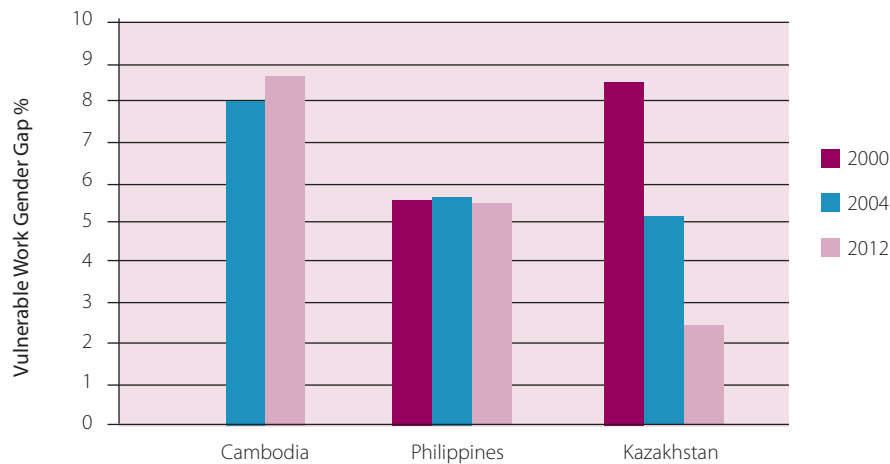
Women not only are more likely than men to be in vulnerable employment but also are more likely to be an unpaid contributing family worker, which offers the least opportunities for decent work. For women in the Philippines, for example, the share of unpaid family workers did not decline over the decade and accounted for 16.8% of all women's work in 2011, which is double the percentage of men working as unpaid contributing family workers (DOLE, Decent Work Statistics Online Database). In Cambodia, the share of women classified as unpaid contributing household members declined from 46.5% to 19.3% from 2004 to 2010; this substantial decline needs further investigation.

Figure 6 Share of Vulnerable Employment, Women and Men in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan, Selected Years



Sources: Government of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics. *Cambodia Socio-Economics Survey Tables: Labor*. Table 7. <http://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/social-statistics/cses/cses-tables>; International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 3; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Figure 7 Vulnerable Work Gender Gap in Cambodia, the Philippines, and Kazakhstan, 2000, 2004, and 2012



Sources: Government of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics. *Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey Tables: Labor*. Table 7. <http://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/social-statistics/cses/cses-tables>; International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition*. Geneva. Table 3; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE). Current Labor Statistics; Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Wage employment spans a continuum from informal to formal employment, with decent work more likely in formal employment. Formal employment refers to jobs that are covered by national legislation, social protection, and employment benefits; informal employment is defined in the opposite manner.¹⁸ Although formal working conditions may be better than in nonwage work or informal employment, there is considerable opportunity for improvement, given the poor conditions reported for formal jobs in both Cambodia and the Philippines.¹⁹

Wage employment spans a continuum from informal to formal employment, with decent work more likely in formal employment

Decent Work Gap

Vulnerable or low-quality employment (calculated, by proxy, as own-account and unpaid family work) offers fewer opportunities for decent work and is a problem for both women and men. A few indicators permit direct analysis of decent work for workers who are employees.²⁰ Low wage work, defined as work that pays a wage of less than two-thirds of the median wage, is more prevalent among women. For example, 35.1% of women and 28.6% of men in Cambodia were employed in low wage work in 2009, estimated by monthly wages (Table 3). In addition, average daily basic pay, in real terms, has declined in the Philippines for both women and men (DOLE, Decent Work Statistics Online Database).

The gender wage gap refers to the difference between the average wage for men and the average wage for women, expressed as a percentage of the average wage for men. In analyzing gender wage gaps, three main issues need to be taken into account. First, wages are reported only for employees and do not include information about income generated from own-account work. Thus, for countries such as Cambodia with a high share of vulnerable employment, the gender wage gap refers only to a small share of all workers.

¹⁸ See Heintz (2010) and ADB (2011f).

¹⁹ See World Bank (2011a) and ILO (2011c).

²⁰ Two useful data sources are the Government of the Philippines (DOLE Decent Work Statistics Online Database) and ILO (2012e).

Second, the gender wage gap typically is reported without adjusting for human capital differences between women and men (calculated, by proxy, as formal education and years of labor market experience). In countries such as the Philippines, where women have higher levels of formal education than men, this unadjusted gender wage gap will underestimate women's disadvantage.

Finally, employee wages are reported only for a specific period of time, such as a day, a week, or a month, and therefore generally do not reflect gender differences in work over a longer period of time, such as a year. Women may have lower quantities of time in paid work due to domestic and family care constraints and/or employers' discriminatory hiring decisions and preference to hire men for full-time/full-year jobs. Thus, over a longer time period, the gender annual earnings gap will be larger than the gender hourly wage gap.

Women may have lower quantities of time in paid work due to domestic and family care constraints and/or employers' discriminatory hiring decisions and preference to hire men for full-time/full-year jobs

The unadjusted gender wage gap is highest in Kazakhstan, at about 32% (Table 5), followed by Cambodia at 27% (Table 6). For both countries, the gender wage gap is based on the average wages of men and women for the period of a month. In the Philippines, the gender wage gap is –minus 3%, indicating women's advantage (Table 7). It should be emphasized that the Philippines' gender wage gap is calculated using the average daily rate of pay, so this will not take into account differences in amounts of paid work of women and men. Once gender differences in human capital are taken into account, however, the adjusted gender wage gap is estimated to range of 23%–30% (Rodgers and Menon 2012; Sakellariou 2004).

Despite employment growth for women in Cambodia's garment sector, which offers formal employment, the gender wage gap in that country has actually increased. The minimum wage applies only to the garment sector, and most women's wage work is in the garment sector; thus, the increased gender wage gap indicates that women's wages have not kept up with the average wages of men (ILO 2012d). Minimum wage standards generally play a greater role in affecting women's wages than men's wages, given women's likelihood of being a low-wage worker. In addition, the minimum wage standard is not fully enforced, and almost 24% of women and men in the textile, garment, and footwear sector earn less than the statutory minimum wage. This may be due to lower levels of compliance in factories not monitored by the Better Factories Cambodia program. The gender wage inequality trends, however, indicate the importance of establishing a process for adequately increasing and enforcing the minimum wage.

The gender wage gap for the paid labor market as a whole masks vast differences across occupations and industries. In the Philippines, for example, the gender wage gap in the service workers, shop, and market sales occupations is 34% (Table 7). Thus, the service workers occupations offer relatively low daily wages on average than other occupations for women and a high gender wage gap. In Cambodia, the gender wage gap in the plant and machine operators and assemblers occupations is particularly large, at 42% (Table 6). In Kazakhstan, the gender wage gap in the industrial category of professional, scientific, technical activities is 43% (Table 5).

Another key dimension of decent work is employment security. Although the evidence is limited, it does appear that the increase in wage employment has not brought about increased employment security. In the Philippines, there has been a rise in wage employment, but within wage employment there has been a slight increase in the share of precarious work, defined as paid work that is short term, seasonal, or casual or where an individual works for different employers on a day-to-day basis. The number of women employees with precarious work increased from 23.9% to 24.7% of all employees from 2000 to 2011; for men, the share of precarious work declined from 30.9% to 28.5% of all employees (DOLE, Decent Work Statistics Online Database; Hasan and Jandoc 2009, Table 6). There is also evidence of increased use of short-term, casual, and probationary contracts in the export processing zones in the Philippines and in the garment sector in Cambodia during the recent global economic crises of 2008–2009 (GTZ 2010; ILO 2012d).

Table 5 Average Wage and Gender Wage Gap in Kazakhstan, 2011

Occupation	Average Monthly Nominal Earnings, Employees Only (tenge)		Gender Wage Gap (%)
	Men	Women	
Agriculture, forestry, fishing	48,794	35,112	28
Mining, quarrying	180,012	131,209	27
Manufacturing	99,236	69,407	30
Electricity, gas, steam	86,033	69,103	20
Water, sewerage, waste management	57,472	44,452	23
Construction	112,543	94,379	16
Wholesale retail trade, etc.	94,868	72,947	23
Accommodation and food services	109,010	64,709	41
Transport, storage	120,277	94,780	21
Information, communications	133,977	121,250	10
Financial, insurance	239,113	149,061	38
Real estate	84,856	69,727	18
Professional, scientific, technical activities	211,970	121,544	43
Administrative and support services	96,814	83,277	14
Public administration and defense	91,961	73,481	20
Education	62,878	57,980	8
Human health and social work	73,934	66,400	10
Arts, entertainment, and recreation	85,465	50,177	41
Other services	172,994	107,003	38
Total	106,533	72,430	32

Source: Government of Kazakhstan, Agency on Statistics. 2011. *Women and Men in Kazakhstan*. Astana. Table 7.19.**Table 6 Average Wage and Gender Wage Gap in Cambodia, 2009**

Occupation	Average Monthly Nominal Earnings, Employees Only (riels)		Gender Wage Gap (%)
	Men	Women	
Legislators, senior officials, and managers	329,980	233,910	29
Professionals	553,589	406,659	27
Technicians and associate professionals	767,718	491,017	36
Clerks	610,702	560,862	8
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	356,925	282,616	21
Skilled agriculture and fisheries workers	226,052	213,214	6
Craft and related trade workers	384,987	285,315	26
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	458,427	266,302	42
Elementary occupations	267,932	182,770	32
Armed forces	432,065	432,465	0
All occupations	376,542	274,079	27

Source: International Labour Organization. 2012. *Decent Work Country Profile Cambodia 2011–2015*. Phnom Penh. Table 3.1.

Table 7 Average Wage and Gender Wage Gap in the Philippines, 2011

Occupation	Average Nominal Daily Basic Pay, Employees Only (pesos)		Gender Wage Gap (%)
	Men	Women	
Officials of government and special interest organizations, corporate executives, managers, supervisors	738.78	762.55	-3
Professionals	732.41	655.12	11
Technicians and associate professionals	489.29	431.05	12
Clerks	426.62	402.51	6
Service workers and shop and market sales workers	314.45	206.44	34
Farmers, forestry workers, and fishers	197.39	171.06	13
Trades and related workers	302.37	223.66	26
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	320.88	324.49	-1
Laborers and unskilled workers	195.79	142.80	27
Special occupations	608.23	384.59	37
All occupations	313.42	323.53	-3

Source: Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Social Protection Gap

A gender gap in social protection exists [as indicated by] the sex-disaggregated ADB Social Protection Index

ADB (2003, 1) defines social protection as “the set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labor markets, diminishing people’s exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and the interruption/loss of income.” The three main components of the social protection strategy are social assistance, social insurance, and labor market programs; the two other components are community-based microinsurance and child development. Estimates of social protection typically rely on government expenditures on key programs relating to social assistance, social insurance, and the labor market. Expenditures on social assistance, social insurance, and labor market programs were 2.2% of GDP in Cambodia and 9.2% of GDP in the Philippines (ADB 2007). Social protection expenditures in Kazakhstan are lower than other transitional economies but higher than the Philippines and Cambodia (Cornia 2008).

The ADB Social Protection Index is a specific measure defined as the “total social protection expenditures per total reference population divided by a regional poverty line” (ADB 2011f, 3–4). The regional poverty line is taken to be 25% of a country’s per capita GDP. A 2009 estimate of the Social Protection Index for Cambodia was 0.02; for the Philippines, it was 0.085 (ADB 2013b). A 2003–2004 estimate of the Social Protection Index for Kazakhstan was 0.156 (ADB 2011f).

A gender gap in social protection exists. The sex-disaggregated ADB Social Protection Index is 0.009 for women and 0.011 for men in Cambodia; and 0.040 for women and 0.045 for men in the Philippines (ADB 2013b, Table A3.12). Social Protection Index results for Cambodia and the Philippines indicate that the largest share of social protection expenditures is in the social insurance category, which comprises expenditures on health, maternity, disability, unemployment, and pensions. Social security provisions generally have been available only to workers with formal employment, and men have higher rates of formal employment than women, contributing to

the gender gap. In Cambodia, for example, only civil servants are covered by a pension plan and only a small proportion of eligible people have actually received payments. Because women have less access than men to public sector employment, this also compounds the gender gap in pension benefits (ILO 2012d). In Kazakhstan, social insurance accounts for 80% of social protection and women are expected to be disadvantaged relative to men due to less access to formal employment and their shorter working lives (ADB 2011f, Table 6).

Gendered Analysis of Labor Markets: Industrial Sectors

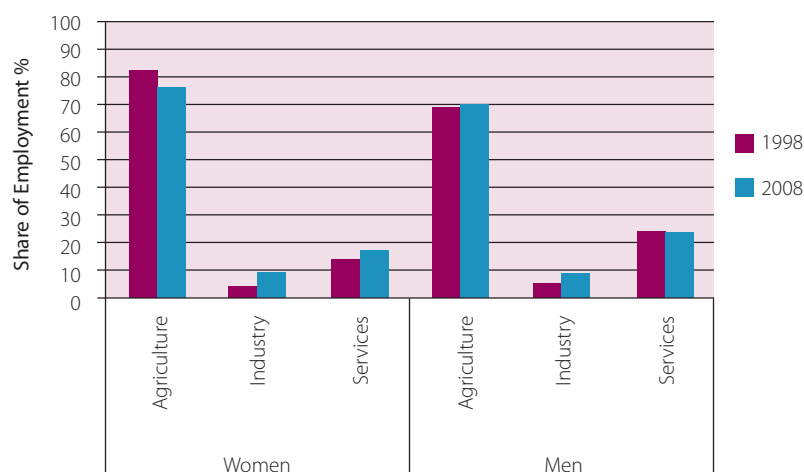
Economic growth typically is associated with structural change in production, away from the primary sector (agriculture) and toward the secondary sector (industry) and the tertiary sector (services). Structural change is associated with shifts in employment among sectors, and the increasing share of industry employment is generally associated with a rise in formal employment, higher wages, and increased opportunities for decent work, given the higher labor productivity of the industry sector.

The industrial sector in all three countries examined here accounts for only about 10% of women's employment, indicative of the challenges in promoting productive and decent work for women. Cambodia is the most agrarian economy, with 75% of its employment occupying the primary agriculture sector (Figure 8). In both Cambodia and Kazakhstan (Figure 9), employment for both women and men has shifted from agriculture into industry and services. In Cambodia, the share of women's employment in the agriculture sector declined from 81.8% to 75%, with women's share in industry rising from 3.5% to 9% and women's share in services rising from 13.5% to 16% from 1998 to 2008 (ILO 2012d, Table 1.2). Despite economic growth and structural change, the agriculture sector still accounts for the majority of employment in these countries, and the share is greater for women than for men.

In Kazakhstan, the share of women's employment accounted for by the agriculture sector declined from 34.2% to 26.3%, the share in industry rose from 9.7% to 11.5%, and the share in services increased from 56.1% to 62.2% from 2001 to 2011 (Figure 9).

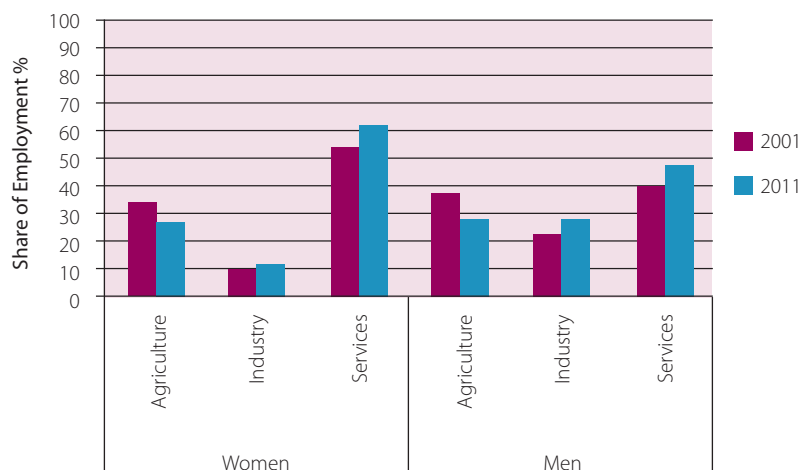
Because women have less access than men to public sector employment, this also compounds the gender gap in pension benefits

Figure 8 Employment Share by Economic Sector, Women and Men in Cambodia, 1998 and 2008



Source: International Labour Organization. 2012. *Decent Work Country Profile: Cambodia*. Geneva. Table 1.2.

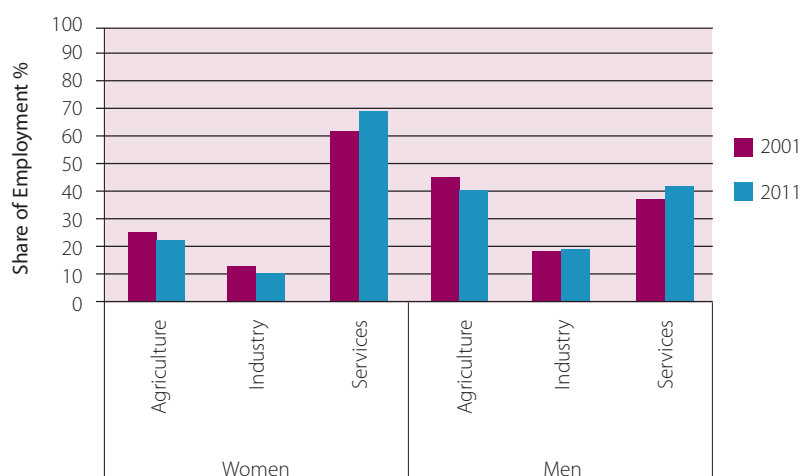
Figure 9 Employment Share by Economic Sector, Women and Men in Kazakhstan, 2001 and 2011



Sources: Data for 2001 are from International Labour Organization. 2011. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 7th Edition. Table 4a*; data for 2011 are from Government of Kazakhstan. 2011. *Women and Men in Kazakhstan. Table 7.4.*

In the Philippines, from 2000 to 2011, there was a shift in women's employment out of both the agriculture and industry sectors and into services (Figure 10). Specifically, women's share of employment in the agriculture sector fell from 23.9% to 21.7%; in industry, women's share fell from 13.3% to 10%; and in services, women's share rose from 62.8% to 68.3%. Among men, the employment share in industry remained stable, at about 18% over this period. The declining share of women's employment in the industry sector suggests a deteriorating environment for decent work for women.

Figure 10 Employment Share by Economic Sector, Women and Men in the Philippines, 2001 and 2011



Source: Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Paid work exhibits considerable horizontal segregation, with women concentrated into different and fewer industries than men, reflecting discrimination against women in the labor market as well as discrimination and cultural stereotyping in education and training. Industrial segregation by sex reduces opportunities for women, constrains productivity and growth by not attracting the most productive workers, and tends to confine women to low-wage industries. Barriers to women's employment in certain industrial sectors and occupations arise from both social norms and laws. Social norms regarding appropriate roles for women may influence employers' recruitment practices, for instance, and strong social norms exist in all three countries (ADB 2013a; ADB et al. 2008). The considerable sex segregation in education and training also may arise from social norms about appropriate fields of study, and thus women may not acquire the necessary training and qualifications for certain jobs.

Laws that restrict women from working in specific jobs or that prohibit women working at night also can serve to restrict women's employment. In Kazakhstan, for example, women are prohibited from working in 299 specific jobs, many of which relate to the construction and transport sectors.²¹

Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing

Despite structural change, the primary sector (agriculture, forestry, and fishing) remains an important sector of employment for large groups of women and men in all three countries. In Cambodia, the most agrarian economy, the primary sector accounted for 75% of women's employment (about 2.6 million women) in 2008 (Table 8). In the Philippines, 22% of women's employment is in agriculture (about 3.3 million women) (Table 9). In Kazakhstan, about 1.1 million women worked in the agriculture sector, accounting for 26% of women's employment (Table 10).

Women's economic opportunities as farmers are constrained in all three countries by women's limited access to land and other inputs. Women own less land than men and are disadvantaged through inheritance norms, laws, land titling systems, and their ability to purchase land (USAID 2006; Cambodia Ministry of Women's Affairs 2008; Somach and Rubin 2010). Access to agriculture land in Cambodia and Kazakhstan is changing from a system of user rights to a system of private property rights, and this process appears to disadvantage women and poor people generally. In Cambodia, despite gender-aware land laws, women have difficulty registering land in their names, which is attributed to lack of information, time, documentation, and literacy as well as to social norms that discourage women from owning land individually (MOWA 2008). Women's disadvantage in landownership occurs within the general context of farmers losing access to land due to the creation of industrial development zones, road construction, resource concessions, landgrabbing, and population growth.²² In Kazakhstan, only 9% of the total number of farms are registered in women's names; although women have the right to own land, government officials have, in practice, refused to register land in women's names (UNECE 2009; ADB 2006a). In the Philippines, women represent about 11% of landholders and account for only 33% of the beneficiaries of land redistributed under the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Program (FAO, Gender and Land Rights Database).

In Kazakhstan, for example, women are prohibited from working in 299 specific jobs, many of which relate to the construction and transport sectors

²¹ See Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan No. 1220, 28 October 2011. See also ADB (2013a).

²² For instance, Global Witness reports that since 2003, 400,000 people in Cambodia have been affected by land disputes, landgrabbing, and violence and that more than 2.1 million hectares of land have been transferred from subsistence farmers to industrial agriculture firms. See Simbolon (2009) and Global Witness (2012).

Table 8 Distribution of Employment by Industry, Women and Men in Cambodia, 2008

Industry Sector	Share of Total Employment ^a (%)		Female Share of Industry Employment (%)
	Women	Men	
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	74.97	69.17	53.10
Mining and quarrying	0.05	0.10	35.61
Manufacturing	8.22	4.14	67.50
Electricity, gas steam, and air-conditioning supply	0.03	0.19	13.81
Water supply sewerage, waste management, and remediation activities	0.09	0.14	39.72
Construction	0.62	3.54	15.42
Wholesale and retail trade repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	9.67	5.86	63.31
Transport and storage	0.40	4.21	8.98
Accommodation and food service activities	1.06	0.67	62.33
Information and communications	0.07	0.14	33.33
Financial and insurance activities	0.19	0.31	39.18
Real estate	0.00	0.01	16.67
Professional, scientific, and technical activities	0.14	0.26	35.79
Administrative and support service activities	0.58	1.01	37.58
Public administration, defense, and social security	0.72	4.90	13.26
Education	1.24	2.10	38.18
Human health and social work activities	0.41	0.55	43.72
Art, entertainment, and recreation	0.28	0.34	45.55
Other services	1.06	2.04	35.26
Use activities of household as employers	0.02	0.01	65.74
Activities of extraterritorial organizations	0.18	0.31	37.64
Total	100.00	100.00	51.09
Absolute number (million)	3.50	3.34	—

Note: ^a Employed people 15 years and older.Source: International Labour Organization. 2010. *Labour and Social Trends in Cambodia 2010*. Phnom Penh. Table 16.

Table 9 Distribution of Employment by Industry, Women and Men in the Philippines, 2011

Industry Sector	Share of Total Employment ^a (%)		Female Share of Industry Employment (%)
	Women	Men	
Agriculture, hunting, and forestry	22.37	34.38	28.16
Fishing	0.84	5.91	8.95
Mining and quarrying	0.09	0.85	9.43
Manufacturing	9.93	7.58	44.42
Electricity, gas, and water supply	0.15	0.54	18.24
Construction	0.28	9.09	1.91
Wholesale and retail trade	29.56	13.13	59.94
Hotels and restaurants	3.95	2.29	53.71
Transport, storage, and communications	1.26	11.48	6.63
Financial intermediation	1.61	0.84	56.45
Real estate, renting, and business activities	2.51	3.54	36.36
Public administration	4.97	4.96	40.20
Education	6.11	1.36	74.31
Health and social work	2.11	0.58	70.80
Other services	3.10	2.11	49.04
Private households with employed people	11.17	1.35	84.40
Total	100.00	100.00	39.31
Absolute number (million)	14.62	22.57	—

Note: ^a Employed people 15 years and older.

Sources: Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. 2012. *2012 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment*. Manila. Table 3.8.

Women do not have equal access to extension services, irrigation, or farm equipment. For example, although women in Cambodia work in agriculture to the same extent as men (Figures 11 and 12), it is estimated that women receive only 10% of agriculture extension services (FAO and Government of Cambodia 2010; 2011). In addition, female-headed households represent about 26% of all farming households in Cambodia, but female-headed households have access to smaller amounts of land, have less access to credit extension services, and face different constraints in farmers' organizations than male-headed households. Women's economic opportunities for wage employment in agriculture also are limited. In the Philippines, women's employment as farmers, forestry workers, and fishers represents only 6% of their total employment, whereas this sector accounts for 22% of men's employment (Figures 13 and 14). Large plantations tend to hire men rather than women, although women and children may provide unpaid work to support men's paid work (FAO 2006). The work for both men and women is seasonal and is characterized by low wages and poor working conditions.

[A]lthough women in Cambodia work in agriculture to the same extent as men, it is estimated that women receive only 10% of agriculture extension services

Table 10 Distribution of Employment by Industry, Women and Men in Kazakhstan, 2011

Industry Sector	Share of Total Employment ^a (%)		Female Share of Industry Employment (%)
	Women	Men	
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	26.28	26.62	48.47
Mining, quarrying	1.22	3.70	23.92
Manufacturing	4.95	8.04	36.96
Electricity, gas, steam	1.13	2.38	31.15
Water, sewerage, waste management	0.56	0.98	35.29
Construction	3.60	11.02	23.73
Wholesale retail trade, etc.	18.08	11.79	59.38
Accommodation and food services	2.05	0.93	67.76
Transport and storage	3.14	9.86	23.32
Information and communications	1.35	1.67	43.47
Financial and insurance	1.78	1.11	60.49
Real estate	1.68	1.59	50.15
Professional, scientific, technical activities	2.19	2.13	49.55
Administrative, support services	1.78	2.31	42.37
Public administration and defense	4.15	5.27	42.86
Education	15.55	5.21	73.99
Human health and social work	6.98	2.58	72.02
Arts, entertainment, recreation	1.36	0.98	56.94
Other services	1.75	1.67	50.00
Household activities	0.43	0.15	72.92
Total	100.00	100.00	48.80
Absolute number (million)	4.05	4.25	—

Note: ^a Employed people 15 years and older.Sources: Government of Kazakhstan. 2011. *Women and Men in Kazakhstan*. Astana. Table 7.3.

Box 1 Women's Employment in the Garment and Footwear Industry, Cambodia

The garment and footwear industry is a major sector for women's employment and the largest sector for formal employment in Cambodia. Factories exporting garments and footwear must be registered with the government and be members of the Garment Manufacturing Association of Cambodia. From 2000 to 2012, employment in registered factories rose from about 160,000 to 373,000 workers, and the number of factories increased from 190 to 375. The sector has recorded enormous growth, given that there were only 19,000 jobs in the sector in 1995. Employment is highly dependent upon global economic demand, as demonstrated by the dramatic drop in employment for women during the economic recession of 2008.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) and the Garment Manufacturing Association of Cambodia estimate that women represented about 90% of total employment in 2012; thus, there were approximately 335,700 women employed in the garment industry. This represents about 8% of women's total employment and over one-third of all paid employment for women. The number of women employed in the garment sector is even larger when unregistered subcontracting factories are counted. The Garment Manufacturing Association of Cambodia reported that approximately 200 subcontracting factories accounted for an additional 100,000 workers in 2010.

The majority of female workers are young, with 78% younger than 29 years old. Levels of education are very low and 43% have not completed primary education. About 42% of female workers are single, and the majority of women move from rural areas to Phnom Penh to seek jobs in the garment sector.

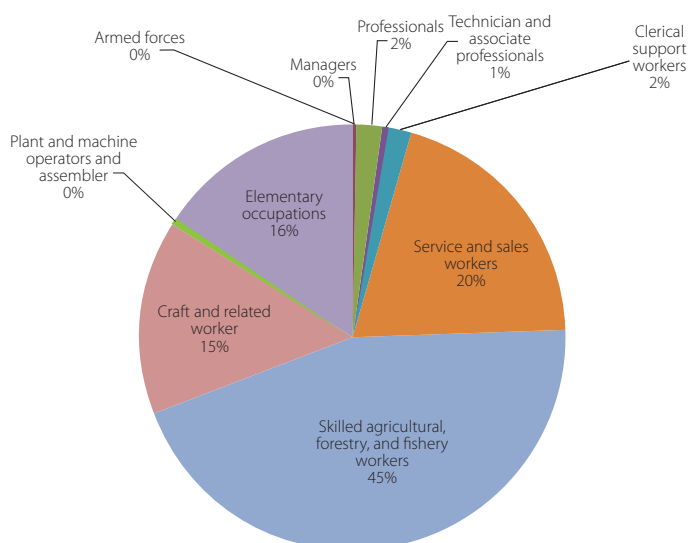
There is strong occupational sex segregation stemming from employer preferences and gender stereotypes. Most women work in sewing occupations, whereas men are assigned to higher-paying quality control occupations.

Employment in the garment sector offers women opportunities for formal work and social protection. Working conditions are independently monitored by the ILO through the Better Factories Cambodia Program to improve compliance with national and international labor standards. Nonetheless, challenges to decent work remain and conditions of work are still poor. The minimum wage of only \$61 per month (in 2010) makes it difficult for women to meet their basic needs and remit money back to their families. Work hours of up to 10 hours per day, 6 days a week during peak periods, are longer than in other industries. Short-term contracts violate the law, make workers vulnerable to dismissal, and reduce opportunities for promotion. There is a lack of compliance with maternity leave provisions and low levels of social insurance. Finally, women experience sexual harassment from male workers and harsh discipline from non-Cambodian supervisors in addition to discrimination in recruitment based on age, marital status, and pregnancy.

Sources: International Labour Organization (ILO). 2013. *Twenty Ninth Synthesis Report on Working Conditions in Cambodia's Garment Sector*. ILO and Better Factories Cambodia; ILO. 2012. *Action-Oriented Research on Gender Equality and the Working and Living Conditions of Garment Factory Workers in Cambodia*. Bangkok; S. Dasgupta, T. Poutiainen, and D. Williams. 2011. *From Downturn to Recovery: Cambodia's Garment Sector in Transition*. Phnom Penh: ILO.

There is some evidence that women have become even more marginalized as governments promote more diversified cropping systems and cash crops for export. Women are less likely to be targeted for extension services and thus are unable to participate in the new crops to the same extent as men.

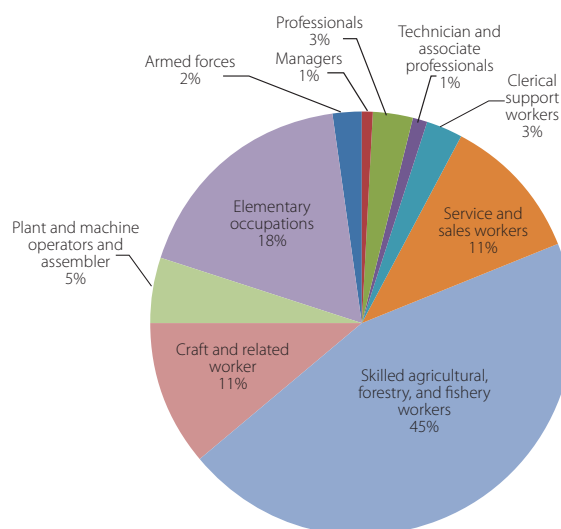
Figure 11 Distribution of Women's Employment by Occupation in Cambodia, 2011



Note: Estimated for working ages 15–64.

Source: Government of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics. *Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey Tables: Labour*. Table 10.

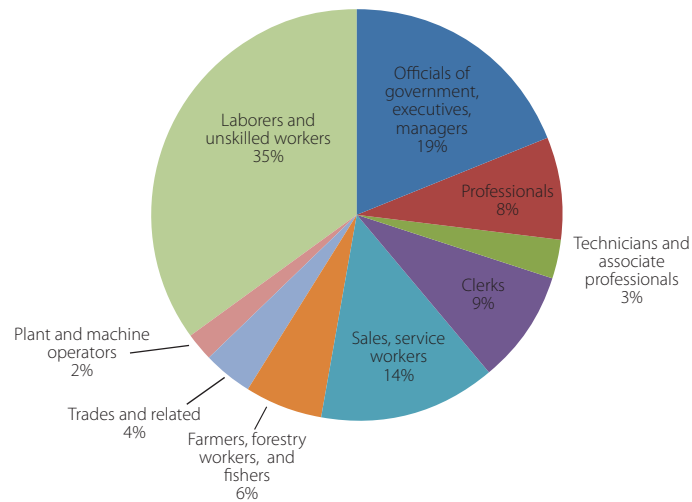
Figure 12 Distribution of Men's Employment by Occupation in Cambodia, 2011



Note: Estimated for working ages 15–64.

Source: Government of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics. *Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey Tables: Labour*. Table 10.

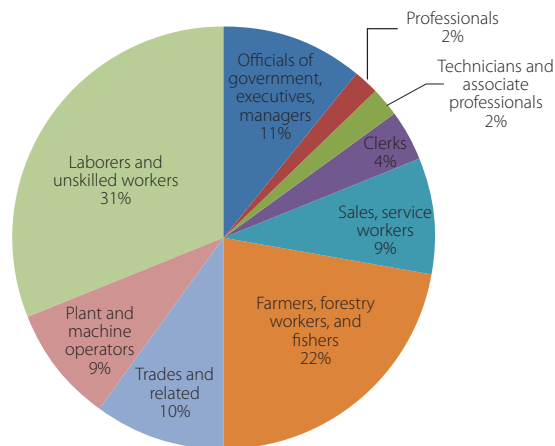
Figure 13 Distribution of Women's Employment by Occupation in the Philippines, 2011



Note: Estimated for the working age 15 years and older.

Source: Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Figure 14 Distribution of Men's Employment by Occupation in the Philippines, 2011



Note: Estimated for the working age 15 years and older.

Source: Government of the Philippines, Department of Labor and Employment. Decent Work Statistics Online Database. <http://www.bles.dole.gov.ph/dews/>.

Industry

Each of the three countries has adopted export-oriented development strategies to promote economic growth, industrial production and employment, taking advantage of their resource endowments and supported by specific policies and laws. These development strategies were anticipated to expand not only employment but also decent work because the industrial sector, with its higher productivity and opportunities for organization, should facilitate improvements

in decent work. Although there has been some progress in improving decent work, there are ongoing challenges and contradictions.

Cambodia's export-led development has been primarily in manufacturing—specifically the garment, textiles, and footwear sector. Garments and footwear, a sector valued at about \$3 billion, accounts for 80% of merchandise exports, with the majority of exports destined for the United States market (WTO 2011, Table AI.1). The sector's initial development was facilitated by the 1996 United States–Cambodia trade agreement which granted Cambodia greater access to the United States market if certain working conditions were met. Despite the end of the trade agreement, exports to the United States have continued, along with exports to Europe and other markets (Dasgupta, Poutiainen, and Williams 2011). The sector is characterized by low levels of labor productivity and infrastructure deficits, and thus the comparative advantage arises from its cheap and abundant workforce of young women and its reputation of good labor standards (ADB 2012b). Garment and footwear production has therefore substantially increased the employment of women (see Box 1).

Philippine exports declined from 2002 to 2011, with the share of total exports as a percentage of GDP falling from 47% to 31% (ADB 2012d, Table 2.10). Exports are highly concentrated, with electronic products accounting for 49% of all exports of goods in 2011 (a value of \$23.7 billion). Agriculture-based products accounted for about 8% of exports, with coconut products representing the largest share.²³ Remittances from Filipino workers employed overseas are a key component of the Philippines' economy. Remittances increased from \$9.7 billion in 2002 to \$23 billion in 2011 and represented 10.7% of GDP in 2010 (ADB 2012d).

The Philippines' export-oriented development strategy ... has not led to an expansion of women's employment in the manufacturing sector relative to other sectors

The Philippines' export-oriented development strategy (primarily electronics, food processing, automobile parts, textiles, and garments) has not led to an expansion of women's employment in the manufacturing sector relative to other sectors. Women's employment in the manufacturing sector represented 9.93% of all women's employment, or 1.45 million women in 2011 (Table 9). By contrast, the manufacturing sector accounted for 11.1% of women's employment, about 1.4 million women, in 2006 (DOLE 2012, Table 3.8). The share of men's employment in the manufacturing category remained at about 8% from 2006 to 2011.

Employment in manufacturing generally offers better decent work opportunities than other sectors, particularly agriculture, where a high percentage of women are unpaid family workers.

In the manufacturing sector, the nominal daily basic pay rate is P302, which is 93% of the average wage, and opportunities exist for voice through unions. However, challenges in providing decent work remain. There is evidence of a decline in voice and representation (unionization), women's difficulties retaining employment after childbirth, and poor health and safety conditions (World Bank 2011a; Lu 2007b).

In Kazakhstan, industry accounts for a larger share of men's employment (26.1%) than women's employment (11.5%). Within industry, mining and quarrying is an important source of high-paying jobs and is tied closely with the country's export-oriented development strategy. Oil, gas, and mining products account for 85% of the country's merchandise exports (WTO 2013). Even so, the amount of employment in the mining sector is fairly small overall and women are not well represented in this relatively high paying sector. In 2011, there were more than three times as many men as women employed in the mining sector (157,300 men compared to only 49,400 women). Similarly, there are more than 2.7 times as many men as women employed in the related transport and storage sector (419,000 men and 127,200 women). Women's share of employment in the mining sector is only 24%, and women's share in the transport sector is 23% (Table 10).

²³ Commodity shares of exports are calculated from Philippines Foreign Trade Statistics, Table 2a.

The mining sector is a high-paying industrial sector for both men and women. For men, average monthly (nominal) earning in the mining sector is T180,012, which is 104% of the average monthly earning for men. For women, the average monthly (nominal) earning in the mining sector is T131,209, 123% of the average monthly earning for women (Table 5). As noted, women are specifically prohibited from 299 jobs, many of which are related to the mining and transport sector. These legal barriers, combined with social norms about appropriate gender work roles, help explain the lower female share of technical education enrollment.

As a development strategy, therefore, the export-led model in Kazakhstan has had only a modest impact on moving toward greater equality of employment and decent work. Certainly, more can be done within the export-oriented mining sector, but given that the majority of employed workers are in agriculture and services, these sectors must also be given attention. Opportunities exist for expanded employment of women in agriculture processing related to wool and wool products, given that the government's strategic diversification priorities include these products.

Services

Growth and structural change have brought about a rise in the share of women's employment in the service sectors in all three countries. Increased service sector employment can be attributed to a growing demand for services associated with the increased incomes of a domestic middle class, but it also may reflect a lack of decent work opportunities, a growing need for income in increasingly marketized economies, or rising landlessness pushing people into work for very low return.

The services sector is large and heterogeneous in productivity, incomes, and amount of decent work. Two key subsectors for women's employment—wholesale and retail trade and services (WRTS) and the public subsector (defined here as the government-related categories public administration, education, and health and social work)—are separated out for further discussion.

In the Philippines, apart from WRTS and the government-related subsectors, the business process outsourcing (BPO) sector provides opportunities for decent work, particularly for well-educated women. Employment in the BPO sector cannot be directly measured with the usual industrial categories, although BPO employment is included with real estate, renting, and business activities (see Box 2). Despite substantial growth, the BPO sector alone cannot drive inclusive growth for the large and increasing number of unemployed or for unemployed workers with moderate skills. Best case estimates indicate that BPO would provide employment for less than 3% of the labor force by 2016 (Usui 2012).

Despite substantial growth, the business process outsourcing sector alone cannot drive inclusive growth for the large and increasing number of unemployed or for unemployed workers with moderate skills

Wholesale and retail trade and services subsector

The WRTS sector typically includes self-employed workers and microenterprises selling food or household goods or making repairs on vehicles. In the Philippines, the WRTS sector is the largest sector for women's employment, whereas in Cambodia and Kazakhstan, it is the second-largest sector after agriculture. Women in general are overrepresented in the WRTS sector, with the female share of employment being approximately 60% in all three countries (see Tables 8, 9, and 10).

In Cambodia, more than 338,000 women worked in the WRTS sector, accounting for almost 10% of women's employment in 2008. Thus, the WRTS sector accounts for a larger share of women's employment than the manufacturing sector, which represented 8% of women's employment in 2008. Even so, the only other service subsectors accounting for more than 1% of women's employment were accommodation and food services (1.06%), education (1.24%), and other services (1.06%). The accommodation and food services subsector employed about 37,000 women in 2008, an increase from an extremely small number in 1998. The increased employment in the accommodation and food services subsector is likely due to increased tourism in the country; nonetheless, the subsector remains relatively small compared to the WRTS sector as a whole (Estrada et al. 2013).

Box 2 Women's Employment in the Business Process Outsourcing Sector, Philippines

Business process outsourcing (BPO) refers to information technology-intensive business processes undertaken by an external provider. The major components are call center services, software development, animation/creative services, data transcription, back office processing, and engineering design. Philippines BPO providers are concentrated in Manila and to a lesser extent in Cebu. BPO services are largely export-oriented, with the United States being the main market. About 70% of revenues are from call center services. The BPO sector's net export revenues have grown to be the third largest in the Philippines after tourism and remittances.

Employment in the BPO sector increased from 101,000 workers in 2004 to 638,000 workers in 2011, representing 1.7% of total employment in the Philippines and 3.5% of service sector employment. Export revenues rose from \$1.5 billion to \$11 billion over the same period. The Business Processing Association of the Philippines predicts that export revenue from the BPO sector will reach \$20 billion to \$25 billion by 2016 and that employment will increase from 900,000 to 1.3 million workers.

BPO represents an important employment sector for well-educated women. About 80% of women employed in the sector are college graduates with a social sciences, engineering, or business background. In order to enable women to access BPO job opportunities, the Department of Labor and Employment first exempted call centers from the Philippine Labor Code provision on night work for women, and new legislation repealing the blanket ban on night work by women and protecting men and women in night work was introduced in 2011.

There is considerable occupational segregation by sex, contributing to a gender wage gap of 13%. Women are mostly customer service representatives, technical support representatives, or client business analysts, whereas men are technical support engineers, team leaders, or quality control officers. In 2008, women represented 55% of all workers in BPO, with higher rates in specific subsectors such as medical transcription (61%), data processing (61%), and call center activities (53%). Women are not well represented in the animation/creative services (26%) or in software (41%).

The main challenges to decent work are health and safety issues. General health concerns include monotony, stress, lack of a positive work culture, and poor promotion opportunities. Specific health issues include eye strain, backaches, headaches, muscular pain due to prolonged sitting, and sleep problems due to shift work. There also are safety issues arising from travelling at night.

Sources: Business Processing Association of the Philippines. Undated. *Philippines IT-BPO Investor Primer 2012*. <http://www.bpap.org/publications/research/investorprimer2012>; L. G. Domingo Cabarrubias. 2011. Gender Matters in the Call Center Industry: A Review of Literature on the Effects of Call Enter Work on Women. *Review of Women's Studies*. 21, 2; M. S. V. Amante. 2010. *Offshored Work in Philippine BPOs*. In J. C. Messenger and N. Ghosheh (eds). *Offshoring and Working Conditions in Remote Work*. Hampshire, UK and New York, US: Routledge and ILO; Philippines National Statistical Coordination Board. 2007. Understanding the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) Industry. http://www.nscb.gov.ph/factsheet/pdf07/FS-200711-ES2-01_BPO.asp; Philippines National Statistics Office. 2012. Business Process Outsourcing Activities: Preliminary Results. <http://www.census.gov.ph/content/2010-asbpi-business-process-outsourcing-bpo-activities-preliminary-results>; R. Keitel, R. del Rosario, and M. D. Ledesma. 2009. *Night Work Prohibition of Women Workers in the Philippine Call Center Industry*. Conference on Regulating for Decent Work: Innovative labour regulation in a turbulent world. Geneva. 8–10 July. <http://www.ilo.org/legacy/english/protection/travail/pdf/rdwpaper35b.pdf>.

In the Philippines, 4.3 million women worked in the WRTS sector, amounting to 30% of all women's employment in 2011.

In Kazakhstan, 732,000 women work in the WRTS sector, accounting for 18% of women's total employment in 2011.

Women's employment in the WRTS sector has expanded enormously in all three countries. Particularly notable is the increase in the Philippines, where almost 700,000 Filipino women joined the WRTS sector between 2006 and 2011 (DOLE 2012, Table 3.8). Although the growth of employment in the WRTS sector may reflect a growing demand for these goods and services, it may also indicate the overall lack of demand for women's labor and the barriers women face in accessing other higher-productivity sectors.

The largest service subsector for women's employment in the Philippines, outside of WRTS, was the "private households with employed people" sector, likely composed primarily of paid domestic workers. The share of women's employment accounted for by this subsector was 11.17%, more than 1.6 million women. Women's share of employment in the private households subsector was 84%. This subsector is particularly low-paying and presents many challenges in obtaining decent work. Private households with employed persons is a large and growing services subsector in the Philippines; from 2006 to 2011, the number of women employed in this subsector increased by 271,000 (DOLE 2012, Table 3.8).

The largest service subsector for women's employment in the Philippines, outside of wholesale and retail trade and services, was the "private households with employed people" sector

This category of "private households with employed people" deserves special mention because it offers particularly poor working conditions, even if paid domestic work is an important and rising source of paid employment, especially for women. Women make up 84% of the domestic workers in the Philippines, and this sector accounts for 11.2% of women's employment. Live-in domestic workers make up a third of domestic workers, and they are mostly young and single women. Average wages are less than half of the average wage for women, and the gender wage gap is very high, given that the female–male wage ratio was 65% in 2011 (Table 9). On average, domestic workers are the lowest paid among wage employees, but they have long working hours. They work on average 9 hours per day which is almost 1 hour more than other wage employees; 33% work 9–10 hours per day and 20% work 11 hours or more daily. There is a lack of legal protection, social security, and health benefits, and workers are also subjected to verbal, physical, and sexual abuse (ILO 2011c; Sayres 2005).

The services sector in all three countries is likely to continue growing. The heterogeneous nature of the sector means that a variety of policy interventions likely are needed to improve women's employment and opportunities. Because the sector tends to be low in productivity and tends to offer limited decent work opportunities, policy interventions should focus on improved productivity and decent work opportunities, reducing gender-specific constraints relating to social biases and lack of education and training, and strategies to facilitate women's access to jobs in other sectors. Policies to enhance women's entrepreneurship also are particularly relevant to the WRTS sector.

Public subsector

Public or government-related employment typically offers more opportunities for decent work and social protection than private sector employment. For example, women working in the public administration sector in Kazakhstan earn 78% of the average wage for women (Table 5), and in the Philippines, relatively high-skilled occupations related to the public sector—officials of government and special-interest organizations, corporate executives, managers, and supervisors—have an average wage of 2.4 times the average wage for women (Table 7). In addition, public sector employees are more likely than employees in the private sector to have access to social insurance, particularly pensions.

Gender inequality in the public sector manifests itself in three main ways. First, women have less access to public subsector employment (which includes public administration, education, and health and social services). Women's more limited access, relative to men, is particularly evident in Cambodia, where women's share of employment in the public administration, defense, and social security category is only 13%, resulting in more than six times as many men as women being employed as public civil servants (Table 8).

Second, women also have less access to high-level occupations within the public subsector (vertical segregation) or face direct wage discrimination. In Kazakhstan's public administration and defense sector, the gender wage gap is 20% (Table 5); in Cambodia, in the occupation legislators, senior officials, and managers, the gender wage gap is 29% (Table 6). Thus, given these gender wage gaps, women experience either direct wage discrimination or are concentrated in lower levels within these broad categories.

Women's more limited access, relative to men, is particularly evident in Cambodia, where ... more than six times as many men as women are employed as public civil servants

Third, women also are crowded into lower wage parts of the public services sector. In Kazakhstan, for example, wages in the education and the health services subsectors are low, with education paying on average 63% of the average monthly nominal salary for all sectors and health services paying 70% of the average, for men and women combined (Table 5). Women are crowded into these lower-paid public sectors—women's share of employment is approximately 74% in education and 72% in health services (Table 10).

A similar lack of access to higher-level occupations is present in the private sector as well. A United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) study reported that only about 25% of all firms in Kazakhstan had women in top management positions.²⁴

Opportunities for expanded employment and decent work in the public sector exist in all three countries. Given the low female share of employment in all three government-related categories in Cambodia, a broad strategy to increase women's access to employment in the public sector may be appropriate. Women in Kazakhstan have access to employment in education, but they are underrepresented in the other two government-related sectors, indicating the need for a more sector-specific strategy. In the Philippines, women have fairly equitable access to government-related employment but are not represented at the higher occupation levels, indicating the need for a strategy to break the glass ceiling.

Entrepreneurship

Businesses in all three countries tend to be small in size. In Cambodia, 97% of all enterprises are microenterprises (defined as an enterprise employing fewer than 10 people) (IFC 2008). In the Philippines, microenterprises accounted for 91% of all enterprises in 2011 (MSMED Council 2011). In Kazakhstan, small legal entities—defined as employing fewer than 51 workers—account for 94% of all legal enterprises (Agency of Statistics 2011, Table 7.31).

Although all owners of micro and small enterprises experience a variety of challenges, women entrepreneurs face additional constraints. In Cambodia, women owned more than 50% of all enterprises but were more likely to operate micro and small enterprises in 2007. Moreover, women are much less likely than men to operate in the manufacturing and construction sectors and are less likely to be oriented toward the international market (IFC 2008). Women's limited education in Cambodia also compounds the challenges of business registration and of obtaining and interpreting business regulations and information. Social norms regarding the appropriateness of women interacting with male business owners and government officials make it difficult for women to obtain business information, and women report more difficulty than men in hiring, managing, and retaining male staff. In addition, women's domestic and care responsibilities

²⁴ See UNDP, Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States.

reduce the amount of time they are available to work. Women are also reportedly more likely than men to be charged unofficial fees (bribes) by government inspectors and tax collectors, due to their lack of knowledge and assertiveness.

In the Philippines, women owned 55% of newly registered businesses in 2010. However, it is more common to not register businesses and sex-disaggregated data on these unregistered businesses are limited. One estimate indicates that women own 34% of unregistered enterprises, but this estimate may be low because informal enterprises include agriculture households, which are more likely to be counted as being owned by men. Among new businesses registered by women, 51% engage in retail activities, 41% engage in service, and only 5.5% engage in manufacturing (GTZ 2010, 45–46 and Table 7). Constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in the Philippines include limited access to capital and credit, due to lack of collateral; limited access to value-enhancing inputs such as business development services, technology, and training; lack of information; high transaction costs on business development services and credit; and domestic and care responsibilities, which restrict the time available to operate an enterprise (Philippines Commission on Women 2012).

In Kazakhstan, women headed 41% of all small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs)—individual entrepreneurship, legal entities, or farm households—in 2011. Small enterprises employ 50 or fewer workers; medium-sized enterprises employ 51–250 workers. Eighty-three percent of women's SMEs are individual entrepreneurship, compared to 52% of men's SMEs; 10% are legal entities, compared to 24% of men's SMEs; and 7% are farm households, compared to 23% of men's SMEs. Most women's entrepreneurial activities are in the wholesale and retail trade and services sector. About 36% of legal enterprises and 57% of individual entrepreneurship are in the WRTS sector (Government of Kazakhstan 2011, Tables 8.1 and 8.3). Although women's enterprises tend to be smaller than men's, the returns to scale may actually be higher after controlling for size. Constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in Kazakhstan include a lack of credit, business skills, information, networks and associations, and female role models (OSCE 2010).

In Kazakhstan, women headed 41% of all small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) ... in 2011.

Strategies to increase the profitability of women's businesses must take account of the specific constraints faced by women as well as the more general constraints faced by owners of microenterprises and own-account workers.

International Migration

The increased feminization of net emigration patterns out of Cambodia and the Philippines is indicative of the lack of employment and decent work in these two countries. Remittances to the Philippines represent a larger share of GDP than official development assistance, foreign direct investment, or gross domestic savings, although these remittances are in large part consumed rather than invested in job creation efforts (Ang, Sugiyarto, and Jha 2009). Kazakhstan, on the other hand, experiences net immigration into the country. During the period 2005–2010, the net international migration rate was –3.7 per 1,000 people for Cambodia, –2.80 per 1,000 people for the Philippines, and 0.10 per 1,000 people for Kazakhstan (ADB 2012d).

There are over 1.5 million Filipinos working abroad, equal to about 4% of the population currently employed in the Philippines, and 54.5% of all overseas Filipino workers are women.²⁵ A gendered division exists in both overseas and domestic employment opportunities; women are most likely to be employed in household service, caregiving, cleaning, and nursing occupations; men are most likely to be employed in trades and service occupations (POEA 2010, Table 12).

Data on registered international migration in Cambodia show higher rates of migration among women than among men and a trend toward feminization. There were 11,000 registered female migrants compared to 4,000 male migrants in 2009. The key destinations are Malaysia, the

²⁵ Calculated from POEA (2010) and DOLE (2011a, Table 3.8).

Republic of Korea, and Thailand, with the majority of women migrating to Malaysia (ILO 2010c, Table 3.10). Estimates of the number of irregular migrants are substantially greater, with one estimate indicating that there are over 180,000 Cambodian migrants in Thailand (UNIFEM 2006). Women migrants experience numerous problems, including being forced into prostitution, sexual harassment, limited or no access to health facilities, poor working conditions, confiscation of their documents, and unwarranted deductions from pay (UNIFEM 2006; Piper 2008).

Kazakhstan experiences net immigration into the country, particularly from other Central Asian countries, as well as immigration of ethnic Kazakhs. An estimated 15%–30% of migrant workers in Kazakhstan are women (UN Women 2012). Women immigrants most often work in agriculture or provide household services such as domestic work or care provision, whereas men immigrants are typically found in construction. Migrants to Kazakhstan experience a variety of difficulties in the labor market, including poor work and living conditions, excessive work hours, irregular payment of salaries, lack of access to health care services, and forced labor. Migrant women, compared to migrant men, face greater risks of physical, psychological, and sexual violence, as well as inferior working conditions (Government of Kazakhstan and UN Country Team 2010; Anderson and Hancilova 2011; UN Women 2012).

Pathways to Gender Equality in the Labor Market and Inclusive Growth

Comprehensive social service provision ... would reduce women's unpaid domestic and care burden, making it feasible for women to participate in paid work

Gender inequality in the labor market exists in all three countries, with observed gender gaps in participation and employment outcomes. Despite increased labor force participation rates from 2000 to 2012 among women in all three countries under discussion (and a decreased LFPR gender gap in two of the countries), gender gaps in other dimensions did not uniformly decrease over the decade. Progress was made in reducing the gender human capital gap in Cambodia and the vulnerable employment gap in Kazakhstan. However, the gender wage gap, one indicator of the decent work gap, has increased in Cambodia, and gaps in all dimensions persist despite employment and economic growth.

Strategies to reduce labor market gender inequality are required, and although differences in the countries' labor market structures and experiences indicate different pathways to gender equitable employment and inclusive growth, there are some common elements. In general, all three countries face the task of continuing to generate employment growth, reducing vulnerable employment, and improving decent work. This requires broad macroeconomic strategy responses to expand employment opportunities, and policies and regulations to improve decent work and social protection.

Active labor market programs are needed to ensure that education and vocational training reach both women and men and that women are supported in nontraditional areas of training. Comprehensive social service provision, including water, sanitation, transport, and various forms of child care, would reduce women's unpaid domestic and care burden, making it feasible for women to participate in paid work. Social protection programs need to be extended to include informal employment, and programs related to formal employment should be revised to improve gender equity. The extension of employment regulations such as formal employment contracts, minimum wages, parental leaves, and safety and health standards to include informal and vulnerable work must be explored.

There are also country-specific differences that need to be taken into account in developing a gender-aware employment strategy. In Cambodia, women primarily work in the agriculture sector as either paid or unpaid workers. Equal access to assets such as land, education, and extension services and credit, which can raise productivity, are key components of an inclusive growth strategy. Some women workers, especially young women, have found paying work in the garment sector, and although the sector has offered opportunities for these women,

a lack of enforcement of minimum wage legislation, low levels of skill development and job progression, and a lack of voice prevent the realization of greater gains for women. Employment opportunities exist in the garment sector and in new areas of manufacturing, in tourism, and in the public sector.

In the Philippines, the exceptionally low levels of labor force participation among women in general, and among 16- to 35-year-old women in particular, points to the need to address labor demand and domestic care constraints through broader social protection and public service measures. When employed, women are concentrated in the WRTS sector, which is characterized by low productivity and high vulnerability. Equal access to credit and training and broader social protection policies are required. The expansion of the BPO sector has led to wage work for women, but skills upgrading remains a particular challenge for women, as do health and safety. A renewed manufacturing sector may also improve employment opportunities.

In the Philippines, the exceptionally low levels of labor force participation among women in general ... points to the need to address labor demand and domestic care constraints

Women in Kazakhstan are employed at the same rate as men in the nonagriculture sector, but women's earnings are substantially lower as a result of widespread occupational and industrial segregation. Moving toward greater gender equality in the labor market requires breaking down the barriers to women's entry into a range of high-paying industries. This effort should begin with tertiary education and must encompass sector-specific factors. Employment opportunities may exist in the resource sector and in the country's developing manufacturing sector.

At present, the export sector is a relatively small employer of women in these three countries. Although agriculture is likely to remain important and, in conformity with global trends, services are likely to expand, export-related employment is harder to predict because it depends on the level of global demand and on shifting comparative advantages among countries. Even so, the export sector provides opportunities for decent work for women if regulations are enforced. In general, moreover, women must be more fully included in training and upgrading programs, giving them adaptable and transferable skills to adjust to changing patterns of demand.



Review of Policies for Gender Equality in the Labor Market

The national development goals in Cambodia and the Philippines recognize equity in general, although no specific mention is made of gender equality

The three developing member countries' national strategies to promote gender equality in the labor market for inclusive growth are based on both legislation and policy. Legislation is most often associated with protecting or enforcing fundamental human rights and establishing stable legal relationships in the workplace—aims that are achieved by setting enforceable minimum standards. Policy, on the other hand, is more flexible and may depend on global economic conditions, a country's specific economic and political circumstances, or a country's comparative level of development.

This section considers three separate areas of policy making: national development goals and macroeconomic policies, national women's ministries and gender equality strategies, and key sector policies to provide real opportunities for women's employment in each of the DMCs.

National Development Goals and Macroeconomic Policies

High-Level Goals and Commitments to Gender Equality

The national development goals in Cambodia and the Philippines recognize equity in general, although no specific mention is made of gender equality. For example, the national development goal of Cambodia is to build "peace, political stability, security and social order, and sustainable and equitable development" (Government of Cambodia 2008, 8; 2010). The development goal in the Philippines is inclusive growth, defined in the key planning document Philippines Development Plan 2011–2016 as "sustained growth that massively creates jobs, draws the vast majority into the economic and social mainstream, and continuously reduces mass poverty" (NEDA 2011, 18). In Kazakhstan, the overarching goal, as expressed in the Kazakhstan 2030 Strategy, is to make "the country into one of the safest, most stable, ecologically sustained states of the world with a dynamically developing economy" (Nazarbayev, undated; Government of Kazakhstan 2010).

Reference to gender inequality in Millennium Development Goal reports and indicators reveals support for promoting gender equality. In fact, in several instances, targets have been added to enhance the monitoring of gender equality and/or employment. In Cambodia, for example, the government expressed its commitment to achieving gender equity in wage employment in agriculture and industry by 2010 and in services by 2015 (Government of Cambodia 2011).

The Philippines has incorporated the new employment targets for "full and productive employment and decent work" recommended by UNDP, as related to MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. However, the indicators are not sex-disaggregated. Monitoring these targets using sex-disaggregated indicators would assist the assessment of progress toward poverty reduction

for men and women, even though women's ability to control their earnings varies across context, and with education, marital status, and other factors. With respect to MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women, the Philippines does report on target indicator, the share of women in wage employment in the nonagriculture sector (NSCB, MDG Watch).

In Kazakhstan, the target for MDG 1 has been expanded to include indicators related to balanced nutrition but it does not appear that the country has adopted the new targets related to productive employment and decent work. This would be a step forward, especially if the targets are sex-disaggregated. With respect to MDG 3, however, Kazakhstan has developed innovative targets: to "increase women's representation in legislative and executive bodies; to ensure legislative and enforcement measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women; and to ensure sustainable gender mainstreaming of national planning and budgeting, especially aiming at minimizing the gender wage gap" (UNDP, MDGs in Kazakhstan).

In short, although gender equality is not explicitly expressed in their national goals, all three countries have indicated their commitment to promoting gender equality in other parts of the national plans and in the sector-specific plans.

Although gender equality is not explicitly expressed in their national goals, all three countries have indicated their commitment to promoting gender equality in other parts of the national plans and in the sector-specific plans

Monetary Policy

In Cambodia and the Philippines, as in many other countries, the main objectives of monetary policy are low and stable inflation and management of the exchange rate, in addition to strictly monetary targets. In Cambodia, the National Strategic Development Plan Update 2009–2013 indicates that the objectives of monetary policy are to "maintain price stability with an inflation target of under 5% [and] to manage a floating exchange rate regime." (Government of Cambodia 2010, 89). In the Philippines, the Philippine Development Plan 2011–2016 states that "monetary policy will remain committed to the achievement of low and stable inflation that is conducive to a balanced and sustainable growth of output and employment," with an inflation target of 4% within a band of plus or minus 1%. The monetary authority also will "continue to adopt a flexible exchange rate policy" (NEDA 2011, 58).

The central banks in both countries have been charged with strengthening the finance sector. The National Bank of Cambodia is required to "expand the scope of the microfinance services that are urgently needed to meet the requirements of small businesses and rural communities, in particular small landholder farmers" (Government of Cambodia 2010, 90), and it is charged with developing the nonbank financial institutions. The Philippine Development Plan 2011–2016 indicates that "policymakers will need to focus on leveraging remittances as a tool for economic development" (NEDA 2011, 53). The emphasis is on creating an environment to facilitate remittances used for investment and entrepreneurial activities as well as consumption and human capital expenditures.

A stable macroeconomic environment clearly is important for economic growth. However, there may also be opportunities for monetary policy to contribute more to inclusive growth. Globally, central bank objectives are undergoing review, and the objectives of monetary policy are expanding beyond inflation targeting to include employment. As a result, central banks in many industrialized countries have introduced so-called unconventional policies, including quantitative easing, designed to place more emphasis on employment and output conditions.²⁶

The strategy of expanding monetary policy objectives to include employment is supported by empirical evidence that deflationary periods are associated with employment declines, especially for women in developing countries (Braunstein and Heintz 2006).²⁷ In addition, some countries,

²⁶ See Epstein (2007) and Cobham (2012).

²⁷ See also Epstein and Yeldan (2008).

such as the United States, take account of information on employment and output as well as prices in making monetary adjustments (Lim 2006). Such a strategy is consistent with announcing a band on the inflation target. Therefore, incorporating explicit employment targets (rather than leaving employment implicit) could contribute to promoting gender-responsive employment growth, given women's greater employment vulnerability during economic downturns.

As central banks work to strengthen the finance sector both in terms of prudential regulation and in the capacity to meet the needs of the real economy, there is an opportunity to do so in a gender-responsive manner, thereby enhancing efficiency and gender equity. In Cambodia, there is an awareness of the gendered constraints faced by entrepreneurs and an understanding that further information is needed to develop gender-responsive financial strategies and services. Cambodia's Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan 2008–2012 (GMAP) recognizes that women entrepreneurs may have different needs than men. The GMAP further indicates that one of its activities will be to encourage research on the different needs of women and men.

Incorporating explicit employment targets ... could contribute to promoting gender-responsive employment growth, given women's greater employment vulnerability during economic downturns

In the Philippines, the central bank is charged with improving the financial environment to make productive use of remittances. A key source of remittances is Filipino women working overseas. Before policies redirecting the use of remittances can be designed, therefore, the implications for women working abroad and for the families to whom they are sending their remittances must be examined.

In general, making monetary policy sensitive to gendered employment outcomes, particularly in economic downturns, could support women's employment. Such monetary policy, combined with strengthening the financial sector to make it responsive to women's financial constraints, could contribute to promoting women's employment and inclusive growth.

Fiscal Policy

Fiscal policy related to government expenditures and taxation across all sectors of the economy (agriculture, industry, and services) as well expenditures relating to human capital development, labor market supports, and social protection is a key macroeconomic policy for facilitating gender-equitable employment. Most government expenditures will have gendered employment impacts, either directly or indirectly. For example, expenditure on infrastructure is likely to increase men's employment to a greater extent than it increases women's employment, given the strong occupational and industrial segregation in the fields related to infrastructure development. Expenditures on education and health, on the other hand, may positively impact women's employment to a greater extent. However, expansion of fiscal policy is limited by high debt-to-GDP ratios in the Philippines and by low government revenues in Cambodia.

Good practice related to fiscal expenditures is to set targets for women's direct employment and to ensure a gender-responsive design that enables women to benefit equally from the investment. Ensuring that women are employed directly by government-funded projects not only provides employment but also can serve to break down gender stereotypes, potentially making it easier for women to be hired in nontraditional areas in the future. Elements of these good practices can be found in each of the three countries' existing policies, but they could be adopted in additional areas. One example of good practices in this regard is the infrastructure program in Cambodia (see Box 3). In general, however, budget allocations specified in government documents do not include a gender dimension, and a gendered analysis of sector spending priorities and commitments is absent. A high-level gender analysis of government expenditures related to employment should be considered.

Box 3 Gender-Sensitive Employment Targets and Gender Capacity Building in Rural Infrastructure Projects, Cambodia

The Cambodia Ministry of Public Works and Transport, partnering with the Asian Development Bank (ADB), intends to rehabilitate about 157 kilometers of provincial roads in 100 districts in the provinces of Kampong Chhnang, Kampong Speu, Prey Vang, and Svay Rieng and to construct a cross-border facility between Cambodia and Viet Nam. The road rehabilitation project design demonstrates good practices related to women's employment and gender capacity building, including explicit gender-sensitive employment and wage targets, and key capacity building activities with targets for women facilitators and government staff training. Labor-appropriate technologies are to be used for rehabilitation and ongoing maintenance, and at least 30% of unskilled road rehabilitation laborers and 50% of road maintenance workers are to be women. Men and women will receive equal pay for equal work.

The project will provide training and capacity building on road safety and gender awareness. Specifically, at least 40% of community facilitators are to be women, and all Ministry of Public Works and Transport staff engaged with the road project will be trained on gender awareness/mainstreaming and social and risk mitigation issues, including prevention of HIV/AIDS transmission and human trafficking. Finally, sex-disaggregated baseline socioeconomic data will be collected on beneficiaries.

Source: Asian Development Bank and Government of Cambodia. 2012. Loan Agreement (Special Operations): Provincial Roads Improvement Project. Loan Number 2839-CAM (SF) CAM 43309. <http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/projdocs/2012/43309-013-cam-sfj1.pdf>.

Trade Policy

In contrast with monetary and fiscal policies, trade policies have been explicitly linked with employment in national plans, and both Cambodia and the Philippines have identified employment targets or indicators. In Cambodia, one trade monitoring indicator is the number of workers in factories registered for export under trade-preferential treatment (Government of Cambodia 2010, Table 20). The Better Factories Cambodia program, for instance, links both the quantity and the quality of jobs with increased trade (see Box 4). In the Philippines, the number of workers is estimated in key targeted trade sectors (Department of Trade and Industry 2012). Setting employment targets is an important step in raising awareness and accountability and making trade employment-oriented.

Trade policies typically identify a set of products and services that will be targeted for support, along with mechanisms to support increased production and export.²⁸ For example, Cambodia has identified 19 such products and services. Targeted agricultural products include organic rice, rubber, cassava, freshwater fish, fruit, vegetables, soybeans, cashew nuts, corn, beer, and silk. In the industry sector, focus products include wood products, garments, footwear, and assembly in electronics and other manufacturing. The services sector focuses on tourism, transport, business services, and web-based services.

The Philippines' Department of Trade and Industry's (2012, 32) export sectors of focus are "[information technology business process outsourcing] and other services, electronics, agribusiness products (food, coconuts, and other resource-based products), minerals, shipbuilding, motor vehicle parts, garments and textiles, home-style products (furniture, furnishings, decors), and wearables (fashion accessories, shoes, bags, jewelry) and value-enhanced categories (i.e., natural and organic products, green products, halal, and kosher)."

²⁸ See WTO (2011).

Setting employment targets is an important step in raising awareness and accountability and making trade employment-oriented

Box 4 Better Factories Cambodia Project

Better Factories Cambodia (BFC) is an International Labour Organization (ILO) program to benefit domestic workers and employers as well as consumers in Western countries through mandatory monitoring of working conditions in registered Cambodian garment and footwear factories. BFC was established in 2001 to help the garment sector meet the requirements of the United States–Cambodia trade agreement, which gave Cambodia increased access to the market in the United States contingent on improved compliance with national and international labor standards.

The BFC monitors a set of working conditions consistent with the Law on Labour and ILO standards, as agreed to by the government, employers, and unions. The monitoring involves unannounced factory visits, direct observation of factory conditions, review of documents, and interviews with individual workers, union representatives, and management. It publishes a quarterly synthesis report of its findings. The BFC also assists employers in improving working conditions and productivity through human resource management, labor law, and dispute resolution training and resources.

The BFC has contributed to improvements in decent work. One report concluded that “while the industry in Cambodia remains one that is low skilled, low paid and hard work, compliance monitoring by the programme has since promoted a more responsible model of (formal) garment production, one centred on a basic and fundamental set of rights and conditions at work” (Dasgupta, Poutiainen, and Williams 2011, 16). The mandatory inclusion of all export factories creates a level playing field that contributes to the success of the program. In addition, the process is transparent and credible and the program’s emphasis is on continuous improvement rather than complete compliance.

Nonetheless, challenges to improving decent work in the registered factories remain, and it will be necessary to bring subcontracting factories into the monitoring program to improve conditions across the sector.

Source: ADB. 2012. *Gender Equality in the Labour Market in Cambodia*. Unpublished; S. Dasgupta, T. Poutiainen, and D. Williams. 2011. *From Downturn to Recovery: Cambodia’s Garment Sector in Transition*. Phnom Penh: International Labour Organization.

[G]endered value-chain analysis may be useful to identify which products and services women provide compared to men, and at what points in the chain

Given strong horizontal and vertical sex segregation in employment, promoting production in selected products and services will have gendered employment effects, and a gendered analysis of such effects is therefore necessary in both countries. It may be necessary, for example, to promote products produced by women along with those produced by men. Further, gendered value-chain analysis may be useful to identify which products and services women provide compared to men, and at what points in the chain.

Initiatives to facilitate trade need to take account of and address the gender-specific constraints on entrepreneurs. An example of good practice is provided by Cambodia’s Ministry of Commerce, which recognizes that women entrepreneurs benefit less than men from public sector–supported training, promotion, and networking, and the ministry has proposed undertaking women-specific initiatives, including support for women’s business associations (Ministry of Commerce and Ministry of Women’s Affairs 2012).

Although the link between trade and employment is generally recognized, employment indicators should be sex-disaggregated to improve the gender equality of employment in exports. Gendered analysis of employment also should be conducted in domestic sectors that compete with imports, examining how changes in tariff structure might affect the employment of both men and women. Strategies to promote exports and employment in goods and services might consider undertaking a gender analysis of the value chain to identify where women are currently employed, develop mechanisms to support their employment, and identify avenues to expand their employment.

Employment Policy

There is growing awareness of the importance of employment and decent work for inclusive growth at the national level. The Government of Cambodia, in conjunction with the ILO, is developing a national employment policy, defined as “an explicit and strategically placed policy framework to expand and ensure access to productive employment opportunities in a nondiscriminatory manner,” and held the first tripartite workshop on national employment policy in August 2012 (Matsumoto 2012). The national employment policy will provide a mechanism to coordinate employment strategies across sectors. Policy development is a participatory process and mechanisms will be needed to ensure that women are included in planning and implementation and that the policy meets the needs of women.

The Government of Cambodia’s Decent Work Country Program (2011–2015) was developed in consultation with Cambodia’s employers’ organizations and workers’ organizations, and the ILO. The program focuses on improving industrial relations, promoting an enabling environment for decent work, and improving social protection (ILO 2011b). The program will need to ensure that women are fully included. The government’s ability to draw upon the resources of and work in conjunction with the ILO is an example of “institutional leapfrogging.” It has also resulted in the inclusion of gender goals and policies in the private sector development and employment generation component of Cambodia’s national plan.

Opportunities remain to make employment policies more gender responsive

There are a number of positive dimensions in the employment policy of the Philippine Development Plan. First, the plan identifies employment targets: to create 1 million new jobs annually. Such targets are important, and the next step would be to establish gender-equitable employment targets. Second, the plan articulates a strategy that blends a growth-led path with an employment-led path to employment creation. It also gives explicit attention to decent work (DOLE 2011b). Third, the plan identifies three labor market interventions of particular relevance to employment-led growth and vulnerable populations—establishing employment guarantee programs, strengthening the Emergency Community Employment program, and implementing active labor market programs—and women are explicitly mentioned as one of the target groups. Thus, there is some recognition of gender issues, but greater gender awareness is still possible. Finally, the Philippine Labor and Employment Plan 2011–2016 briefly mentions the gender gap in labor force participation rates, and the Philippine Development Plan 2011–2016 recognizes that women are disadvantaged in employment due to “due to differences in gender roles that limit their access to productive resources and basic services” (DOLE 2011b, 238). Although this is an important point, there is need for further analysis of the underlying structural causes of women’s disadvantage and of gender-specific employment strategies to overcome this disadvantage.

To varying degrees, employment policies in the three countries under discussion incorporate high-level employment goals and recognize the links between employment and inclusive growth, employment targets, and specific employment creation programs. Opportunities remain to make employment policies more gender-responsive, including more detailed analysis of the constraints and discrimination women face in employment, adoption of strategies to enhance women’s employment, and setting of sex-disaggregated targets with accountable monitoring and evaluation.

National Women’s Ministries or Commissions and Gender Equality Strategies

All three countries have introduced government ministries or commissions to promote gender equality. Rather than creating a structure inside another ministry, Cambodia has created the stand-alone Ministry of Women’s Affairs (MOWA), indicating a relatively strong commitment to gender equality (UN ESCAP 2010). The Philippine Commission on Women is a government unit under

the office of the president and has oversight responsibilities, also indicative of a high level of a commitment to gender equality. In Kazakhstan, the National Commission for Women's Affairs, Family, and Demographic Policy has been given responsibility for promoting gender equality.

The strategies to promote gender equality, particularly as they relate to gender equality in the labor market, are analyzed by focusing upon three issues: gendered constraints, women's participation, and accountability. First, attention is given to whether the strategies recognize that men and women may face different constraints in accessing productive employment, decent work, and/or government services, and that specific policy measures are needed to address these gendered constraints. Second, there is an examination of the opportunities for women to participate both inside and outside of government and to influence strategy. Finally, there is an assessment of mechanisms to promote accountability and advance gender equality. Such mechanisms include sex-disaggregated data collection, quotas for women in services received and in employment, targets for gender mainstreaming plans, and gender budgets.

Cambodia

Cambodia's establishment of a separate Ministry of Women's Affairs raises the status of gender issues, provides a channel through which women's voices can be heard, and enables development of a broad gender mainstreaming program. MOWA has prepared the Five-Year Strategic Plan 2009–2013: Neary Rattanak III to guide Cambodia's national and subnational gender and development plans. The aim has been to inculcate a "gender reflex" across policy areas.

Women's public sector participation, both in government and in politics, is constrained by traditional gender stereotypes, domestic and care burdens, and women's lack of leadership and management experience

The national gender mainstreaming institutional machinery includes four main elements.²⁹ First, MOWA contributes to the gender-responsive policies and programs of line ministries and subnational units. The ministry is responsible for increasing the number of women in decision making, promoting economic empowerment of women, supporting the Cambodia National Council for Women, enforcing the legal protection of women, raising awareness, and combating discriminatory attitudes. Second, the Cambodia National Council for Women includes representatives of national line ministries and is responsible for evaluating policies and laws related to the promotion of women's status. Third, the Women's and Children's Consultative Committees operate subnationally to promote gender equality. Finally, gender mainstreaming action groups within line ministries have primary responsibility for preparing gender mainstreaming action plans.

There is awareness of gendered constraints in accessing employment and government services. The Five-Year Strategic Plan recognizes that women's access to employment in the private sector is limited by "traditional attitudes about 'appropriate' occupations for women and men" and that women are constrained by lower levels of education and literacy (MOWA 2009, 5). Moreover, women's public sector participation, both in government and in politics, is constrained by traditional gender stereotypes, domestic and care burdens, and women's lack of leadership and management experience.

The Gender Mainstreaming Policy and Strategy in Agriculture offers a useful description of the constraints women face in accessing productive resources and hence employment in the private sector as well as women's more limited access to government services. The GMAP recognizes women-specific constraints related to land, training, and credit, and notes that, although women provide 74% of the labor in the agriculture sector and 80% of food production, they only receive 10% of extension services (Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2006). The gender mainstreaming strategy in agriculture notes that both men and women should benefit from ministry programs to address gender inequalities in access to government programs.

Cambodia has undertaken both gender mainstreaming and gender-specific strategies to promote gender equality. Gender mainstreaming action groups were established in 2005, and many

²⁹ For a description of the aims of each group, see MOWA (2009). See also ADB (2012b).

ministries have developed gender mainstreaming action plans similar to the one for agriculture. Sixteen ministries have completed a GMAP for their sector, and four other ministries are developing GMAPs (Government of Cambodia 2010).

Several ministries offer examples of gender-specific strategies. For instance, the Ministry of Commerce indicates that it will undertake women-specific initiatives such as promoting the participation of businesswomen in domestic and international exhibitions, support businesswomen's associations, and document success stories of women's businesses (Ministry of Commerce and Ministry of Women's Affairs 2012). The GMAP for the Ministry of Agriculture indicates that the ministry will implement study tours for women farmers and support the creation of female farmers' groups.

Awareness of the importance of increasing representation of women in the civil service is an important first step in gender mainstreaming

MOWA operates women's development centers, providing an example of how targeted resources for poor women can increase their incomes and decision making within the household.³⁰ The project provides life skills for women (such as nutrition, home safety, and women workers' rights instruction) and an institutional vehicle for advocacy and small enterprise development, including management and financial training as well as technical training on product standards. By focusing on women through a participatory approach, the women's development center project reported that off-farm activities of women increased significantly. Most participants' incomes increased, which consequently reduced women's migration and enabled them to have a say in the use of income.

This type of integrated training program, which included the training of ministry staff, is an example of a good practice and provides lessons that can be valuable for other countries. At the same time, however, there is the opportunity to strengthen the women's development centers, to move beyond gender stereotyping in the types of training offered, and to enable the centers to promote women's income and economic empowerment. In this way, gender constraints are recognized and some strategies to address them are devised, although there is still room for greater strategic action.

Increasing women's participation and control over development strategies is important for promoting gender equality. Awareness of the importance of increasing representation of women in the civil service is an important first step in gender mainstreaming, given women's small share of civil service employment, and may act as a catalyst for wider social change by validating women's employment in skilled positions.³¹ There presently are mechanisms through which women can have input in the gender planning process. For example, the Cambodian National Council for Women, an interministerial committee, and the subnational women's and children's consultative committees both explicitly promote gender equality. Additional participation of the private sector and civil society may be a way to strengthen women's participation.

The inclusion of targets in national planning documents can assist in orienting expenditures toward women and support gender-sensitive program design. To this end, Cambodia is incorporating gender-sensitive targets into its national plans. For example, the National Strategic Development Plan Update 2009–2013 includes targets for the "number of ministries/institutions that have formulated a gender mainstreaming action plan" as well as other useful indicators of gender equality in the labor market (Government of Cambodia 2010, 182). Sector-specific plans also identify targets. For instance, the GMAP for agriculture established sex-disaggregated targets that at least 50% of poor, female-headed farming households in target areas would be able to access food security programs by 2010, that the number of women using various credit services would increase by 50%, and that women's participation in community groups also would increase by 50% (Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2006). This type of explicit target

³⁰ See MOWA (undated, Women's Development Centres Project Final Report).

³¹ See, for example, the National Strategic Development Plan (Government of Cambodia 2010), which recognizes the underrepresentation of women in the civil service, the existence of a "glass ceiling," and women's lack of training.

setting is useful for benchmarking and monitoring purposes and can be replicated elsewhere. A similar commitment to monitoring and evaluation is outlined in the Five-Year Strategic Plan 2009–2013: Neary Rattanak III, and a national congress will assess the effect of the plan at the end of the 5 years.

Despite training and commitment in Cambodia, problems remain. For example, there remains a lack of understanding about how to undertake gender mainstreaming, gender mainstreaming action plans are not well connected with main planning processes, and a lack of resources has limited GMAP implementation (Chea 2011).

The Philippines

The Philippine Commission on Women (PCW) is responsible for incorporating gender into sector plans and the overall national development plan. Gender and development focal points exist within each government agency, and each agency is charged with developing gender and development plans. The key guiding document is the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995–2025 (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 1998).³² The PCW (2013a) is currently developing a new gender and development plan called the Women's Empowerment, Development, and Gender Equality Plan for 2013–2016 (the Women's EDGE Plan). The PCW undertakes policy studies, conducts pilot projects, and provides technical services and resources.³³

An example of a good gender mainstreaming practice is the Gender-Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of Women (GREAT Women) project

Women face different constraints from men in the labor market and more broadly. This is recognized in a recent notable legislative achievement, the Republic Act No. 9710, known as the Magna Carta of Women, enacted in 2009. This act recognizes that the "equality of men and women entails the abolition of the unequal structures and practices that perpetuate discrimination and inequality" (PCW 2010, 36). In connection with employment, the PCW indicates that the Magna Carta of Women will "level the playing field by making productive resources and economic opportunities equally available for both men and women." It is further noted that "generally, women do not control family properties and decision-making rights on the use of income, further limiting opportunities to break the poverty cycle."³⁴

One of the focus areas of the PCW is women's economic empowerment. An example of a good gender mainstreaming practice is the Gender-Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of Women (GREAT Women) project, implemented by the PCW (see Box 5). The PCW endorses the view that good governance is gender responsive and "enhances the abilities of women and men to contribute to and benefit from development."³⁵ The PCW has responsibility for gender mainstreaming at subnational levels of government, strengthening linkages and partnerships among partners, and promoting the representation of women. There also is support for the involvement of women from outside of government.

The PCW has implemented a variety of mechanisms to support gender mainstreaming and accountability. For example, it creates a variety of publications and briefs, such as the Harmonized GAD Guidelines (2007), available on its website to provide assistance and tools relevant to gender mainstreaming. It also supports the collection and dissemination of sex-disaggregated statistics and reviews key legislation related to women and gender equality.

³² Other key gender and development planning documents have been developed by the PCW and are available on their website (<http://pcw.gov.ph/publication/types/Reference>).

³³ See PCW webpage, *About Us: Functions*.

³⁴ See PCW webpage, *Women's Economic Empowerment*.

³⁵ See PCW webpage, *Focus Areas*.

Box 5 Gender-Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of Women Project, Philippines

The Gender-Responsive Economic Actions for the Transformation of Women (GREAT Women) project is a capacity development project designed to support the development of sustainable women's microenterprises, contributing to more and better jobs for both women and men. The GREAT Women project, led by the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW), partners with national government departments, national agencies, and local government units to create gender-responsive policies and programs that support women's economic empowerment. With financial support from the Canadian International Development Agency, the initial 5-year project (2006–2012) has been extended.

The Canadian International Development Agency (2010, 42) concluded that "The GREAT Women Project is promoting women's economic rights.... [I]t has helped women micro-entrepreneurs have a clearer idea about what economic rights they can claim, and how to go about claiming these, or accessing services information and technical support... It has contributed significantly to preparing selected LGUs [Local Government Units] and NGAs [National Government Agencies] to become better duty bearers."

The project has enhanced the PCW's capacity to offer gender-sensitive enterprise and local economic development technical assistance to national and local partners. The PCW website, which records efforts to document activities undertaken and lessons learned, provides a useful resource for government agencies and microentrepreneurs.

Nationally, partners have enhanced the environment for microentrepreneurs by developing gender-sensitive programs and tools, such as a gender-responsive value chain analysis and planning for technologies related to food processing, bulletins on health and safety hazards, and guides on gender awareness in the workplace. The increase in knowledge has been linked to greater budget allocations for women's economic empowerment.

Local project impacts include improved gender responsiveness of plans and legislation, collection of sex-disaggregated baseline data, and strengthened partnerships between government and civil society to facilitate women's access to services.

Women entrepreneurs now have better access to government services, training in business and leadership skills, business support services, credit assistance, and linkages with local markets. A GREAT Women brand of upscale food products has also been created.

Sources: Government of the Philippines, Philippine Commission on Women. 2013. *Convergence for Women's Empowerment*. Official Magazine of the GREAT Women Project. Manila. http://pcw.gov.ph/sites/default/files/documents/resources/gwp_magazine_2013_january_edition.pdf; Government of the Philippines, Philippine Commission on Women. *The GREAT Women Project*. <http://pcw.gov.ph/gwp>; Government of Canada; Canadian International Development Agency. 2010. *Philippines Program. Gender Equality Monitoring Report*. Philippines–Canada Cooperation Office.

The Philippines is a leader in the use of a gender budget (see Box 6) and has incorporated gender audits to increase compliance with gender mainstreaming initiatives (Illo 2010, 117). Despite the many and sophisticated measures to promote gender equality in the Philippines, women in the Philippines still experience a variety of challenges in accessing productive employment and decent work. The major problem appears to be ensuring that policies, strategies, and action plans are in fact implemented, monitored, and assessed using the approach taken in the GREAT Women project.

Kazakhstan

The National Commission for Women's Affairs, Family, and Demographic Policy is Kazakhstan's main government unit responsible for promoting gender equality and integrating official gender equality policy into the national development strategy.³⁶ All regions, as well as the cities of Astana and Almaty, have a Commission for Women's Affairs, and there is an intention to include gender issues in regional strategic planning. The promotion of gender equality, approved in 2005,

³⁶ For background on the National Commission for Women's Affairs, see ADB (2006a).

Box 6 Gender Budgets, Philippines

Gender and development (GAD) budgeting, introduced in the Philippines in 1995, requires that a minimum of 5% of the national government budget be allocated for gender and development initiatives. Since 1998, local governments also have been required to allocate a minimum of 5% of their budget to women's empowerment. Gender-responsive budgeting is part of a wider change toward gender-responsive governance requiring "accountability, transparency, and participation." (Illo 2010, 117) Gender budgeting is a mechanism to mainstream gender issues.

Experience from the Philippines suggests that a GAD budget can galvanize women's organizations, link civil society and government officials, and support key women-oriented activities. The GAD budget has been used to enhance gender-responsive planning capacity through increased competencies and planning and to maintain sex-disaggregated data on labor and employment. The GAD budget also was used to support projects of direct assistance to women, including the pilot microfinance program to help informal sector workers (many of whom are women) to open bank accounts and to make contributions through these to the Social Security System. The budget is also used to provide legal support to improve workplace safety and access to jobs such as those in the BPO sector.

Enabling factors include selecting key issues, having committed and professional staff, collecting sex-disaggregated data, and conducting special surveys. The allocation of a specified percentage of the budget for gender initiatives enables implementation of selected gender programs and, equally importantly, raises awareness about gender issues, with the possibility that this may then spill over into other budgetary areas.

Sources: R. Sharp, D. Elson, M. Costa, and V. D. Sanjuga. 2011. *Gender Responsive Budgeting in the Asia Pacific Region*. <http://w3.unisa.edu.au/hawkeinstitute/research/gender-budgets/documents/philippines.pdf>; J. F. Illo, ed. 2010. *Accounting for Gender Results. A Review of the Philippine GAD Budget Policy*. Manila: Miriam College.

is advanced in the Strategy on Gender Equality in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2006–2016 (Government of Kazakhstan 2005), and there are action plans for the implementation of the strategy (ADB 2013a). In addition, gender equality is reflected in the national human rights action plan 2009–2012.

Despite the existence of a gender equality strategy, the conceptual understanding of gender equality is limited to promoting women's roles as mothers and within the family

The Strategy on Gender Equality recognizes gender as a social construction and notes that gender equality requires a change in the roles both of women and of men. In practice, however, gender stereotypes are pervasive. Despite the existence of a gender equality strategy, the conceptual understanding of gender equality is limited to promoting women's roles as mothers and within the family. A recent report notes that "improving the status of women is widely regarded as the implementation of state commitments to provide social protection to women as mothers, with little attention given to counteracting existing discriminatory practices and ensuring equal opportunities for both women and men" (ADB 2012g). In general, gendered constraints in the labor market have been inadequately recognized and strategic responses are inadequate.

Although the national gender equality strategy supports gender mainstreaming and incorporation of gender into planning in local government, these activities remain unfunded and the gender equality policy has not been implemented (Somach and Rubin 2010). The gender action plans and the intention to advance gender mainstreaming in regional government should increase the opportunities for women to participate in the planning process to promote gender equality. However, women are underrepresented in the civil service and the political sphere, which limits their participation. There are mechanisms for the National Commission for Women's Affairs and line ministries to consult with nongovernment organizations (NGOs). However, the consultation appears limited to social issues and women's NGOs are not consulted in other spheres (ADB 2013a).

There are few mechanisms to facilitate accountability in advancing gender equality in Kazakhstan. For instance, government programs do not address socially constructed gender constraints, there are no sex-disaggregated targets for government programs, and there appears to be no monitoring and evaluation of the successes and challenges in implementing the gender equality strategy. A recent CEDAW 2007 report concluded that the commission “may lack sufficient authority, decision-making power, and financial and human resources to coordinate effectively the Government’s work to promote gender equality” (para 19; in ADB 2012g). Kazakhstan has not implemented gender-responsive budgeting, although NGOs are advocating for this initiative and gender budgeting has been implemented in one local project (UNECE 2009).

In summary, promoting gender-equitable employment requires the strengthening of gender mainstreaming and gender-specific projects across government policies and programs in each of the three countries. This requires identifying and analyzing underlying gender differences and constraints and the factors affecting unequal participation in and benefits from government services and programs. It also requires ensuring that projects are implemented.

Key Sector Policies

Agriculture

Each DMC discussed here has an extensive rural population and relies on the agriculture sector for employment, economic growth, exports, and food security. It is a significant source of employment for women and is important for poverty reduction in rural areas.

Agriculture policy is highly complex, and its overall contribution to inclusive economic growth and poverty reduction, particularly in developing countries, cannot be overestimated. Agriculture policy requires consideration at both the macroeconomic and the microeconomic levels. It includes environmental issues such as deforestation, soil degradation, and climate change, as well as food security issues. It requires an assessment of country development, trade and export–import ratios, global market factors, the types of agriculture products best suited to the environment and economy, current and potential agriculture production techniques, the skill level of agriculture workers, and available and potential infrastructure. Agriculture policy requires cohesive, sustainable short-, medium-, and long-term strategies that are regularly monitored, assessed, and updated. It should include appropriate extension services to enable farmers to increase the size of their farm holdings and to move from subsistence farming to sustainable commercial agriculture.

Good practice requires an overall strategy to account for the fact that women generally represent more than half of the workers in the agriculture sector, women often are the poorest people in rural communities, and men and women frequently have different experiences, vulnerabilities, and needs. Gender considerations need to be taken into account at each phase of policy development and in all phases of implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of effectiveness. As part of that process, it is necessary to address the constraints that women farmers commonly experience.

The starting point is that women farmers do not have an equal opportunity to acquire land or register it in their own names. They also may have fewer inheritance rights than male farmers. Landownership is important not only to women’s ability to earn income but also as a source of empowerment and autonomy within the household. Their lack of land also affects their ability to gain access to credit facilities. Women are similarly constrained in their access to extension services; skills development, including training in management and marketing skills; and improved farming equipment. They require special assistance to achieve equal access, and this can be achieved through gender-specific action plans that target the needs of women farmers and/or gender mainstreaming that is monitored for effectiveness to ensure that women share appropriately in the sector’s growth (ADB and ILO 2013a).

Good practice requires an overall strategy to account for the fact that women generally represent more than half of the workers in the agriculture sector, women often are the poorest people in rural communities, and men and women frequently have different experiences, vulnerabilities, and needs

The Philippines

The *Philippine government* articulates its agriculture policy within a number of overarching policies. Pursuant to the Philippine Labor and Employment Plan 2011–2016 (PLEP), the government seeks to achieve effective implementation of macroeconomic policies conducive to economic growth and market competitiveness (DOLE 2011b). The PLEP covers four key areas: agriculture, infrastructure, education, and health. It indicates that priority is to be given to the agriculture sector, noting that this sector includes the bulk of poor and marginalized populations. Similarly, in infrastructure development, priority is to be given to the recruitment of rural and semi-skilled workers.

Importantly, the overarching Philippines Development Plan 2011–2016 (PDP) in its strategic framework to bring about inclusive growth and poverty reduction, specifies three main goals. Goal 1 is “food security improved and incomes increased.” This includes diversifying production; improving rural infrastructure and facilities; developing markets; strengthening research, particularly through the enhancement of environmentally friendly and efficient technologies throughout the value chain; improving credit access; and ensuring the availability of food at affordable prices. Goal 2 is “sector resilience to climate change risks increased” and Goal 3 is “policy, environment, and governments enhanced” (NEDA 2011). Furthermore, the PDP’s Strategy 1.1 is important to agribusiness and includes the goals of raising the productivity and incomes of agriculture and fishery-based households and enterprises.

Increased and improved production of rice and vegetables could provide significant opportunities for women. However, women require improved access to land and credit resources, as well as support and training that takes into account their differing needs and roles

The overarching plans outlined in the PDP and the PLEP are essentially gender-blind, including only brief references to women’s employment and their participation in the labor force. There are general references to women in agriculture in the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995–2025, in the Magna Carta for Women, and in many other plans, strategies, and policy documents. However, these do not adequately focus on goals and targets to achieve real outcomes for women.

Among the many agriculture products that are important to the Philippines, a particularly important subsector is rice production (ADB 2012c). The 2010 rice harvest was 6.62 million metric tons, and 2011 demand was 10.1 million metric tons. The 2011 population was around 94 million and is projected to grow by 2 million per year. The shortfall in rice to support domestic demand means that the Philippines is an importer of rice. The government has responded with a policy, expressed in the Department of Agriculture’s Agri-Pinoy Rice Program, that there will be no rice importation by 2013 (Rice Matters 2011). The Department of Trade and Industry identifies export sectors with an agriculture focus, which includes agribusiness products (food, coconuts, and other resource-based products).

The case study described in Box 7, which refers to rice and vegetable production, indicates that comparable sex-disaggregated data are not easily available among subsectors; as a consequence, the understanding of the sectors and of women’s involvement in them is inhibited. It also is an impediment to identifying value-added products or value chains that will generate employment opportunities for women in agribusiness.

At present, the agriculture subsectors do not appear to be operating at their optimum productivity level, and many imported agriculture products could be effectively sourced within the Philippines. In particular, increased and improved production of rice and vegetables could provide significant opportunities for women. However, women require improved access to land and credit resources, as well as support and training that takes into account their differing needs and roles, in order to increase their involvement in the production, supply chains, value addition, and processing of these products.

Given that the agriculture sector is of paramount importance for inclusive economic growth and is the second-largest sector for women’s employment, an overarching agriculture strategy for women is recommended. Such a strategy could bring together national, regional, and local agencies in an organized and cohesive manner with goals, targets, monitoring, and assessment to ensure that women are properly taken into account at all phases, from design through

Box 7 Women Working in Rice and Vegetable Production, Philippines

Surveys of women working in agriculture reveal that women play important roles with regard to cash crops, subsistence production, and small livestock raising, but that their roles differ from men's roles. A 1992 survey identified the major roles and differing tasks performed by women, and this has been confirmed in later studies, with some regional differences and variation, depending on the crop and activities. In general, women cultivate kitchen gardens and subsistence crops, mainly root vegetables, to feed their families. Land clearing is carried out by men, who also spray chemicals, apply fertilizers, and do mechanized tasks. Women supply a major part of labor for planting, weeding, harvesting, and post-harvest tasks, as well as later marketing. Women raise poultry and pigs, whereas men are responsible for cattle and water buffalo. Men tend to have greater decision-making power, including decisions about credit and loans. Women have their own areas of authority, such as seed selection and harvesting, and deciding how much of the harvest to sell, how to allocate earnings, and what to feed their families. Finally, women are almost completely responsible for household tasks.

More recent studies of women in rice production and vegetable cultivation indicate that, allowing for the differences in produce, most of these features remain unchanged, except that in some cases decision making about credit and loans is gradually changing in favor of women, in part due to increasing migration of men from rural communities.^a Women are engaged in almost all areas of rice production and also in the hiring of workers. However, only two of the five main segments of the rice value chain, beginning with accessing imports for production through distribution to markets, had gender-disaggregated data. The study concluded that the rice sector is crucial to the Philippines' food security and that policies should consider the rights, welfare, agenda, and interests of women rice farmers.^b

A survey conducted by the Philippine Peasant Institute revealed the differences between women rice farmers and men with regard to access to credit and land. Almost 70% of women were directly involved in capital procurement, but their access to formal credit was lower than men's access. Ninety-four percent of women had borrowed money to finance rice farming and to augment household expenses, but they often went to private moneylenders who were also rice traders, which limited their capacity to get better prices. Most of the land titles of land-owning households were held in the name of the male spouses. Women were small owner-cultivators, tenants, or farm workers. Female agrarian reform beneficiaries were only 22% of the total number of beneficiaries in 2002. Most recipients of government support were men farmers and overall, female farmers accounted for less than one-third of the total beneficiaries of government programs.

Filipino women are strongly represented in the growing, production, and sale of vegetables. A small study of vegetable growers, undertaken in 2007, again revealed men's and women's different roles and tasks.^c The report makes a convincing case for the importance of vegetable cultivation in the Philippines, and this is reinforced by more recent data indicating the continuing growth of the vegetable industry and the subsector's positive contribution to export income.

^a T. R. Paris, J. Luis, D. Villanueva, M. F. Rola-Rubizen, T. N. Chi, and C. Wongsanum. 2009 *Labour Out Migration on Rice Farming Households and Gender Roles: Synthesis Of Findings in Thailand, the Philippines and Vietnam*. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, International Fund for Agricultural Development, and International Labour Organization. http://www.fao-ilo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/fao_ilo/pdf/Papers/16_march/Paris_Thelma_final_.pdf.

^b A. Spielhoch. 2007. *A Row to Hoe: Impacts of Trade Liberalization on Food System*. Geneva: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung. pp. 19–20.

^c G. I. Johnson, K. Weinberger, and M. H. Wu. 2008. *The Vegetable Industry in Tropical Asia: The Philippines*. http://s3.amazonaws.com/zanran_storage/www.avrdc.org/ContentPages/17933344.pdf

Sources: R. Obani and E. Dano. 2007. *Attaining Rice Self-Sufficiency in the Philippines: Lessons from Major Rice Producing Countries*. http://www.r1phils.org/PDF%20Files/State_Intervention/2AttainingRiceSS.pdf; Government of the Philippines. 2011. *Selected Statistics on Agriculture*. <http://countrystat.bas.gov.ph/documents/ssa2011.pdf>; J. L. Lu. 2007. Gender Differentiation Among Farmers in the Agricultural Sector in Benguet, Philippines. *Journal of International Women's Studies*. 9(1); J. L. Lu. 2011. Relations of Feminization of Agriculture in Women's Occupational Health: The Case of Women Farmers in the Philippines. *Journal of International Women's Studies* 12(4): 113, including reference to Jessica Reyes-Canots and Riza Bernabe. 2006. *Gender and Rice: The Case of Philippines*.

implementation. Two examples of specific good gender practice in the Philippines, which could be further extended to assist women in poor communities, include the GREAT Women project and the Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation program (ADB 2012c).

Cambodia

The Government of Cambodia also articulates its agriculture policy within a number of overarching policies and specific pieces of legislation related to specific subsectors, such as

fisheries and forestry. The policies include the Rectangular Strategy Phase II and the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) Update 2009–2013 (ILO 2011d). The overall strategy of the NSDP is to reduce poverty and to implement the government's Rectangular Strategy Phase II. The first priority is agriculture, which also includes water and irrigation systems, transport infrastructure, electricity, labor-intensive industries, and food processing for export. The NSDP identifies four focus areas for agriculture development: improving agriculture productivity and diversification, land reform and mine clearance, fisheries reform, and forestry reform. These areas are then developed through specific strategies. The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries has formulated an Agriculture Sector Strategic Development Plan 2006–2010, which outlines seven priority goals and articulates the constraints and actions to be taken with regard to those goals. These include food security, productivity, and diversification; improvement and strengthening of agriculture research and extension systems; market access for agriculture products; creation of an institutional and legislative development framework; land reform, land tenure, and pro-poor land access policies; fisheries reform; and forestry reform.

The importance of the agriculture sector to women's employment, inclusive growth, and poverty reduction in Cambodia is vital

These overarching policies do not address the situation of women, but Cambodia's Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan for the agriculture sector (2006–2010) is particularly important for women. It recognizes the significant contribution of women to labor and food production, identifies specific constraints, and has some sector specific-targets to address such constraints. The GMAP for the agriculture sector is due for evaluation and updating, which could provide an excellent opportunity to further particularize and target the needs of women with respect to training, financial management, marketing, and information strategies to improve agriculture production. The trade policy, which expresses a diversity objective to increase export in named products, lists 19 products, 12 of which are agricultural. The related GMAP does not indicate whether gender was taken into account in the selection of those products.

Agriculture subsectors of specific importance to women—other than rice production, which is the second-largest contributor to GDP—are vegetable growing and livestock production (National Institute of Statistics 2011). The government's recent Policy on Paddy Rice Production and Promotion of Milled Price Export has set the year 2015 as the target year to reach a paddy rice surplus of more than 4 million tons and to achieve an export of at least 1 million tons of milled rice. The government also aims to ensure that Cambodian rice is internationally recognized, a strategy that depends on appropriate investment to improve rural infrastructure and irrigation (Chea 2010; Cooperation Committee for Cambodia 2008). These targets, together with the additional targets for products identified in the trade policy, have the potential to increase women's employment, though the policy makes no reference to gender.

The Cambodian agriculture sector is characterized by rural households' ownership of small parcels of land. In 2009, almost half of households had agriculture plots of less than 1 hectare, and some had none. In addition, 1% of women were dependent on subsistence crop farming and raising livestock (Ministry of Economy and Finance 2010). Farming at the grassroots level has led to the transformation of farmers' organizations, which were initially established by the government in the 1960s but have now developed into very different organizations.

Farmers' organizations have the potential to provide significant support for female farmers (see Box 8), but the constraints affecting farmers' organizations need to be addressed. The GMAP refers to one good initiative to assist women farmers' organizations, but additional strategies are required to address disparities, to provide encouragement for women to work cooperatively, and to help them obtain the services they need to further improve and expand their agriculture production. This should be included not only in GMAPs but also in broader government policies, strategies, and action plans. The importance of the agriculture sector to women's employment, inclusive growth, and poverty reduction in Cambodia is vital and warrants an overarching agriculture strategy for women that incorporates gender good practice features. Furthermore, employment of women in the agriculture sector could be included in an overarching gender-sensitive national employment policy, which the ILO could assist the government in formulating.

Box 8 Women in Farmers' Organizations, Cambodia

A farmers' organization is a collective of farmers in a village or from nearby villages who come together with common goals for joint economic benefit related to agriculture activities. In Cambodia, there are three types of farmers' organizations: Farmers' groups are small and informal, with 5–30 members; farmers' associations have 30–100 members; and agriculture cooperatives, which are larger and more formal, include more than 100 members and are registered with the Ministry of the Interior. In 2005, almost 70% of farmers' organizations were farmers' groups with fewer than 30 members, and only 12% had more than 100 members.

Two linked case studies have analyzed the impact of farmers' organizations in the provinces of Battambang, Kampong Thom, Kampot, and Svay Rieng. Of the three types of farmers' organizations, the agriculture cooperative was found to have a more coherent management structure, and being a member of an agriculture cooperative had a positive effect on both rice and livestock production, with members' revenues and profits being significantly higher than those recorded by nonmembers. The same positive outcomes were not found for other farmers' organizations.

The government, as part of its agriculture development policy, recognizes and prioritizes smallholder farming and farmers' organizations as a key to rural economic development and poverty alleviation. The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries recently drafted a law that includes support strategies to protect agriculture cooperatives and give them more advantages. Such support is not available for the other 70% of farmers' organizations. Farmers' associations and agriculture cooperatives have largely evolved from farmers' groups. Thus, although it is important to provide assistance to existing cooperatives, they will only increase in number if other farmers' organizations are also properly supported.

According to 2008 census data, about 26% of Cambodian households are headed by women; this appears to be roughly similar to the percentage of woman-headed households in the region. The inference from the studies is that women are most likely to be members of smaller farmers' organizations.

Common constraints on farmers' organizations, which affect households headed by either women or men, include poor group structure, lack of good leadership, improper enforcement of internal regulations, failure to respond to members' needs, and lack of external support such as access to information and services. In addition, there are four important constraints that especially effect female members.

First, members of farmers' groups have limited access to credit. The average loan obtained was only KR310,000 (approximately \$78), which is insufficient to enable members to expand their farming production. The average loan size received by women was KR210,000, only 61% of the size of loans extended to men.

Second, farmland is limited, and farm plots are smaller for women than for men. Security of land tenure and land registration also has been a long-standing issue in Cambodia and has adversely affected women. There is a link between the tenure of land and the productivity of land.

Third, only 49% of female household heads can read and write, compared to 80% of male household heads. Women have an average of around 3 years of education, compared to around 5 years for their male counterparts.

Finally, it is reportedly impractical for members to access knowledge and techniques provided by farmers' organizations, though there are likely to be differences between women and men in this regard because of the different division of labor tasks. Furthermore, around 80% of farmers' organization members (both male and female) do not have collective access to input and output markets, which is a key function of farmers' organizations.

Sources: See case studies in V. Theng, S. Keo, and P. Khiev. 2013. *Impact Assessment of Farmer Organization on Food Security for Rural Poor*. CRDI Annual Development Review 2012–2013. Phnom Penh: CRDI. p. 65; Asian Development Bank. 2012. *Gender Equality in the Labor Market in Cambodia*. Unpublished.

Kazakhstan

Kazakhstan has made important changes in privatization and land reform, which are dramatically changing the agriculture sector. The Strategic Plan for Development of Kazakhstan 2020 has identified targets to increase productivity in agriculture and processing. Agriculture development, in particular, is an important segment of diversification. The Government of Kazakhstan has affirmed that agriculture development will be focused on improving labor activity in agriculture, providing for the country's food security through domestic sources, and utilizing the country's export potential by increasing the export of agriculture products. Furthermore, the government plans to have a wide range of domestic brands available for export, from various agriculture/industrial products to highly processed foods (Muzaparova 2010).

The strategic plan and stated directions are gender-blind—there is no reference to specific measures that may be needed to enable women and men to benefit equally from the anticipated development and economic growth

Women are already employed in great numbers in the agriculture sector and to a lesser extent in the food processing industry (ADB and ILO 2013a). Each of the government's stated directions has the potential to attract and enhance women's employment in regions where women are overrepresented in poverty and unemployment. The strategic plan and stated directions are gender-blind—there is no reference to specific measures that may be needed to enable women and men to benefit equally from the anticipated development and economic growth. An ADB report (2006b) expressed concern that a number of constraints for women in agriculture require addressing.

A number of recommendations are endorsed in the present report, including specific strategies for female farmers and rural women, such as child care arrangements near places of employment, targeted skills training, improved credit facilities, and extension programs. There is also a need for a systematic gender analysis of policies and programs, and sex-disaggregated data to assist the process. The situation in Kazakhstan warrants the development of an overarching agriculture strategy for women that incorporates gender good practice features.

Industry and Manufacturing

The Philippines

The Philippines' manufacturing policy is contained within a number of overarching plans, notably the Philippines Development Plan, the Philippine Labor and Employment Plan, the Philippine Export Development Plan 2011–2013, and, more recently, the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE) JobsFit 2020 Vision.

The PDP provides a strategic framework for the industrial and service sectors and has identified goals that include the creation of a better business environment, encouraging public–private partnerships, strengthening economic zones, strengthening national brand and identity awareness, increasing exports, and encouraging foreign and domestic investment, and it specifically refers to particular manufacturing sectors. There is no indication that gender has been taken into account in the development of the policy or in setting the development goals. Furthermore, reference to women is limited to noting that they are generally disadvantaged in employment.

The DOLE JobsFit 2020 Vision dissects employment in various industrial sectors and regions, identifies employment needs and skill gaps, and examines the requirements for creating and fulfilling employment opportunities. Chapter 3 focuses on manufacturing and is gender-neutral.

The overarching plans were created following the decline in manufacturing in the Philippines between 2000 and 2009, even as its neighbors registered increased growth over the same period (ADB 2011d). From 2003 to 2008, the number of people employed in the manufacturing sector fell by 132,000 workers, and the decline was greater for women than for men. The Philippines also has very little export-oriented manufacturing in comparison with fellow Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) members Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam. Manufacturing's share of GDP fell from 25.7% in 1980 to 21.3% in 2009 (Usui 2012).

Manufacturing has come under the spotlight in a number of recent reports, and a number of common themes have emerged (Aldaba 2012; Habito 2010; Usui 2011; Usui 2012). First, the labor decline in the agriculture sector has largely been absorbed by the services sector, which has increased, rather than by the manufacturing sector (Habito 2010). Second, the services sector has had low labor productivity growth in comparison with the manufacturing sector (Usui 2012; ADB 2012a). Third, services-led growth has not created productive jobs (Usui 2012). Fourth, the Philippines has not kept pace with its competitors and neighbors who have better utilized foreign direct investment and developed more diversified products. Finally, manufacturing, particularly food manufacturing, has higher levels of backward and forward interindustry linkages than most other sectors of the economy (other than tourism) (Habito 2010).

The Philippine Institute for Development Studies stated that reviving the labor-intensive manufacturing sector could help attain inclusive growth that would create more jobs and significantly reduce poverty (Roa 2012). In addition, it reported that the government is drafting an integrated manufacturing plan that will determine bottlenecks and provide recommendations to revitalize local industries. None of these plans or frameworks identifies or refers to gender issues or to any strategies by which women may be included in and benefit from jobs in manufacturing.

A major part of manufacturing production occurs in designated export processing zones (ADB 2012c; NEDA 2011, chapter 3; DOLE, undated, Project JobsFit, 28). The number of women working in economic zones is estimated to represent 64% of total employment and may be much higher in some industries, such as electronics and apparel (World Bank 2011a). Thus, women's share of employment in the export processing zones is much greater than women's share of the labor force as a whole, and the conditions of employment are of concern. Reports suggest that working and living conditions are poor, that women find it difficult to obtain work while pregnant and after the birth of their baby, and that unionization is uncommon (Lu 2007b).

There does not appear to have been a policy analysis of the importance of the manufacturing sector to women or any examination of why the decline of the manufacturing sector affected women's employment more than men's. There is also no discussion of the constraints women have in obtaining employment in manufacturing, what skills women may require to access employment, or which manufacturing subsectors would best suit their circumstances. This would include a discussion of factors such as decent factory working conditions as well as the availability of child care facilities.

These matters require addressing at all stages of the development and implementation of the government's manufacturing development plan. Increased growth in the manufacturing sector has significant potential for women's employment.

Cambodia

The Government of Cambodia's trade policy includes garments and footwear as two industrial products for promotion, export, and growth. The industry is highly gender-segregated and is likely to remain a major source of exports and employment for the foreseeable future. Ensuring the industry's longer-term economic viability, which includes both continued growth and diversification, will require policies to address a number of key challenges and cooperation with private industry. This low-skill-oriented, export-reliant sector cannot be sustainable in the long term, unless Cambodia moves up the value chain in the global garment industry. Therefore, issues of industry restructuring, skills development, and social protection are of critical importance.

A recent pilot study reported that skills development in Cambodia has been advanced through specialized training provided by international organizations and NGOs (UNCTAD 2013). Several initiatives have supported these efforts, including at the Garment Manufacturing Association of Cambodia's training center and the Garments Productivity Center. These initiatives are crucial because they facilitate the movement of Cambodia-based manufacturers to operations

The government is drafting an integrated manufacturing plan that will determine bottlenecks None of these plans or frameworks identifies or refers to gender issues or to any strategies by which women may be included in and benefit from jobs in manufacturing

in higher-value-added niches of the value chain. The study also reported that the industry provides opportunities for entrepreneurship, particularly for women. Thirty percent of women entrepreneurs in small-scale manufacturing businesses (with fewer than 50 employees and less than \$250,000 in assets) work in the textiles and garments sector. Women also need to have opportunities for promotion; at present, technical and supervisory/managerial staff usually are expatriates. Specific strategies are required to attract women and encourage them to develop skills and move to more senior or supervisory positions. These initiatives require a comprehensive policy approach and social dialogue between government, employers, and unions.

It is estimated that 2,000–3,000 small garment factories in the capital city supply and act as subcontractors to big companies. This report recommends the expansion and improvement of opportunities for employment of women, including extension of the Better Factories Cambodia approach, as part of government policy, bearing in mind the large number of small garment factories that are not covered by such subcontracting arrangements (UNCTAD 2013).

Kazakhstan

The quickly growing petroleum and mining sector is vital to Kazakhstan's economy, ... but women are not sharing in these increased employment opportunities and are minimally represented in the higher-paying jobs in the sector

Kazakhstan is one of the world's most promising emerging natural resources markets. The quickly growing petroleum and mining sector is vital to Kazakhstan's economy, contributing 19% of the country's GDP and 16% of exports (USAID 2010). It is also a major source of employment, with more than 200,000 people working in the sector, and relatively high wages, but women are not sharing in these increased employment opportunities and are minimally represented in the higher-paying jobs in the sector. Furthermore, not only are there legal prohibitions against women operating heavy machinery, but also few women study the university subjects that would qualify them for positions in engineering and industrial management. The World Bank (2007) has noted that "improving gains from extractive industries for women stakeholders will not only leverage their untapped potential in increasing growth, reducing poverty, and fostering positive conditions for sustainable development, but also improve the development effectiveness of oil and gas and mining operations for communities and countries as a whole."

The present report recommends that the government take steps to increase women's employment opportunities in this sector. The UNDP's *Mainstreaming Gender in the Extractive Industries: Lessons for Cambodia* (2010) provides good practice examples for governments and corporations. Examples of good practice include developing a Women in Mining National Action Plan; developing petroleum and mining policies that are responsive to women's needs and interests; and ensuring that women are included at all stages of project planning, implementation, and monitoring. The UNDP report also showcases examples of corporate good practice, which has increased women's employment and incorporates initiatives related to child care facilities and leave opportunities.

The government has made light industry one of its 16 priorities in the State Program on Forced Industrial and Innovation Development for 2010–2014. This priority is also expressed in the Program for the Development of Light Industry in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2010–2014. The aim of these programs is to ensure the diversification and long-term competitiveness of light industry through the growth of its social efficiency. The main objectives are to meet domestic demand for light industry products through the processing of raw materials, to create products with high added value, to enter foreign markets, and to reduce social tensions by ensuring full employment.

The Association of Light Industry of the Republic of Kazakhstan suggests that there could be additional employment opportunities for women in the textile and garment industry, which currently employs 13,000 people, 80% of whom are women; 60%–70% of those women hold senior positions. The association suggests clustered development of Kazakhstan's wool production and garment making, which could both create export products and substitute for the import of yarn and fabrics. This is also recommended because it has also recommended

because it has the potential to increase employment for women, owing to the low production costs, proximity to raw materials, and the potential markets for such products. The low cost of raw materials makes Kazakhstan particularly competitive in the production of yarn compared with other major exporters. Companies in Kazakhstan also have the potential to be more competitive by increasing the productivity of its cotton spinning mills and wool processing factories.

It is recommended that the government investigate this suggested opportunity to expand and improve this industry for women's employment. This may include the involvement of development partners such as the ILO to ensure the incorporation of decent work standards.

Tourism

Women are already well represented in both formal and vulnerable employment in the services sector and have a greater share of employment in the sector than men. It is therefore a potentially important source of inclusive growth for women. Specific service subsectors of high relevance to women's current and future employment in each DMC under discussion are highlighted. There are common subsectors among the countries as well as country-specific subsectors that provide real potential for present and long-term future employment. Each DMC places tourism in its list of top priorities for development planning, economic growth, and increased employment, and each DMC is at a different stage of development.

Tourism helps to provide jobs and diversify local economies. Tourism provides employment opportunities for women at a number of different occupational levels, and ecotourism in particular could provide significant opportunities for rural women. Important issues to be addressed in developing tourism industry policy include the effects of tourism on the physical environment and the social and cultural structure of a country, and the need to address risks such as an increase in sex tourism and trafficking of women and girls. These issues require a combination of legislation and policies.

Tourism provides employment opportunities for women at a number of different occupational levels, and ecotourism in particular could provide significant opportunities for rural women

Cambodia

The importance of the tourism industry to the national revenue and employment opportunities of Cambodia is reflected in the government's placement of the sector as one of the six top priorities for social and economic development (ADB 2012b). It is also one of the government's key strategies in the National Poverty Reduction Strategy, the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals, and the more recent National Strategic Development Plan.

The Ministry of Tourism has been active in promoting Cambodia as a tourist destination. The director of the Department of International Cooperation and ASEAN within the Ministry of Tourism recently made a presentation that referred to a Strategic Plan for Tourism 2011–2020 (ADB 2012b). This strategic plan includes tourism sector policies such as a National Tourism Policy and a National Ecotourism Policy, regulations, directives, a Law on Tourism, and the development of a new Law on the Governance of Ecotourism, though it appears that these programs are yet to be undertaken. The presentation noted that cultural tourism is to be a priority, with links with the garment industry, the rice export industry, and a variety of cultural destinations.

Goal 3 of the Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan in the Tourism Sector 2008–2009 refers to women's participation in the management of tourism services and in tourism development projects. It advocates the development of programs aimed at gathering gender-disaggregated data and increasing the number of women participating in tourism training sessions, noting that women on the whole had a lower participation rate in training than men. It also refers to the need to conduct gender and tourism development training, including skills training in leadership and management, proposal writing, and budget planning, and information about

cultural and environmental impacts. To help women obtain jobs and increase their income in the tourism sector, additional priority was indicated for language training for tourist guides as well as handicraft production. The action plan also highlighted the need to assist women in establishing community-based ecotourism committees and programs.

[G]ender differences in the tourism sector persist and ... there is a need to reinforce gender equity legislation, adjust salaries for similar positions, and significantly increase the pro-poor impact of tourism

A UNDP discussion paper (2009) titled Cambodia Country Competitiveness also made a number of policy recommendations to increase the competitiveness of Cambodia's tourism industry. It noted that Cambodia's neighbors were performing better, even with respect to pro-poor benefits, in areas containing major cultural attractions. The paper further noted that the poor bear many of the costs of rapid tourism development, such as land evictions, without sharing significantly in the benefits. It indicated a need for a potential increase in ecotourism and the need to diversify tourism so that the tourism sector in Cambodia is not overly reliant on one cultural site, the temples of Angkor. Finally, the paper noted that gender differences in the tourism sector persist and that there is a need to reinforce gender equity legislation, adjust salaries for similar positions, and significantly increase the pro-poor impact of tourism.

In addition to these recommendations, there is a need to address barriers to women's employment in tourism-related occupations so that women are not relegated to poorly paid promotional employment in suboptimal workplaces such as beer halls. Reducing trafficking risk for women and girls as a result of tourism development also is an important issue (see Box 9).

Finally, an important new regional feature has been the adoption of the ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2011–2015, which has potential to encourage increased and connected tourism in Cambodia. However, this will require Cambodia to increase its professional tourism training through the Cambodian National Tourism Professional Training Plan 2012–2020.

Box 9 Prevention of Trafficking Strategy, Cambodia

Collaboration between the Ministry of Tourism and the International Labour Organization's Mekong Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women, which began in 2005, resulted in the Strategic Plan on the Promotion of Child-Safe Tourism to Prevent Exploitation in the Tourism Industry. This plan is innovative and comprehensive, and its monitoring and assessment continues.

The strategic plan included research on trafficking, policy and institutional development for safe tourism, review and strengthening of legislation, prevention efforts, protection for young women and children already working in tourism, and the establishment of relevant services. Operational guidelines were later developed to supplement the strategic plan in three areas: labor protection, which involves promoting and monitoring adherence to labor law in workplaces; tourism regulation, which involves promoting and monitoring adherence to tourism regulations; and social protection, which involves providing services. This included coordinated work among the Ministry of Tourism; the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training; the Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans, and Youth; and the Ministry of Women's Affairs and included training of staff and employers' associations, trade unions, and nongovernment organizations.

Source: International Labour Organization. 2007. *Meeting the Challenge: Proven Practices for Human Trafficking Prevention in the Greater Mekong Subregion*. Bangkok.

The Philippines

The Philippines Development Plan 2011–2016 indicates that the country is seeking to increase its investment in the tourism industry. The government recognizes that tourism is a potentially powerful economic growth engine for the country if it is developed in a sustainable manner. It notes that tourism development will be pursued in a sustainable manner to continuously create jobs and livelihoods for local communities and to generate foreign exchange (NEDA 2011). Tourism is the fourth-largest source of foreign exchange inflow in the Philippines, behind the

electronics industry, overseas Filipino remittances, and BPO. However, the Philippines ranked only sixth among its ASEAN neighbors in attracting foreign tourists and the 2011 World Economic Forum Tourism and Travel Competitiveness Index ranks the Philippines 94 out of 139 countries worldwide. Tourism development is linked to employment in many different subsectors, the more visible being in hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, transport services, and tour guide services. In addition, there are a number of potential backward linkages that could benefit from increased tourism, including agriculture, fisheries, and handicrafts.

As indicated in its development plan, the national government seeks to mobilize the capacity of local government units to strengthen their capacity to plan, regulate, and guide tourism development so that it is environmentally and socially sustainable as well as economically viable. The plan also encourages these units to develop tourism-related products and services using the community-based and ecotourism approaches already implemented by particularly innovative and entrepreneurial local government units (NEDA 2011). The national government also seeks to implement partnerships between local governments and the private sector to implement a mandatory system for tourism enterprises, including the formulation of a national standards and certification program for tourism facilities and services, to ensure that tourism enterprises are comparable in quality to international standards. Such standards have the potential to encourage good practices for women's participation in the tourism industry.

The development plan also recognizes the need for a link between public and private higher education institutions through which tourism-related education programs and technical expertise can be targeted toward the local tourism industry. The government indicates that it will help support potential, new, and existing micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) to support the transformation of the livelihood activities of the poor into sustainable microenterprises (NEDA 2011). The Department of Trade and Industry and the Department of Social Welfare and Development are to collaborate in providing business development and productivity enhancement services for existing livelihood projects. This will enable the implementation of community-based and ecotourism projects to provide alternative and supplemental livelihoods for local communities and enhance decent work opportunities for women.

The government addresses trafficking through the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003 (Republic Act 9208), which criminalizes trafficking, as well as complementary legislation. It has entered into bilateral agreements with numerous countries for cooperation on human trafficking and collaborates on training and capacity building with the United Nations and other international organizations. An Interagency Council Against Trafficking was established in 2007 to provide a forum for different government departments and stakeholders, including civil society organizations, to come together to coordinate and monitor the implementation of the anti-trafficking act. One specific measure to reduce the impact of sex tourism was developed by the Department of Tourism's Philippine Convention and Visitors Corporation, which directed its ad agencies to produce marketing campaigns and promotional products that are "gender-sensitive and ensure no discrimination of either men or women in text or visual renditions; and under no circumstances will these promote (implicitly or explicitly) sex tourism or commodification of women" (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 26). In addition, a number of government programs and NGOs provide programs to assist victims, and the United Nations Human Rights Council's Special Rapporteur made a number of recommendations for improvement.³⁷ A number of those recommendations could be addressed by adopting aspects of Cambodia's comprehensive approach in its trafficking prevention strategy.

A major challenge in growing the tourist industry and enhancing the Philippines' competitiveness as a tourist destination is the need for greatly improved infrastructure. As a member of ASEAN,

Tourism development is linked to employment in many different subsectors, the more visible being in hotels, restaurants... [and] there are a number of potential backward linkages that could benefit from increased tourism, including agriculture, fisheries, and handicrafts

³⁷ See Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children.

the Philippines can potentially increase connected regional tourism through the ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2011–2015. In order to improve the subsector, however, the Philippines' tourism-related rules and regulations must become more transparent. Moreover, restrictions on foreign ownership of companies and on property rights remain a handicap in attracting tourism investment, especially from international chains and the network of tourism operators (OHCHR recommendations).

The PDP refers to gender only in a very limited context. It appears that tourism planning has not included women or has had insufficient regard for gender issues. Within the tourism industry, relatively few women have the educational qualifications or foreign language skills to compete for front-of-house positions in the hotel industry, as tour guides, or in travel agencies, and women are more likely to be employed as housekeepers, waitresses, or similar low-level positions. Targeted educational programs could provide women with the necessary qualifications to climb the job ladder, which could progressively help to rectify the imbalance between work opportunities for men and women and eliminate gender gaps in tourism employment. Again, the Philippines may benefit from the overall focused approach that Cambodia is implementing through its policies, legislation, and gender mainstreaming.

Kazakhstan

The Kazakhstan 2030: Prosperity, Security, and Ever-Growing Welfare of All the Kazakhstanis (Kazakhstan 2030 Development Strategy) recognizes the tourism sector as one of its priority sectors.³⁸ Given the country's history, it is not surprising that the subsector remains relatively undeveloped. In 1993, Kazakhstan became a member of the United Nations World Tourism Organization, and the country ranked 93 out of 139 in the World Tourism Ranking for 2011. The focus on tourism appears to have emerged around the preservation and development of Turkish nations' cultures and historic centers and the revival of the Silk Road route through Kazakhstan, which has included collaboration with the United Nations and the World Tourism Organization. Cultural heritage is seen as an economic and social development asset as well as another sphere with significant potential to help reduce poverty. Women in rural communities, in particular, may benefit through the sale of traditional handicrafts (United Nations 2008).

Targeted educational programs could provide women with the necessary qualifications to climb the job ladder, which could progressively help to rectify the imbalance between work opportunities for men and women and eliminate gender gaps in tourism employment

Business tourists currently represent the major portion of tourist arrivals, mainly visiting the country's largest cities, such as Almaty, Astana, and Atyrau. This has created a strong demand for high-quality hotels, and many international hotel chains have developed a presence in Kazakhstan. In addition, under the Forced Industrial Innovative Development Plan 2010–2014, the government has made a commitment to constructing new roads, railways, guesthouses, and hotels, and older resorts will be renovated.

A recent review noted an increase in tourism related to the country's unique natural environment and the "nomad Kazakh" culture, which is regarded as exotic (Euromonitor International 2011). Excluding Commonwealth of Independent States countries, visitors from Germany, the People's Republic of China (PRC), and Turkey accounted for the greatest number of arrivals in 2010. A significant proportion of tourist arrivals in Kazakhstan are en route to another destination, such as tourists travelling from the Far East to North America or Europe. The government indicates that Kazakhstan will establish new border posts on railways connecting with the PRC and Turkmenistan. Kazakhstan is also seen as forming a vital part of the Western Europe–Western PRC International Transit Corridor when it becomes operational.

The government identifies modern leisure tourism based on Kazakhstan's unique natural and cultural features as a potential growth area. The Committee of Tourism Industry within the Ministry of Industry and New Technology has regulatory and supervisory authority over tourism. Recently, Kazakhstan's tourism minister announced a new strategic plan to target tourism on an annual basis and indicated that the government was trying to convert Kazakhstan into the "land

³⁸ A general analysis of the Kazakhstan 2030 development strategy is contained in Utegenova (undated).

of tourism resorts.” The Asian Winter Games were held in Kazakhstan in 2011. The government recently approved a plan for the creation of a large international resort close to Almaty, featuring very long ski runs and all the infrastructure of cableways, hotels, restaurants, shopping malls, and golf courses, along with extensive infrastructure to further develop preexisting ski resorts. In 2010, the Kazakhstan official online tourism portal was opened to provide information about tours and activities.

The government indicated that the Tourism Development Plan of Kazakhstan would be finalized by the end of 2012 and that the program for the development of the industry would be based on the needs and demands of the current industry as well as on future demand through 2020.

The government’s penal code prohibits human trafficking for either labor or sexual exploitation; however, the country seems to have significant reliance on NGOs for trafficking prevention and information. The government does not appear to have developed a trafficking prevention strategy and has not ratified the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children of 2000. As tourism becomes more developed, the need to protect women and girls is likely to increase. Cambodia’s trafficking prevention strategy may provide some guidance.

The government’s tourism strategies and plans make no specific reference to women, and there is no indication that the planned tourism development plan will take into account the specific needs of women; that women will be involved in the planning, implementation, or monitoring of the plan; or that the plan will include particular actions or strategies to specifically assist women. Women should be fully involved in all aspects of tourist employment, and at all levels, not just, for example, selling traditional handicrafts. The government may benefit from adopting an overall strategy similar to that being undertaken by Cambodia through its focused policies, legislation, and gender mainstreaming.

Business Process Outsourcing

The Philippines’ Information Technology–Business Process Outsourcing Road Map 2011–2016 is not gender-responsive and does not address women’s constraints in accessing higher-paid work in non-voice services or the likely growth in information technology and engineering. These matters, as well as the pay differentials between men and women and employment conditions, require specific government attention. It is likely that this can be best addressed through high-level social dialogue among government, employers, and union representatives. The promotion of this industry alone cannot drive inclusive growth for the large and increasing number of unemployed and underemployed workers, but it is an important source of current and future job opportunities and export earnings and can provide a source of decent jobs for skilled women.

Government Services

Public sector employment is an important source of jobs with better pay and conditions for women than many other industrial sectors, but women are constrained by being predominately employed in traditional, gender-stereotyped caring sector government occupations such as health and education, and they are underrepresented in the higher-paying subsectors. Cambodian women, for example, have a much lower share of civil service employment, at all levels and in all categories, than men, even in “traditional” women’s areas such as in health and education. Various ministries already are focusing on increasing the number of women in the civil service and on utilizing GMAPs to achieve the increase, but this requires more energetic and focused action. In Kazakhstan, women occupy lower-wage sections of public services employment, again in education and health. In both Kazakhstan and Cambodia, the low female-to-male wage ratio is indicative of either wage discrimination or vertical segregation. The Philippines has strong gender mainstreaming programs, which has given women greater access to government employment generally, but women in the civil sector still may be underpaid, given their levels of education,

The Philippines’ Information Technology–Business Process Outsourcing Road Map 2011–2016 is not gender-responsive and does not address women’s constraints in accessing higher-paid work in non-voice services or the likely growth in information technology and engineering

experience, and ability. There are increasing opportunities for employment within this sector in each DMC under discussion, and women should be given the training, skills, and opportunities to enable them to obtain equitable access to all subsectors.

Entrepreneurship

There has been a rapid surge in the number and proportion of female entrepreneurs in developing countries (Minniti and Naude 2010). Studies indicate that female-led micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises increase employment opportunities for women and contribute to wider development goals (ADB and ILO 2013a). One survey indicated that women entrepreneurs are more likely than men to be motivated by necessity; these are livelihood-oriented entrepreneurs attempting to escape unemployment (Viet Nam Women Entrepreneurs Council 2007). Men, on the other hand, are more likely to be purpose-motivated or growth-oriented entrepreneurs, starting a business due to a good grasp on business and entrepreneurial skills. The study concluded that the main reason for this difference in motivation is that women shoulder greater household responsibilities. An additional component is female entrepreneurs' perceived weakness in establishing social relations and communication. One feature of livelihood-oriented entrepreneurs is that their businesses often stay informal, semi-informal, or small scale, whereas growth-oriented entrepreneurs have the potential and intention to grow into larger businesses because they have a clear direction for both financial investment and human resources.

[W]omen entrepreneurs are more likely than men to be motivated by necessity; these are livelihood-oriented entrepreneurs attempting to escape unemployment

In 2012, the ILO reported on the first 10 years of its Women's Entrepreneurship Development Programs. The report (ILO 2012i) identified common constraints faced by women entrepreneurs, including a lack of access to and control over financial and productive resources; a lack of access to collateral, land, training, and information; greater household responsibilities and reduced mobility; and cultural norms and attitudes toward women entrepreneurs. These are similar to the constraints identified in the three DMCs. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's 2010 Women's Report identified the importance of creating environments in which women are enlightened about entrepreneurship and can envision how this can be a viable and attractive path for their employment and livelihood (Kelley et al. 2010). The report also noted that women are less likely—or are less likely to be able—to maintain a business into its mature phase. Thus, there is a need to assist women not only in running a start-up business but also in sustaining and growing an established business.

The good practices review of policy sets out a number of policy strategies to assist women in the informal economy (ADB and ILO 2013a). Measures to support and facilitate women upgrading their businesses and employment circumstances can particularly encourage a progressive integration of rural women's businesses into the formal economy.³⁹ Women's cooperatives are often a good practice solution.

The Philippines

Entrepreneurship within the Philippines has a significant legislative and policy history. Several laws have implications for women entrepreneurs in relation to microenterprises and microfinance.⁴⁰ Around 2006, these laws were the subject of a gender analysis, which found the laws to be gender-neutral; women's particular microfinance and microenterprise development needs were not considered at all (Pineda-Ofreño 2006). Furthermore, the gender analysis concluded that most of the laws had a strong bias toward credit alone or toward a minimalist microfinance and microenterprise development model, which is primarily concerned with the financial sustainability of

³⁹ See also ILO (2010e).

⁴⁰ An Act Providing Assistance to Women Engaging in Micro and Cottage Business Enterprises and for Other purposes (RA 7882); An Act to Strengthen the Promotion and Development of and Assistance to Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises (RA 8289), otherwise known as the Magna Carta for Small Enterprises; An Act Institutionalizing the Social Reform and Poverty Alleviation Program (RA 8425); An Act to Promote the Establishment Barangay Micro Business Enterprises (BMBEs) (RA 9178).

the providing institutions rather than with poverty reduction or women's empowerment. Women clients were consequently heavily disadvantaged by high interest rates and transaction costs.

In 2008, the Philippines passed a law to Promote Entrepreneurship by Strengthening Development and Assistance Programs to Micro, Small, and Medium-Scale Enterprises.⁴¹ This act, referred to as the Magna Carta for Micro, Small, and Medium-Sized Enterprises, requires all lending institutions to set aside at least 8% of their total loan portfolio for MSMEs. It also mandated the creation of the Micro, Small, and Medium-Sized Enterprise Development Council, part of the Department of Trade and Industry, which is empowered to implement and monitor action plans for the advancement of MSMEs in the country (MSMED Council 2011). This act is gender-neutral.

The current government policy to increase the competitiveness of MSMEs, outlined in the MSME Development Plan for 2011–2016, is to be implemented around the four emerging global themes of climate change/green growth, gender mainstreaming, migration, and corporate social responsibility. MSMEs also are required to be “gender responsive and environment friendly” with regard to the business environment, financial products and services, productivity, and efficiency; a previous MSME development plan was criticized for lack of gender responsiveness in these areas. Thus, the present plan acknowledges that women own more than half of registered businesses. It aims to contribute 40% to gross value added and to employ an additional 2 million people by 2016. Furthermore, a government website highlights the current importance and contribution of MSMEs to the economy and employment in the Philippines.⁴²

Importantly, the MSME development plan encourages local stakeholders to take a gendered approach and notes that gender mainstreaming, when applied appropriately, can have positive effects on the business climate, productivity, and overall economic growth. Although the Philippines has advanced policies aimed at addressing the concerns of MSMEs run by women, and despite the importance of entrepreneurship for women, there still are considerable constraints on women's participation. Limited access to credit is a crucial one. Recent studies indicate that most microfinance clients are not considered poor by official definition and that the majority of microfinance funds have gone to urban areas in the richest parts of the country, whereas comparatively little has gone to the poorest provinces (Micu et al. 2010). A key challenge in the Philippines is to address the opportunities for and constraints on women entrepreneurs in the rural areas where most of the poor reside, and a prime policy focus should be to improve and enhance the opportunities for rural women. A good practice example from the NGO sector is the Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation (see Box 10).

A key challenge in the Philippines is to address the opportunities for and constraints on women entrepreneurs in the rural areas where most of the poor reside, and a prime policy focus should be to improve and enhance the opportunities for rural women

Cambodia

The Government of Cambodia recognizes that most of its people work in the rural or informal economy and that the vast majority of enterprises can be considered micro in size. Entrepreneurship policies are set out in the Small to Medium Enterprise Development Framework 2005 (and 2007) as well as the overarching National Strategic Development Plan Update 2009–2013, which prioritizes improvement of the business climate for MSME development. The four focus areas include the legal and regulatory framework, financing, supportive actions for MSMEs, and integrating MSMEs into a global value chain, including prevention of smuggling (ADB 2012b). The NSDP advocates the formation of MSME producer groups, networks of women entrepreneurs, and linkages with financial service providers, including microfinance institutions, the private sector, and local authorities. This specific reference to women in both the NSDP and the framework provides a sound basis for improving women entrepreneurs' access to information about microfinance institutions and microcredit.

⁴¹ RA No. 9501 of 2008, which amended RA 8289.

⁴² See Department of Trade and Industry, <http://www.dti.gov.ph/dti/index.php?p=134>.

Box 10 Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation, Philippines

The Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation (NWTF) began in 1984 as a nongovernment organization to help women achieve self-sufficiency and self-reliance, particularly in Negros Occidental's low-income and depressed urban and rural communities. In 2000, it became a microfinance institution following the Grameen Bank credit model. It operates under the project trademark Dungganon, which means "honorable," and today is one of the world's top 100 microfinance institutions.

NWTF has 56 offices, mostly serving remote areas. Three companies operate under the directorship of Project Dungganon: the NWTF; the Dungganon Bank; and an information technology company called DO-IT, which provides banking systems technology. As of 2010, NWTF's loan disbursements had reached P1 billion (approximately \$25 million), its loan portfolio was P480 million (approximately \$11.6 million), and it had 92,484 active members and 85,808 active borrowers. By 2011, NWTF's loan portfolio had grown to P600 million (approximately \$14.5 million) and it had 122,000 members. The clients targeted by Dungganon are the poorest of the population.

There are two major loan products. The first is a minimum loan to start or expand a business, ranging from P1,000 (approximately \$24) to a maximum of P30,000 (approximately \$720). The second loan product is designed to assist individual microentrepreneurs with loans ranging from P30,000 to P100,000. In 2010, the NWTF became a full-fledged field partner of Kiva and now has an additional monthly fundraising limit of \$100,000, which is available to qualified clients.

Dungganon's mission is to provide sustainable financial and client-responsive development services to the poor. It achieves this through a variety of strategies. It has moved away from a strictly credit-led approach toward providing a broader array of financial products and services, including savings and insurance to help the poor build comprehensive financial safety nets. For example, it provides training on entrepreneurship (which includes simple accounting, packaging, business strategies, and other income generating skills); other life benefits, notably insurance (life insurance, hospital income benefits, accidental death benefits, disability benefits, medical reimbursements, and weekly indemnity as well as a retirement fund); and a number of outreach programs, including scholarship grants and a microcrop loans to meet the credit needs of beneficiaries of agrarian reform, enabling them to cultivate their own land and retain ownership of it.

Women are the main beneficiaries, and they have engaged in many forms of economic activity: operating *sari-sari* stores; buying and selling fish, ready-to-wear garments, and food; engaging in numerous agriculture endeavors, such as backyard vegetable production; pig raising; medium-scale fishing; rice, sugarcane, coconut, and peanut farming; pandan bag making; salted duck egg production; restaurant operations; crab and animal meat processing; and ice-cream making.

Dungganon's goals over the period 2011–2013 include opening six new branches a year, enhancing products and services, and promoting environment-friendly products and activities.

Sources: Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation (NWTF). www.nwtf.ph; NWTF. 2009. *Annual Report*. <http://www.nwtf.org.ph/?chapter=16>; NWTF. 2010. *Annual Report*. <http://www.nwtf.org.ph/?chapter=16>.

The gender perspective on entrepreneurship in Cambodia is further taken up as part of the Five-Year Strategic Plan 2009–2013: Neary Rattanak III. The implementation of programs and services to promote women's entrepreneurship is largely achieved through the women's development centers, which have evolved from supply-driven vocational training centers into demand-driven enterprise development centers with integrated training programs. The government's promotion of the One Village, One Product movement, particularly in rural areas also can assist women entrepreneurs.

Although more than half of the enterprises are run by women entrepreneurs, they have many more disadvantages than their male counterparts. The United Nations and the ILO are assisting with the implementation of national MSME policies and strategies aimed at reducing the barriers to the formal economy, barriers to entry for creation of MSMEs, and access to microfinance, the

latter being a significant impediment for women entrepreneurs. Opportunities for job creation for women through entrepreneurship hopefully will be significantly improved through a gendered approach on the part of development partners. A complete support package is required to reach rural poor women.

Kazakhstan

A number of plans and strategies address entrepreneurship in Kazakhstan, which is highly important to economic growth. The government has placed considerable emphasis on the need to improve the climate for MSMEs, particularly emphasizing the need to develop non-oil export sectors. There is a Law on Private Enterprises, which defines small, medium-sized, and large enterprises. There is a gender-specific policy, the Strategy for Gender Equality in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2006–2016, which includes measures to promote women's role in business. The Action Plan for the Implementation of the Gender Equality Strategy for 2012–2016 includes specific actions to involve women in entrepreneurial activities, to provide microcredit for the development of women's entrepreneurship in rural areas, and to support training courses and seminars on microcredit and entrepreneurship for businesswomen and rural residents. The Employment 2020 Program promotes entrepreneurship in rural areas and gives priority to women wishing to organize their own businesses in villages.

Women's requirements when setting up a business are different from men's

In 2009, the Program on Microcredit for Women's Entrepreneurship for 2009–2015 was developed in accordance with instructions issued by President Nazarbayev at the Fifth Forum of Women of Kazakhstan (ADB 2013a). It established the Damu Enterprise Development Fund, which is open to individual female entrepreneurs and to enterprises in which at least 50% of shareholders and 30% of employees are women. ADB's recent country gender assessment provides a detailed discussion of the fund, an analysis of the needs of women entrepreneurs generally, and suggestions for improvement of the fund to better assist women.

Women's requirements when setting up a business are different from men's. For example, women need access to improved microcredit programs that require less documentation, offer lower interest rates, and have simplified collateral requirements (ADB 2013a). Furthermore, women can benefit from improved access to information, training, and outreach services to build their capacity to start up businesses and upgrade them over time. Two specific microcredit projects for rural areas in which the majority of the recipients are female entrepreneurs are Delta-Credit, a partner bank in the Program on Microcredit for Women's Entrepreneurship for 2009–2015 (see Box 11), and KazMicroFinance, a for-profit bank that began in 1996 with funds from the United States Agency for International Development. These two initiatives appear to be good practice examples of assistance for the most vulnerable women in rural and remote communities. As with women in the Philippines and Cambodia, it is recommended that women in poor rural areas of Kazakhstan should be targeted for special assistance.

Labor Support Policies

Social Protection

The term *social protection* has changed and broadened, moving away from the notion of social security nets to encompass social insurance as well as specific social services that protect against specific risks. ADB defines social protection as a "set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labor markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and interruption/loss of income."⁴³ The components of social protection programs include contributory social insurance programs, social assistance in the form of transfers to vulnerable groups, and labor

⁴³ See ADB website, Social Protection.

Box 11 Micro and Small Business Financing in Rural Areas, Kazakhstan

Delta-Credit is a microfinance organization located in the city of Pavlodar in northeast Kazakhstan. Its specific mission is to increase the effectiveness and profitability of micro and small businesses and to improve the living standard of poor yet economically active urban and rural households. It develops variable and sustainable financial services with the goal of bridging the gap between rural and urban markets.

Delta-Credit was created to address the fact that, despite government support and service, there still was a great difference in the incomes of Kazakhstan's rural and urban populations, and that people in rural areas needed investments, consultancy, and technology. Given the poor regional infrastructure, it was considered vital to guarantee the sale of the products of rural entrepreneurs. Thus, the organization offers the dual benefit of helping rural entrepreneurs develop and supply their products to cities and guaranteeing a return to investors. Delta-Credit not only provides technical support for rural entrepreneurs' production and investments but also guarantees the sale of their products in city markets.

The first rural development center was established in the Uspenska District. More than 80% of its clients are women from rural areas. In August 2011, a total of T756,000 (approximately \$5,143) was lent to women through the bank. The project allows women to work "in their own yards," with a guaranteed market in the city of Pavlodar. Projects have included growing sunflowers, breeding rabbits or calves, manufacturing felt products, and producing knitted goods.

Following the successful experience in the Uspenska District, the organization intends to expand its network of rural development centers in the Pavlodar oblast. The key areas of development center assistance are the introduction of technology; the supply of necessary raw materials and required equipment; provision of microcredit and equity; constant support and counseling for micro and small enterprises, to help promote the business development; provision of expert assistance; marketing research; setting up of a logistics center for the import of raw materials and export of finished products to urban areas, and to provide access to foreign markets; and training of school personnel.

According to the bank, future expansion of the development centers requires increased sales from rural areas through the introduction of new technologies; information technology and exchange with a market approach; cheaper logistics and transport; new storage technologies; and new product processing methods, including the technology required for on-site processing. This approach appears to provide the supports that women need to develop and market their products.

Sources: United Nations Economic Commission for Europe.. 2011. Policy Seminar: Women's Entrepreneurship Development in Central Asia 2011 Summary Report. Geneva. 19 September. http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/Gender/Events_Documents/2011/PolicySeminarWED/WED_Seminar_Report_Sept2011.pdf; Delta-Credit Project. *The Network Rural Development Centres*. http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/Gender/Events_Documents/2011/PolicySeminarWED/Session3/Sess3_2_AS_ENG.pdf.

market programs to help people secure employment. Social protection includes services and the payment of benefits triggered by specific social risks (such as old age or disability) or life events (such as the birth of a child). It is often difficult to draw a line between social protection and other development policies related to the creation of public works, education, and health care.

The ILO definition of social protection also includes "universal access to essential affordable social services in the areas of health, water and sanitation, education, food security, housing, and others defined according to national priorities" (2011g, 23). A recent comprehensive social security platform developed and promoted by the ILO recommends the adoption of minimum essential noncontributory benefits guaranteed by the government as well as a "social security staircase."⁴⁴ The reference to a social security staircase is meant to encapsulate the combination of a horizontal dimension, comprising a set of four essential noncontributory benefits guaranteed to every person, with a vertical dimension, which guides countries that have established the social floor to gradually reach the level of ILO Convention 102. This platform currently forms

⁴⁴ A comprehensive discussion is set out in ILO (2011g).

the basis for development of social protection policy and programs and their implementation in Cambodia.

It is good practice in social protection policies to recognize that women and men may experience different vulnerabilities. Some programs need to specifically address risks such as childbearing that only women experience. Even when women and men face the same risks, their experiences of that risk may differ. The way in which men and women access and benefit from social protection programs also will differ (ADB and ILO 2013a).

Good practice calls for strong links between social protection and labor systems through coherent and coordinated programs that communicate with one another, work together, and sometimes share administrative subsystems (World Bank 2012a).⁴⁵ Programs that lend themselves to coordination include conditional cash transfers, skills training, labor market access opportunities through public works, and encouragement of SMEs for working-age poor and vulnerable. In addition to a comprehensive gendered social insurance system, other good practice social assistance strategies to assist women include group targeting of assistance, using indicators such as female-headed households, pregnant women, disadvantaged women, and women in the informal sector, and public employment creation programs with targets for women (ADB and ILO 2013a).⁴⁶

Good practice indicates that gender-targeted employment guarantees are an innovative means of raising women's wages in the informal sector

Informal sector workers and/or workers in rural areas of developing countries frequently lack coverage. The majority of these workers are women and should be given the highest priority. Funding of strategies and programs is always challenging, though benefits may be provided through a mix of private and public funding, employer or employee contributions, or conditional government transfers, usually underpinned by legislation (ADB and ILO 2013a, 31–33).⁴⁷ Good practice indicates that gender-targeted employment guarantees are an innovative means of raising women's wages in the informal sector and provide a form of insurance against unemployment, especially in poor rural areas.

The Philippines

The Government of the Philippines has acknowledged the need for a common framework for social protection since 2007, when the National Economic Development Agency adopted a resolution to define social protection and its components (NEDA 2007). This resolution indicates that the goal of social protection policies and programs is to enhance the social status and rights of the poor by promoting and protecting livelihoods and employment, protecting against hazards and sudden loss of income, and improving people's capacity to manage risks.

At present, three mandatory public savings funds cover public and private employees: the Government Service Insurance System, the social security system, and the Employees' Compensation Commission. These schemes variously provide benefits such as retirement, sickness, maternity, disability, and death coverage. The Government Service Insurance System and the social security system also provide emergency loans, enabling members to borrow against their retirement contributions.

Although social security system coverage was slated to be expanded to include coverage of the informal sector by allowing participants to make reduced contributions, this has not been successfully achieved. The government's development plan indicates that only 31% of those employed are covered by insurance; thus, the majority of the workforce is marginalized. This is most notable among the rural poor; some 2 million landless rural workers still are not covered

⁴⁵ See also ADB (2010; 2011g; 2012a; 2012c; 2012f) and UNDP et al. (2011).

⁴⁶ See, in particular, Box 7: The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, India.

⁴⁷ See also ADB and ILO (2013b).

by any social protection scheme.⁴⁸ Domestic workers also had scant access to social protection. Women were particularly disadvantaged because of the informal nature of their employment, and although maternity benefits may be available for women working in the private sector, this is not the case in the public sector. Social protection is fragmented, and there is no unemployment insurance scheme in place, although labor laws include some provisions for severance pay and loans in the event of job loss.

The PDP sets out the government's social protection framework and identifies four major areas for intervention: labor market interventions aimed at enhancing employment opportunities and protection and workers' rights and welfare; social insurance programs to mitigate income risks by pooling resources and spreading risk across time and across classes; preventive and developmental social welfare interventions to support the minimum basic requirements of the poor; and social safety mechanisms or urgent responses that address the effect of economic shocks, disasters, and calamities on specific vulnerable groups. The plan notes that social protection schemes must be more inclusive and more flexible and that social protection responses should cover migrant workers and land-based overseas Filipino workers to ensure facilitation and integration. Although the plan refers to the need for more inclusiveness, however, it appears to be gender-neutral and does not highlight the fact that women and men may experience different vulnerabilities and needs. Similarly, the Department of Labor and Employment's Poverty-Free Zones Program also appears to be gender neutral (ILO 2011c). This program, which seeks to transform selected poor communities into self-sufficient entities through cooperative efforts of government and private organizations, includes job creation initiatives, promotion of livelihood and microentrepreneurial activities, provision of basic social services, and the elimination of child labor.

The Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program provides payments to poor households who have children up to 14 years old and to pregnant mothers, conditional upon ensuring, for example, that the children attend school and receive health services

The government has social protection on its agenda, and trade unions and the government are making an effort to facilitate the inclusion of informal economy organizations in social security programs. This is a good approach and could benefit from strengthened links between microinsurance schemes and national social security organizations.

The Philippines has been pilot testing a good practice conditional cash transfer program since 2008. The Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program provides payments to poor households who have children up to 14 years old and to pregnant mothers, conditional upon ensuring, for example, that the children attend school and receive health services (Chaudhury, Friedman, and Onishi 2013). Programs such as this address the fact that it takes generations to build up the intellectual and social capital required for a productive workforce. Children, particularly young girls, who are not allowed to attend school because their labor is needed to fill income gaps at home cannot become productive workers in adulthood (ILO 2012d; World Bank 2013). ADB has, through a technical assistance grant, helped to strengthen this program, seeking to ensure "that all activities are rooted in the specific local context of women; mobilize mothers' and women's groups to address the needs in their daily practical lives and ease their work burdens; increase social interactions and greater participation of women in communal life; and engender increased confidence and self-esteem among women" (ADB 2011g). A recent workshop held at ADB headquarters in Manila described the program as the largest poverty reduction and social development program that the Government of the Philippines has conceived, with its reach into 3,086,427 households as of 10 October 2012 (Chin 2013). It also reported an example of a woman who found that the program enabled her to gain self-confidence and feel like she had a formal education. The program has recently been evaluated, and it has been shown to be effective overall in its major objectives, which primarily relate to education and health of children (Chaudhury, Friedman, and Onishi 2013). It has also encouraged poor women to use maternal and child health services such as antenatal care and postnatal care, which assists both them and their children.

In summary, it is recommended that the government develop an overall comprehensive and coordinated framework. It may benefit from the overall approach undertaken by Cambodia in its

⁴⁸ See also ADB and ILO (2013b).

Cambodian National Social Protection Strategy for the Poor and Vulnerable, potentially assisted by the ILO and other development partners.

Cambodia

Cambodia's social policy is largely contained within the Rectangular Strategy and in the National Strategic Development Plan Update, which identifies a number of policies and action plans. Parallel to the NSDP update, a number of government institutions are delivering social protection through individual policy frameworks and action plans. The Council for Agricultural and Rural Development is the interministerial coordination mechanism to implement social protection interventions.

The informal safety nets are provided through kinship, reciprocal activities, community cohesion, and religious institutions

The major social protection programs have been social insurance schemes such as the National Social Security Fund, which commenced in 2007; the National Social Security Fund for Civil Servants, which commenced in 2008; the National Fund for Veterans, which commenced in 2010; the Health Equity Fund; community-based health insurance; and many other programs related to education, health, and general social assistance (Sothorn 2011). In addition, the country has both formal and informal safety nets. The informal safety nets are provided through kinship, reciprocal activities, community cohesion, and religious institutions, which still play a valuable part in assisting individuals and communities.

The National Social Security Fund is limited to private sector workers. The legal basis for coverage is the Law on Social Security Schemes, which is limited to workers defined by the Law on Labor. Coverage is limited to workers in enterprises with at least eight employees and provides only employment injury benefits (ILO 2012c). Therefore, one major problem has been the lack of protection for informal workers, who cannot rely on the legislation for benefits and protection (MOWA 2008). In addition, social protection has been ad hoc, geographically limited, and heavily reliant on unsustainable donor funding.⁴⁹ Overall social protection coverage has been weak and has been further hampered both by poor coordination among implementing parties (mostly government ministries and related national bodies) and by weak overall implementation capacity (a product of both human capacity weaknesses and a lack of physical and financial resources).

Concerns about coverage led to the recent development of an overarching policy framework for social protection, the National Social Protection Strategy for the Poor and Vulnerable. The core vision of the strategy is that all Cambodians, especially the poor and vulnerable, will benefit from effective social safety nets and social security as an integral part of a sustainable, affordable, and effective national social protection system. The main goal of the NSPS is to provide the most disadvantaged citizens with increasing protection against risks.⁵⁰ The NSPS identifies five objectives. Among these, Objective 3 is that "working-age poor and vulnerable citizens [will] benefit from work opportunities to secure income, food, and livelihoods, while contributing to the creation of sustainable physical and social infrastructure assets" (UNDP et al. 2011, 150). The responsibility for coordination lies with the Council for Agricultural and Rural Development, which is mandated to ensure that effective interministerial coordination mechanisms are in place involving government ministries and agencies responsible for delivering social safety net programs to the poor and vulnerable. The implementation is the responsibility of line ministries and decentralized government institutions.

Two of the five NSPS objectives specifically refer to women. Objective 2 states, "Poor and vulnerable children and mothers benefit from social safety nets to reduce poverty and food insecurity and enhance the development of human capital by improving nutrition, maternal and child health, promoting education and eliminating child labor, especially its worst forms." Objective 5 states, "Special vulnerable groups, including orphans, the elderly, single women with children, people living with disabilities, people living with HIV, patients of [tuberculosis] and other chronic illness,

⁴⁹ See ILO (2012e).

⁵⁰ See general description and overview of the scheme as described in UNDP et al. (2011, 134–156).

and the like, receive income, in-kind and psycho-social support, and adequate social care.” Save for the specific reference to women within these two objectives, however, the overall strategic framework is gender-neutral. One of the involved ministries is MOWA, but it is not clear what role this ministry will play in relation to the other seven involved ministries, which have been allocated particular tasks. The specific role of the MOWA must be outlined to ensure that the overall policy is gender-sensitive and mainstreamed in its implementation.

The NSPS is still in the process of policy development, but each of the present objectives has identified specific priority strategic objectives and interventions. Objective 3, for instance, addresses seasonal unemployment and underemployment, and the proposed strategies include national, labor-intensive public works programs, and food-for-work and cash-for-work schemes (ILO 2012b). Objectives 1 and 3 have specifically identified women and children for priority interventions, including conditional cash transfers, outreach services, and second chance programs for out-of-school youth. Policy options with costings have been developed but await further discussion and decisions.

An overarching national social protection strategy with a focus on the poor and the vulnerable, coupled with a conditional cash transfer scheme and labor market links, could represent a good practice that can significantly improve the circumstances of women

In addition to the measures outlined in the NSPS, the government aims to expand and improve the quality of community-based health insurance for low-income members of society, to include policies and programs to promote better occupational safety and health, and to ensure complementary health and social welfare services for those living with HIV/AIDS (ILO 2012d). The ILO’s present Cambodian Decent Work Country Profile indicates that the ILO’s contribution to the social protection strategy will be fourfold. First, a national and decentralized coordination mechanism must be established to ensure the effective and efficient implementation of the NSPS. Second, the financial sustainability of social protection investment must be demonstrated. Third, the benefit of social protection investment must be demonstrated and the progressive graduation from poverty to decent work must be supported. Fourth, further implementation of social protection schemes must be continued and supported. The ILO will provide technical assistance in the development or scaling up of basic social protection schemes (such as health equity funds, school feeding programs, and cash transfer schemes) and public works programs during the pilot testing phase of the NSPS implementation (2011–2015). In particular, the ILO will support the government in further developing social security through a proposed new health insurance scheme and through the drafting of a social security law that will cover civil servants and all workers not covered under present labor law.

In conclusion, an overarching NSPS with a focus on the poor and the vulnerable, coupled with a conditional cash transfer scheme and labor market links (if appropriately gender-mainstreamed, coordinated, implemented, monitored, and assessed), could represent a good practice that can significantly improve the circumstances of women. It will assist with services and will provide long-term protections to enable women to access work opportunities, increase their own human capacity, and improve their families’ general economic position.

Kazakhstan

Numerous laws in Kazakhstan provide for social security payments. The most important of these are On Compulsory Social Insurance (2003); On State Social Assistance (2001); On State Benefits for Families with Children (2005); and On Special State Allowance in the Republic of Kazakhstan (1999). These laws provide for a mandatory social insurance scheme supported by contributions from workers and self-employed people. The scheme is generally gender-blind, except that benefits can be paid to women in case of pregnancy or childbirth.

A significant number of self-employed people, who do not pay into the pension scheme and thus are not covered by social insurance, are women, notably rural women. Such women have no maternity or sick leave entitlements or access to child care services (ADB 2013a). Although the Government of Kazakhstan has given priority to the transfer of self-employment and informal business into the formal sector, women’s NGOs indicate that women may not benefit. It is also noted that the Strategic Plan of Development of the Republic of Kazakhstan states that by 2020 the government will achieve 100% employee coverage and 40% coverage of the self-employed population, with defined financial contributions. That target is gender-blind, however, and there is no indication

of how coverage for women is to be achieved. Moreover, the extent to which the overall target has been achieved is unknown, and the lack of consideration of gender issues must be addressed.

Training, Skills Development, and Transition to the Labor Market

Education and training improves labor market opportunities and outcomes for women, with positive implications for wider outcomes such as poverty reduction. Studies have shown that education and training of women has a direct effect on not only on women's increased labor market participation but also on their health and fertility, mortality, and their overall economic opportunities. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programs are a vital means of giving women access to work and employment. Targeted and well-delivered TVET programs significantly increase women's incomes and improve rural livelihoods (FAO et al. 2010).

Technical and vocational education and training programs are a vital means of giving women access to work and employment

Prior to taking up TVET programs, young females frequently require specific encouragement to undertake nontraditional curriculum studies at school that will open up future employment opportunities on an equal basis with men. Unfortunately, the curriculum offered to young women is often limited by reason of socially ascribed roles. In addition, young females may require targeted programs to improve their transition from school into the labor market in order to gain better-paying employment, on an equal basis with young males, in traditionally male jobs. TVET programs also should include information about entrepreneurship and the potential for future work opportunities. An example of good practice in school-to-labor market transition programs is the Philippines' MyFirstJob program (see Box 12). Even without an overall framework, however, training and scholarships to encourage young women to take up nontraditional employment can be included in the design of specific employment projects (ADB and ILO 2013a).

Box 12 MyFirstJob, Philippines

MyFirstJob is designed to provide job placement assistance for those leaving high school, to enable them to better integrate into the labor market. It also recognizes that females have a moderately more difficult time than males in finding a first job and that transition from school to work is particularly slow for young females from lower socioeconomic groups. For December 2014, MyFirstJob aims to target 1,600 students leaving high school and, importantly, it expressly requires that 50% of these people be women.

Services to be provided include career counseling; grants for vocational training for periods of 4 weeks or 6 months; and grants or wage subsidies linked to internships with public and private sector employers for periods of up to 12 months. The MyFirstJob pilot will be implemented in 2013 through public employment service offices in three localities, assisted by a grant from the Canadian International Development Agency. The executing agency is the Philippine Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE).

The government undertook several institutional and capacity development measures to initiate the MyFirstJob pilot. With the assistance of the International Labour Organization, the DOLE provided the public employment service offices with capacity building support in the form of employment facilitation, including staff training in coaching and counseling. The DOLE also drafted labor market information materials for dissemination among the public and high schools with the aim of improving young people's awareness about career opportunities. These initiatives are to be further extended through further capacity building measures.

The overall job-seeking program, which includes MyFirstJob, has been jointly formulated by the Asian Development Bank, the Government of Japan, and the Government of the Philippines in conjunction with the DOLE. The program has built-in monitoring and evaluation frameworks to assist the government with evidence-based policy making aimed at building stronger political support for eventual national rollout of the pilot programs. The evaluations could also guide government and development partners in adapting these models for other sectors.

Sources: Asian Development Bank. 2012. *Report and Recommendation of the President to the Board of Directors: Proposed Programmatic Approach and Policy-Based Loan for Subprogram 1. Republic of the Philippines: Increasing Competitiveness for Inclusive Growth Program*; K. Bird. 2012. *Helping Filipino Youth to a Good Start: Design of a Youth Employment Facilitation Program*. Presented at the 12th National PESO Congress. Baguio City, Philippines. 10–13 October.

TVET programs vary by sector, particularly whether the program is service-based, industrial, or rural, and the level at which the training is directed. Good practice policies include an overall TVET framework to deliver coordinated, effective, and efficient programs. Furthermore, it is increasingly recognized that TVET programs should be directly linked to current and future government priorities in trade and investment (Chun and Watanabe 2011). Programs also need to be linked to industry needs and have a combination of both public and private training that is driven by demand rather than by supply. Substantial advancement in this regard can be made through public–private TVET partnerships. The framework should include monitoring and assessment of the quality of the TVET to ensure that standards are controlled and appropriately recognized through quality assurance certification.

A technical and vocational education and training framework should be gender-responsive to overcome direct discrimination against women and avoid historical or systemic stereotyping of women with regard to the training offered, access to training, and the content and manner of training delivery

A TVET framework should be gender-responsive to overcome direct discrimination against women and avoid historical or systemic stereotyping of women with regard to the training offered, access to training, and the content and manner of training delivery (FAO et al. 2010).⁵¹ In 2009, ADB published a report on good practice in TVET, which refers to the unequal access of women to TVET, revealed by statistics that typically show enrollment by gender (ADB 2009a). Beyond overall numbers, further inequity may occur in channeling female trainees into traditional female occupations such as office work, sewing, and catering. The report noted that there is little that TVET alone can do to change these stereotypes, but an effective way to channel more female students into these nontraditional occupations is to train and recruit more female teachers in them. Typically, TVET institutions suffer from strong gender disparity in the training force. Three recent studies (FAO et al. 2010; ADB 2012; Chun and Watanabe 2011) highlight some of women’s specific TVET needs, particularly in poor rural areas where poverty is greatest. First, women need to be involved in the planning, decision making, and content and in the delivery of training courses. Second, the courses must encourage women’s participation in a broader range of training programs and must recognize the deeply ingrained social and cultural norms to be addressed. Third, special measures are frequently needed to attract women to higher-paying jobs and to help them develop the skills necessary for these positions. Finally, targets and quotas for women should be used to increase women’s participation rates.

To attract women and promote their training in nontraditional fields, women may need specific training programs, which should include personal development, life skills, and literacy training. Women may not start with the same skill base as men and may require bridging skills. It is good practice to combine income skills training with the provision of technical training skills, credit, and supplies for rural women. In rural areas, it is particularly useful to maximize locally available techniques and local practices where possible. Farmers’ field schools have been found to be a useful source of skills training in rural areas, and this includes identifying opportunities for off-farm income, particularly during the seasonal downturn (Hartl 2009). There should be a close relationship between regional employers and the potential pool of people who can meet employment demands. Participation of the rural poor and young women can be increased through the innovative use of additional assistance such as hostels, stipends, transport facilities, and child care centers.

Finally, it is important to collect quantitative and qualitative sex-disaggregated data on training programs to ascertain uptake, completion, reasons why women attend or fail to attend, and whether women were able to use their skills to obtain work.

The Philippines

The Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) manages TVET in the Philippines. It is mandated to manage and supervise technical education and skills development in the Philippines in accordance with the Technical Education and Skills Development Act of 1994 (Republic Act 7796). At present, TESDA supervises 57 schools, 60 training centers, and hundreds of enterprise-based and community-based training facilities that are jointly managed

⁵¹ See also ADB (2012e) and Chun and Watanabe (2011).

with local government units (ADB 2012c). In 2007, TVET programs had 2.14 million participants, but in 2009 this number declined to 1.98 million, whereas enrollment in higher education was 2.62 million in 2009 (NEDA 2011, chapter 8). A 2008 impact evaluation study commissioned by TESDA showed that the number of TVET graduates dropped from 64.6% of the labor force in 2005 to 55.1% in 2008. This decline was due in part to the global financial crisis but also to a skills mismatch.

Various scholarships and student financial assistance programs have been instituted in schools. These include the Commission on Higher Education Scholarship, the President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo Training for Work Scholarship Program, and the Ladderized Education Program. Among mixed successes, the Ladderized Education Program has been a standout, offering 1,330 education programs in eight priority disciplines: information technology, hotel and restaurant management and tourism, engineering, health, education, maritime occupations, agriculture, and criminology (NEDA 2011). This was complemented by the Department of Science and Technology Science Education Institute's merit scholarship, which is a demand-oriented science and technology scholarship and financial assistance program. Importantly, TESDA has implemented a quality assurance measure through mandatory assessment of TVET graduates.

The DOLE is developing an innovative program to help high school leavers enter the labor market, and specifically requires that half of the program's participants be female. The program builds upon the recognition that high school leavers have a more difficult time than college graduates in integrating into the labor market and finding a wage job, that only half of high school leavers actually find wage employment, and that there is a widening skills mismatch in the labor market.

The Department of Labor and Employment is developing an innovative program to help high school leavers enter the labor market, and specifically requires that half of the program's participants be female

The government recognizes that the challenge in tertiary education, which includes TVET, is not just to broaden but also to rationalize access to education for the economically and socially disadvantaged. The government also faces the need to diversify industrial priorities and to continuously institute programs and provide critical resources for skills upgrading and intensification at all levels. This includes greater interaction with the industry sector to develop competency standards; upgraded marketing, particularly among basic education students and their parents; provision of intentionally comparable science and technology courses; and continued work on job skills mismatches.

Gender does not appear to be specifically built into TVET or other training programs as a matter of policy. Instead, gender features are taken into account through the Magna Carta of Women, the Philippines Gender-Responsive Plan, and the gender and development mainstreaming mechanisms of the Philippine Commission on Women in all government agencies, including TESDA.

However, some programs and agencies provide TVET services specifically for women. For example, TESDA's women's center, established as a regional hub for "market-oriented, modern technology-based education and training, policy, and action-based research ... for the economic empowerment of women in the Asia-Pacific region," has extended women's training to include vocational and technical skills traditionally performed by men, such as general automotive repair, welding, and use of industrial machinery (JICA and TESDA Women's Center 2005, 9). The center has also conducted various studies and created advocacy programs to enhance gender responsiveness in traditionally male-centered workplaces. However, the number of participants has been small, and only 13% of the 1,500 women graduates from 1998 to 2003 specialized in a nontraditional field (ADB et al. 2008).

TVET-type programs are also delivered within projects such as the DOLE's Women Workers' Employment and Entrepreneurship Development program, which provides capacity development activities for women in the informal sector and served 61,698 women from 2004 to 2007. The Promotion of Rural Employment through Self-Employment and Entrepreneurship Development program, which provides training to rural women in agribusiness, enterprise development, and other income-generating activities, granted jobs to 40,006 women from 2001 to 2007.

In addition, the Philippine Commission on Women is implementing the second phase of the GREAT Women project, which promotes and supports a gender-responsive and enabling environment for women's economic empowerment, particularly in microenterprises.

A recent innovation is the DOLE's 2009 Project JobsFit: The DOLE 2020 Vision. This initiative sought to bring together the supply and demand sides of the labor market and aimed to identify and assess the preferred skills requirements of priority industries, including emerging industries in all regions, for the next 10 years. Disappointingly, no sex-disaggregated data were utilized and there was limited reference to gender, employment of women, or skills and support requirements.

Overall, the approach to technical and vocational education and training in the Philippines is fragmented and requires coordination and an overall gendered approach.

Cambodia

TVET is only recently emerging in Cambodia. It began in 2005, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, and was later taken over by the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MOLVT). The National Training Board is the country's main body for TVET policy formation, coordination, and implementation strategies.

The traditional labor division between men and women continues to have a strong influence on technical and vocational education and training available for women

Training is provided through short- and long-term courses in vocational training centers. There are 316 such centers—181 are managed by private institutions, 76 by NGOs or other associations, 38 by the MOLVT, and 21 by other public institutions (MOLVT 2010). The informal training system has been regarded as more successful than the formal training system, with informal training seen as delivering more relevant and better-taught programs.

The vocational training program is supported by two types of funding. The Special Training Fund provides training for workers who have lost a job due to the global economic crisis, and the National Training Fund offers skills training for the unemployed poor in the provinces (MOLVT 2010).⁵² This formal and informal training is accompanied by policies and training programs to improve employment in industry throughout Cambodia. The MOLVT seeks to enhance the quality and demand-side relevance of TVET by establishing stronger linkages between training providers, students, and the private sector and by strengthening entrepreneurial skills for small business growth (ILO 2011b).

In 2006, the National Training Board endorsed a national TVET development plan as part of a larger development plan through 2020. This formal TVET system produced just under 2,000 graduates in 2008—1,500 in technical trades and the remainder in management, business studies, and communication technology—while the total labor force was roughly 7.5 million. These small figures demonstrate the current limited capacity of TVET to fully contribute to the country's economic development. Furthermore, these programs are supply-driven rather than demand-driven.

The traditional labor division between men and women continues to have a strong influence on TVET available for women, a process that begins when young girls are still in school and are considering their future options. This inhibits women from taking up TVET in nontraditional occupations. Poverty, which forces young women to help at home, also prevents them from pursuing TVET. Furthermore, curricula and institutions are not gender-responsive, making them less friendly to female students. There are few women trainers and men tend to dominate in class (Government of Cambodia 2012).

Each of these matters must be addressed if women are to increase their participation rates in TVET. Rural women's TVET needs are best addressed at the community level to help break down women's barriers to entry, which predominantly come from family and culture. Consideration also must be given to child care facilities, which enable women with children to attend TVET.

⁵² See also Sothorn (2011).

In 2009, ADB noted that there was no national qualifications framework to approve skills standards, that there has been a poor fit between the skills of teaching staff and the needs of enterprises, and that industry links are the single most important factor for TVET success. A number of other issues and constraints were also identified. For instance, due to Cambodia's large rural population, TVET has a dual role—it must help improve agriculture productivity while also assisting with livelihood skills for self-employment. TVET must respond to the need for diversification in the economy, attract investment in new competitive industries, and provide a pool of skilled workers to contribute to productivity in existing industries. Finally, greater funding is required to increase participation rates in formal training by lifting training standards, and the skills taught must match demand (ADB 2009b).

The ILO has indicated that it will provide technical support in the implementation of the national TVET development plan and the Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan of the MOLVT and the Ministry of Industry, Mining and Energy. The ILO (2011b) also will promote the linkage of training with industry and employers' needs and will work toward improved skills policies and systems through a progressive skills certification process adapted to Cambodia's needs and situation.

The ILO is already assisting Cambodia in implementing a comprehensive human capital development strategy for increased investment in workforce skills, seeking to enhance the employability of men and women through improved skills development and public employment services. This will involve strengthening the current TVET system through a revision and upgrading of skills standards, which currently lack occupational and sector coverage and are poorly aligned with industry needs. Sectors earmarked for skills standards development include tourism, garment manufacture, and construction, which are all important for Cambodia's future growth. The development of public–private partnerships in TVET will form an integral part of the plan, as will improving both human capacity (e.g., teachers' skills) and physical infrastructure (e.g., facilities and equipment) in the TVET system and strengthening the National Training Board. Some suggestions already proffered by the ILO (2012d) include setting up public–private partnerships and creating post-training monitoring systems. All of these initiatives must be gender-responsive if TVET benefits are to benefit men and women equally.

Technical and vocational education and training must respond to the need for diversification in the economy

IV

Review of Legislative Frameworks and Laws for Gender Equality in the Labor Market

This section focuses on the general legislative framework in the DMCs under discussion, the laws that promote women's access to work, the laws that ease constraints on women's ability to work, and the laws that improve women's working conditions. The topics selected for discussion are those that have or could have the greatest impact on women's work in the three DMCs.

Legislative Framework

Promoting and supporting women's work requires a strong overall legislative framework that guarantees equality and nondiscrimination and that expressly provides for temporary special measures to redress historical and continuing disadvantages due to discrimination

Promoting and supporting women's work requires a strong overall legislative framework that guarantees equality and nondiscrimination and that expressly provides for temporary special measures to redress historical and continuing disadvantages due to discrimination. Good practice indicates that these fundamental norms, which are derived from international instruments such as CEDAW, ILO Conventions 100 and 111, and the International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights 1966, should be contained within a country's constitution. Legislative provisions that enable temporary special measures also provide the legal basis for affirmative action plans and gender mainstreaming.⁵³ Good practice includes legislative definitions that specifically cover direct and indirect discrimination, sexual harassment, and "exceptions" to discrimination—an exclusion or preference that is an inherent job requirement. Finally, it is essential that legislation on equality and nondiscrimination can be effectively implemented.

The Philippines

The Philippines has ratified 34 ILO conventions and is party to all of the fundamental United Nations human rights covenants and conventions. The Philippines' constitution has embedded these rights in Section 3, Article XIII (Bill of Rights), and in Section 14, Article II, which ensures fundamental equality of women and men before the law. Article 3, Chapter 1, of the labor code as well as the Republic Acts 6725, 7192, 7877, and 8551 all provide for fundamental human rights protection, including antidiscrimination provisions, and ensure fundamental equality, prohibition of sexual harassment, and temporary special measures. The Philippines' Anti-Sexual Harassment Act No. 7877 of 8 February 1995 is an example of good legislative practice.

⁵³ See, for example, sections 1 and 2 of Italy's Providing for Affirmative Action to Achieve Equal Treatment of Men and Women in Employment Act, Bill C-62, 1985; and Section 17 of Namibia's Affirmative Action (Employment) Act, No. 29, 1998.

The Magna Carta of Women (Republic Act 9710), another example of good practice legislation, is an overall legislative framework that articulates the specific rights, needs, and supports required by women in their general and working lives. For example, Chapter III, Section 8, provides for the human rights of women; Section 5 provides that the state be the primary duty bearer, which means it has the primary responsibility to ensure rights; and Section 22 provides for the right of women to decent work. Because the Magna Carta of Women is a fusion of policy goals and broadly worded provisions, however, it is difficult to enforce. Thus, other legislation, rules, or guidelines are required to implement and enforce the provisions. For instance, Section 41 of Implementing Rules and Regulations requires agencies and local government units to report on the implementation of the act within 180 days of adoption and thereafter to provide annual reports. It is not apparent that this has been done.

In short, although the Magna Carta of Women provides a good legislative framework, implementation issues remain. Filipino women often do not know about their rights, and the complaints system is confusing even if they do.⁵⁴ In addition, there is no effective labor inspection mechanism to address breaches. The government must address these matters to improve women's work and employment circumstances generally.

Recent legislative developments relate to enabling women to engage in night work and protecting domestic workers. Congress repealed Sections 130 and 131 of the Labor Code in May 2011, which had hitherto banned night work for women except under strict government permission. At the same time, it adopted a new Labor Code Chapter on "Employment of night workers." The new chapter provides protection to both women and men working at night. Importantly, it also requires the employer to consult workers' representatives or labor organizations on the details of the work schedules before introducing night work.⁵⁵

In 2012, the Philippines became the first country in Asia to ratify the ILO Domestic Workers Convention

In 2012, the Philippines became the first country in Asia to ratify the ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189). In early 2013, President Aquino also signed a new law, Republic Act 10361 known as the "Batas Kasambahay" (Domestic Workers Act), to better protect this large group of mostly young, female workers.

Cambodia

Cambodia has ratified 13 ILO conventions and is party to the fundamental United Nations human rights covenants and conventions. The country's constitution enshrines fundamental human rights in articles 30, 36, 45, and 46, which include antidiscrimination provisions. These constitutional provisions are an example of good practice; they not only are expressed in gender-neutral language but also specifically reinforce women's fundamental rights. This is important because Cambodian women continue to suffer the effects of long-term discrimination in work and employment, largely due to cultural and systemic stereotyping. Article 36 of the Constitution is particularly illuminating; it states that "work by housewives in the home shall have the same value as what they receive when working outside the home." However, it is not apparent that this provision has been used to achieve better outcomes for women.

Articles 12 and 279 of the Law on Labor provide for nondiscrimination in employment. Article 12, which is an example of good legislative practice, states that employers should disregard a person's sex in hiring, defining, or assigning work, vocational training, advancement, promotion, remuneration, granting of social benefits, discipline, or termination of employment. However, the Law on Labor has limitations. For instance, it does not define an act of discrimination,

⁵⁴ See ADB (2012e).

⁵⁵ Republic Act No. 10151, An Act Allowing the Employment of Night Workers, Thereby Repealing Articles 130 and 131 of Presidential Decree Number Four Hundred Forty-Two, As Amended, Otherwise Known As The Labor Code Of The Philippines. <http://www.gov.ph/2011/06/21/republic-act-no-10151/>

does not explicitly describe whether it refers to both direct and indirect discrimination, and does not provide for exemptions from discrimination on the basis of the inherent requirements of the job. There also is uncertainty about the definition of sexual harassment. For example, under the current definition, use of sexualized or abusive language may not constitute sexual harassment.⁵⁶ Finally, the law does not provide for special measures to be taken in circumstances where it is necessary to assist women to obtain substantive equality, as provided in ILO Convention 111, Article 5, and CEDAW Article 4. Furthermore, these constitutional and labor law rights are confined to Khmer citizens; other citizens living or working in the country do not enjoy these fundamental legislative protections. Compliance with international standards and good practice require that these matters be addressed.⁵⁷

Kazakhstan

No legislative provisions for temporary special measures or quotas were included in the final legislation, although such provisions were contained in a draft of the legislation

Kazakhstan has ratified 19 ILO conventions and is party to the fundamental United Nations human rights covenants and conventions. Article 12 of the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan recognizes and guarantees human rights and freedoms. Article 14 of the Constitution states that no one can be subjected to any discrimination based on work-related circumstances, property status, sex, place of residence, or any other circumstances. Article 6 provides that everyone has the right to freely choose work or to freely agree to work, without any discrimination, and has the right to choose a profession or occupation. The Labor Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan also includes equal opportunity and nondiscrimination provisions. It contains exceptions to discrimination, such as distinctions, exclusions, preferences, and limitations that are determined to be job requirements or are associated with a special state for people in need of increased social and legal protection. On State Guarantees of Equal Rights and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women (No. 223-IV), dated 8 December 2009, guarantees equal rights and equal opportunities for men and women in a number of areas, including civil service, the labor market, health care, and education. Article 10 of this law specifically refers to phases of employment, including the completion of an employment contract, access to employment vacancies, and matters related to training, retraining, and career development (ADB 2013a).

The Strategy for Gender Equality in the Republic of Kazakhstan 2006–2016 is a fundamental strategy aimed at the implementation of the government's gender policy, which includes indicators of gender equality. Importantly, it also provides definitions of five types of gender discrimination: sex discrimination, indirect discrimination, positive discrimination, direct discrimination, and hidden discrimination.⁵⁸ These definitions are a useful guide, but there is uncertainty as to how these definitions interact with the legislative measures and how they could be used to interpret legislation and be applied in practice.

No legislative provisions for temporary special measures or quotas were included in the final legislation, although such provisions were contained in a draft of the legislation. The legislative framework would be significantly improved by such an amendment, which would provide valuable assistance in advancing the circumstances of women, and there appears to be some discussion of adding such an amendment (ADB 2013a).

⁵⁶ See Cambodia Labour Law of 13 March 1997, Article 172, which states "All employers and managers of establishments in which child laborers or apprentices less than eighteen years of age or women work, must watch over their good behaviour and maintain their decency before the public. All forms of sexual violation (harassment) is strictly forbidden." Article 246 of the Criminal Code refers to sexual harassment in the criminal context as touching sexual parts.

⁵⁷ See ILO Resolution on Equal Opportunities and Equal Treatment for Men and Women in Employment, 1985; ILO Resolution on ILO Action on Women Workers, 1991; ILO Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90); ILO Discrimination Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111); and CEDAW Committee General Recommendation No. 19, 1992. See examples of good practice in ADB and ILO (2013b).

⁵⁸ See Government of Kazakhstan (2005).

One of the major challenges in Kazakhstan is to address the manner in which nondiscrimination, equal rights, and equal opportunities for men and women, as outlined in legislation, are viewed, interpreted, and applied in practice. Gender stereotypes concerning the roles of women and men in Kazakhstan include the assumption that women's primary role is that of caregiver, the center of family life, and that women should undertake most of the domestic responsibilities. Women are sometimes regarded as being less suited to work involving leadership, and certain types of physical work are considered inappropriate for women. For instance, Article 186 of the country's labor code specifically prohibits women from being involved in certain types of work. The Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan (No. 1220), dated 28 October 2011, approved a list of 299 types of prohibited jobs for women. For example, women are not allowed to work as divers, sailors, or bulldozer or earthmover operators. Although women need certain protections from hazardous conditions (and there can be issues related to reproductive health, including safeguarding pregnant women), the list is a restriction on the right of women to choose a profession—a right which is otherwise guaranteed by the Constitution. This list should be reviewed to ensure that it does not prohibit women from doing jobs simply due to discrimination and stereotyping.

Promoting Women's Access to Work

Good legislative practice to promote women's access to work combines special measures protected by law with legislation that regulates public and private employment agencies and addresses precarious and uncertain work, outsourcing, and short-term contracts. In addition, good practice legislation refers to phases of the employment process other than just the hiring and termination stages, including recruitment, short listing, interviewing, selection, and conditions of employment.⁵⁹ Good practice also includes legislation, rules, codes of practice, or self-regulation by employers with regard to gender discrimination to enable a better understanding of the stereotyping of women and to promote women's access to employment.⁶⁰

Good practice legislation refers to phases of the employment process other than just the hiring and termination stages

Employment and Recruitment Services

A pivotal tool to promote women's access to work is a strong and effective employment agency framework, comprising a blend of efficient public employment agencies and regulated, private, fee-charging employment agencies.⁶¹ All such agencies should be required to operate without discrimination on the basis of sex (ADB and ILO 2013b). Agencies should have access to information about a country's overall employment strategy, including its trade and investment priorities. Employment agencies also can be linked to information and counseling for workers on vocational training opportunities and can specifically target women.

The Philippines

The public employment service offices (PESO) mainly operate as centers for those seeking employment opportunities and function as referral and information centers for job exchange purposes. Nonetheless, the recruitment and placement of workers is undertaken mainly by private companies and industries, either through private placement agencies or direct hiring. Job fairs and career placements likewise are driven mainly by employers and private entities.

⁵⁹ A good example of specific reference to both advancement and promotion is set out in Section 4 of Côte d'Ivoire's labor code.

⁶⁰ A good legislative example is the approach taken by Hong Kong, China, in its Sex Discrimination Ordinance of 1995, Section 69, which enables the Equal Opportunities Commission to publish codes of conduct.

⁶¹ See ILO Unemployment Convention, 1919 (No. 2); Employment Service Convention, 1948 (No. 88); Fee-Charging Employment Agencies Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 96); Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181) and Recommendation No. 188; and EU Temporary and Agency Workers directive (2008/104/EC).

Article 25 of the labor code affirms private sector participation in the recruitment and placement of workers, both locally and overseas. However, the government recognizes that PESO operations need improvement and that legislative amendment, particularly of sections 3, 6, and 7 of the Public Employment Service Office Act of 1999, is required. The Philippine Labor and Employment Plan (PLEP) includes measures to extend PESO operations through local government establishment, operation, and maintenance of PESOs in key cities and municipalities and through the establishment of job placement offices instead of PESOs. Furthermore, the PLEP states that such services must address the labor-mismatch problem by promoting better coordination among employers, educational institutions, and the government, and that there is a need to strengthen both PESO and private sector labor market information and exchange institutions, especially locally.

The PLEP, if implemented, is a step in the right direction. However, the PLEP and PESO operations have little gender content, which is a significant omission. Although other overarching plans contain a generalized recognition of women's equality in work, employment, and services, more is called for with regard to employment agencies (ADB and ILO 2013b).

The job centers also assist specific target groups, such as disadvantaged job seekers, unemployed women, youths, and migrant workers who would otherwise be unable to access these services in provincial and district communities

Cambodia

Article 258 of Cambodia's Law on Labor provides that any person looking for employment can register with the MOLVT placement office or with the employment office in his or her province or municipality. All employers are required to notify the placement office or municipal employment office of any vacancies, with some qualifications. In practice, however, employment placement is currently predominantly undertaken by the National Employment Agency (NEA), under the jurisdiction of the National Training Board. Created through government sub-decree 67, dated 27 April 2009, the NEA describes itself as a "one-window" office. The purpose of the NEA is to improve the quality and effective delivery of labor market information services by providing job seekers, employees, employers, and skills training providers with opportunities to exchange information. This is to be achieved through the establishment of job centers in main cities and strategic provinces. At present, there are five functioning job centers, located in Battambang, Kampot, Phnom Penh, Siem Reap, and Svay Rieng, all of which were established with ILO assistance.

This network of job centers provides improved labor market information, job search assistance, placement services, and administration of a variety of labor market programs. These job centers will continue to provide improved services to job seekers and employers through new and updated tools and labor market information. The job centers also assist specific target groups, such as disadvantaged job seekers, unemployed women, youths, and migrant workers who would otherwise be unable to access these services in provincial and district communities due to cost, poor outreach, and a general lack of awareness of such services.

In a recent statement, the head of the NEA reported that 80,000 job opportunities had been disseminated through the NEA since 2010 and that job centers had registered 19,033 job seekers, but only 10,824 had been referred to employers as of August 2012 (Heimkhemra 2012). These figures reveal that the NEA is not yet adequately and effectively fulfilling its role. In the same statement, the government indicated that 7.7 million people are employed "in one way or another." This is most likely due to the fact that most workers in the private sector are recruited either by public advertisement in local media or, most often, by private agents or recruitment agencies. For example, most factory recruitment is undertaken through agents or direct management.

The limited number of job centers, together with the shortfall in the referrals of job seekers to employers through the NEA and the relatively small numbers of job opportunities that the NEA disseminates, suggests that the NEA needs to expand in order to effectively fulfill its role.

The NEA does not appear to consider gender in its current operations. The CEDAW Committee previously drew the attention of the government to the need to take measures to address

discriminatory recruitment practices, including discriminatory job advertisements calling for only men or only women to apply. In addition, the NEA should collect sex-disaggregated data collection on job seekers and take specific measures to promote equitable access to employment services.

The government is working to improve the public employment service agencies, but apart from private employment agencies operating in relation to overseas migration, little is presently being done about private employment agencies.

In summary, while the government is working to improve the public employment service agencies, there needs to be more focused attention and resources to speed up the process of creating more job centers, to improve connections between job seekers and employers, and to address the issues related to discriminatory recruitment practices against women in the public and private employment agencies as well as among individual employers.

Short-Term Contracts

Precarious and uncertain employment increasingly affects women's access to work and their conditions of employment in all countries (ADB and ILO 2013b). Good legislative practice should clarify ambiguous outsourced employment relationships and should address the use of short-term contracts when work is ongoing rather than seasonal or genuinely intermittent.⁶² Short-term contracts are commonly used to avoid or reduce an employer's obligations to provide benefits and protections that apply to permanent employees, such as rights to holidays, annual leave, social security benefits, and termination rights. Short-term contracts can also be used as a means to discriminate against women who marry and/or become pregnant. At the same time, the challenge when addressing precarious work is to balance employers' legitimate need for flexibility with workers' equally legitimate demands for stability and protection.

Short-term contracts are commonly used to avoid or reduce an employer's obligations to provide benefits and protections that apply to permanent employees

The Philippines

The use of short-term contracts appears to be prevalent in large companies or industries in the Philippines and includes workers who are engaged as contractors through external service providers. These independent service providers usually maintain their employees as casual or contract workers. These workers typically are women whose terms of employment expire before the 5-month mark is reached, because a longer contract would require additional payments to be made as well as workers' access to benefits and the rights of a permanent employee.

To address this, the DOLE issued Department Order No. 18-A, dated 14 November 2011, which had two purposes. First, it amended the rules governing contracting and subcontracting arrangements to provide clarity about outsourcing in which workers were treated as subcontractors to avoid payment of benefits. Second, the order imposed penalties on employers and subcontractors who repeatedly hire employees under rotating 5-month contracts. This legislation is an illustration of good practice. In relation to multiple short-term contracts, however, it will require monitoring to ensure that it achieves its aims without unduly impeding flexible employment relationships.

Cambodia

Fixed-duration contracts (FDCs) also are increasingly used in Cambodia to fill positions previously occupied by employees with indefinite contracts. FDCs result in loss of seniority entitlements, annual leave, sick leave, special leave, seniority bonuses, attendance bonuses, and other special protections that are afforded to indefinite duration contracts. They also enable employers not to renew an employment contract if a woman becomes pregnant.

In the last 5–6 years, the use of short-term or fixed-duration contracts of 3–6 months has become prevalent, and the issue has become a major source of disagreement between employers and workers as the labor law is interpreted in different ways. In view of the Arbitration Council,

⁶² For good practice in the European Union, see Fixed-Term Workers Directive No. 99/70/EC of 1999.

the independent body mandated under Cambodia's Law on Labor to solve collective labor disputes, the law states that workers should be granted a contract of undetermined duration after 2 years of short-term contracts. However, others read the law to say that the total duration of short-term contracts can be unlimited as long as no single contract is longer than 2 years. This new interpretation has given rise to criticism by many international labor rights specialists and the unions (Lowenstein 2011).

In addition, women on FDC contracts who become pregnant face the risk of dismissal as soon as the pregnancy becomes visible. Workers on FDCs are entitled to maternity benefits as long as the total length of their uninterrupted service is at least 1 year. The Arbitration Council has ruled that two separate contracts that are interrupted by even a short break will not be totaled for purposes of counting days of service. At the same time, the council has warned employers, however, not to reemploy workers after a short break in order to maliciously evade their legal obligations.

The challenge in addressing precarious work is to balance employers' legitimate need for flexibility with workers' equally legitimate demands for stability and protection

The challenge in addressing precarious work is to balance employers' legitimate need for flexibility with workers' equally legitimate demands for stability and protection. The effects of the use of FDCs in Cambodia should be scrutinized and monitored to ensure that they do not have the effect of discriminating against women, and that they do not lead to undue hardship for either workers or employers.

The effects of these rules on successive short-term or fixed-duration contracts should be monitored to ensure that when they are implemented in practice, they do not have the effect of discriminating against women, and that they achieve their aims without unduly impeding flexible employment relationships.

Kazakhstan

Like Cambodia, Kazakhstan's labor code contains good practice provisions to clarify and give certainty to situations in which contracts are deemed to extend for an indefinite period. Article 29 specifically states that, in the event of repeat conclusion of a contract with an employee who previously contracted for a period of 1 year or more, the contract will be deemed to be for an indefinite period. This article also prohibits employers offering contracts for a specific period for the purpose of avoiding granting the guarantees and compensation envisaged for employees with an indefinite period contract.

Finally, the article states that if on expiration of the employment contract neither party demands termination of labor relations within a day, the contract will be deemed to have been concluded for an indefinite period (subject to certain limitations). This aspect of the legislation, which is mandatory in its application after 1 year, may have unintended effects on flexibility and may operate in a way that discriminates against women, who may be prevented from being reemployed.

Limiting Constraints on Work

A number of constraints, including reproductive issues and disability, can limit women's capacity to undertake work. However, the present section focuses on two major constraints related to legislation and policy. First, women can be constrained by family responsibilities, lack of access to reproductive health services, lack of access to parental leave, and poor availability of quality, affordable child care services near their homes or workplaces. Second, self-employed women can be constrained by a lack of access to land, inheritance rights, credit, and financial services (ILO 1996).

Family Responsibilities

Women's labor market participation is constrained by time-consuming domestic and care responsibilities. Women often face a triple burden of caring for family, attending to domestic chores, and bearing and rearing children. These constraints begin during childhood and continue throughout the life cycle. Women often lack access to fertility control information and services that would enable them to plan if and when to have children. They are also constrained by the time spent on repetitive, tedious domestic work. This is often linked to inadequate public infrastructure for potable water, electricity, fuel, and roads as well as the availability of quality, affordable, convenient child care services.

These issues can be addressed through a combination of policy and legislation. Good legislative practice includes legislative guarantees to promote and protect women's reproductive health and rights, and ensure that women have access to reproductive health services. This should include access to information and services for younger women in order to reduce unwanted teenage pregnancies.

In addition, legislative measures are required to enable both men and women to reconcile work responsibilities with family obligations (ADB and ILO 2013b). Such measures may also help shift the burden of care, which presently falls largely on women, so that it is shared more equally with men. Granting of paternity leave, for example, can assist with the redistribution of care responsibilities. Systems of parental leave differ significantly among countries in terms of eligibility, payment, duration, transferability, and the age of the child to be cared for. In some countries, long parental leave may be seen as a way of providing care for young children while reducing the need for child care services, which can be relatively expensive.

Women often face a triple burden of caring for family, attending to domestic chores, and bearing and rearing children

Provision of child care facilities is also an important measure to help parents who wish to access work or continue to work and can help prevent discrimination against women, on whom child care responsibilities tend to fall. Availability of child care facilities enables both parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life.

The prime responsibility to ensure the development of child care services should lie with the government, though this does not necessarily mean that the government itself must provide these services.⁶³ There is a wide variation in government approaches to child care (ILO 2010f). One good practice example is the Netherlands' Child Care Act 2005, amended in 2007, which requires child care costs to be split equally among employers, working parents, and the government. This benefit is not limited to women workers but also applies whenever there are two working parents. Other governments must work to integrate workers' needs into child care policies and programs (ADB and ILO 2013b). However, transposing standards from developed countries may be unrealistic for many developing countries. Nevertheless, the provision of basic child care may improve the situation for children at risk, and low-cost community-based initiatives can have a positive effect on child development indicators. Establishing and strictly enforcing minimum standards, combined with government financial support, is a good approach for developing countries.

The Philippines

Population and fertility rates are high in the Philippines. In this regard, the passage of the Responsible Parenthood and Reproductive Health Act of 2012 (Republic Act 10354) is very important. As of June 2013, the implementation of this act was held up by litigation in the Supreme Court of the Philippines. If implemented, however, it is hoped this legislation will reduce maternal mortality and enable women to freely choose whether and when they have children. Service delivery, which is designed to be multidimensional, is the responsibility of employers, who either provide health care or partner with health care providers for the delivery of services to female employees. This will affect the capacity of women to access and retain employment.

⁶³ See Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156) and its accompanying Recommendation (No. 165).

Monitoring and assessing the implementation of the legislation will provide valuable guidance not only for the Philippines but also for other countries that may seek public–private responsibility for the delivery of health care services.

The Philippines also has other relevant legislation. The Paternity Leave Act (Republic Act 8187) provides married men with 7 days' leave with full pay for each of their first four children, though this benefit is not available for unmarried fathers. Likewise, the Maternity Leave Act (Republic Act 7322) provides for 60 days' full pay and other allowances and benefits to married women who give birth. Like paternity leave, this benefit is not available for the unmarried. Finally, Republic Act 6972 requires the government to provide child care in every barangay (smallest administrative division in the Philippines), though there is inadequate implementation of this requirement.

Evidence-based knowledge is needed to design solid, effective policies and ... a robust monitoring and evaluation system is required to provide timely, clear, and updated information

With regard to child care, the Early Childhood Care and Development Act 2000 established the national early childhood care and development (ECCD) framework. The essential element of the framework is shared national, provincial, city/municipal, and barangay governance to support delivery of integrated services. The act mandates the establishment of multisector coordinating mechanisms to ensure sustained national and local collaboration. In addition, the act incorporates commitments by all stakeholders, notably local governments, to fund ECCD programs projects and activities (ADB and ILO 2013b).

The national ECCD system is a comprehensive, holistic approach that addresses the development of the whole child and delivers health, nutrition, early childhood education, social protection, and other social services to children up to 6 years of age and their families. The system is collectively owned and supported by local government, the community, and families and requires multisector interagency collaboration. The national coordinating body is the ECCD Council. The legal framework is supported by two major laws and two major policies. From 2000 to 2008, 79 out of the 80 targeted provinces and all 28 targeted highly urbanized cities had established ECCD systems. Although no targets were set for the municipalities or barangays, many were still covered.

The Philippines' framework appears to be a good practice example for early childhood governance. An assessment of benefits and challenges of the ECCD concluded that the legal framework is an ideal interagency, multisector structural arrangement (Manuel and Gregorio 2011). Although some modifications to legislation and policy were suggested, such as a policy to promote increased investment in country poverty reduction goals and mainstreaming, the main concerns related to implementation. The study also concluded that evidence-based knowledge is needed to design solid, effective policies and that a robust monitoring and evaluation system is required to provide timely, clear, and updated information. As of October 2010, there was a bill before parliament to strengthen the organizational structure and funding of the ECCD Council.

Cambodia

Cambodia has prioritized maternal and child health in its Health Strategic Plan 2008–2015, and there is a focus on sexual and reproductive health in the National Strategic Development Plan 2006–2010. The National Reproductive Health Program, led by the Ministry of Health, includes service delivery by bilateral agencies and international and local NGOs (Shah 2010). In addition, specific interventions proposed in the Cambodian Global Health Initiative Strategy 2011 have been supported by the United States Agency for International Development (2011). Private sector health services deliver nearly 80% of all health care sought, and the fragmentation of service quality and availability must be addressed. The Cambodian Demographic and Health Survey 2010 found that 17% of married women had an unmet need for family planning and that this need was especially high among women in the lowest wealth quintile and among women who had only completed primary education or had no schooling.

Although there is no legislation that specifically guarantees women's rights to reproductive health, abortion was legalized in Cambodia by the Abortion Law of 1997. Abortions can only be conducted by medical doctors, medical practitioners, or midwives authorized by the Ministry of

Health and can be carried out only in a hospital, health center, health clinic, or maternity ward. The Demographic and Health Survey 2010 revealed improvements in women's awareness of fertility control methods and contraception, but unsafe abortion remains common, and more must be done to improve related maternal mortality ratios (Shah 2010).

A recent innovative public–private partnership project, which is being implemented by the international NGO Marie Stopes International Cambodia, aims to increase the uptake of sexual and reproductive services by piloting a voucher scheme for poor rural communities. The subsidized vouchers enable poor clients to access providers of key health services. The scheme also acts as incentive for providers to improve their standards and offer affordable services. It is hoped that this scheme will be monitored and assessed for its effect and potential expansion.⁶⁴

With regard to leave from work, Cambodia's good practice legislation enables male and female employees to take up to 7 days of special leave for personal reasons, such as the employee's own marriage, the birth or marriage of the employee's child, or the illness or death of a husband, wife, child, father, or mother.⁶⁵ This leave is fully paid, with some qualifications, and is not available to employees under FDCs.

Another piece of legislative good practice is Article 184 of the Law on Labor, which entitles working mothers to 1 hour per day of breastfeeding time, divided into two periods of 30 minutes each.

The burden of child care affects women's employment, and Cambodia has some relevant legislation. For example, enterprises and agriculture plantations employing more than 100 women are required to set up child care facilities within their establishments or nearby, or they may offer payments in lieu of the service (ADB 2012b). However, there is no report on whether these provisions are implemented in practice and it is suspected that they are not enforced. Apart from these specific legislative provisions, child care arrangements are highly variable, and women spend a significant amount of time and earnings on providing such care.

The need and demand for child care is growing in both urban and rural areas, but the quality of formal and informal child care services is questionable and the cost varies with the type of care and the age of the children (Netra and Sovann 2007). Essentially, there are five main approaches to child care. First, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, through its Department of Early Childhood Education, has programs for children from birth to age 6. The objective is to expand services especially for children from poor families, ethnic minorities, and disabled children, with priority given to community and home-based preschools, and to improve the quality and equitable accessibility of these services (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport 2011). Second, there are school-based programs offered through formal institutions, including day care centers for children from birth to age 3, and kindergartens or preschools for children between 3 and 6. Third, there are informal day care or child care arrangements in which preschool-age children are left with relatives or hired help and stay at their own home or in a nearby home (Netra and Sovann 2007). Fourth, women may pay to place their children in private child care centers. Finally, children less than 6 years old are often brought to the workplace or are cared for by mothers and relatives.

There are several constraints on the access and use of formal child care centers. For instance, outlying regions or rural areas either have no day care centers or have a limited number of kindergartens; such services mainly exist in large towns and cities. Moreover, in many cases the available kindergartens are located a long distance from workers' homes or working areas, and almost all kindergartens are open for only half a workday.⁶⁶

Child care arrangements are highly variable, and women spend a significant amount of time and earnings on providing such care

⁶⁴ See Center for Health Market Innovations webpage, Voucher Scheme for Reproductive Health in Cambodia.

⁶⁵ See Prakas No. 267 on Special Leave, dated 11 October 2001.

⁶⁶ See ADB (2012e).

Kazakhstan

Policies relevant to the reproductive health of women in Kazakhstan include the Strategic Plan of Development to 2020, the State Health Care Development Program for 2011–2015 “Salamatty Kazakhstan,” and the Strategy of Gender Equality for 2006–2016. However, there appears to be no specific legislation that embeds women’s legal right to reproductive health. The government, together with the United Nations Population Fund, has developed a Country Programme Action Plan 2010–2015.⁶⁷ The country program focuses particularly on adolescents, young people, and women of reproductive age—especially those from socially vulnerable population groups, such as women with many children, rural residents, migrants, people with disabilities, and people with HIV or a high risk of acquiring HIV.

An employer is forbidden to compel women with children under the age of 7 to work at night or to send them away for business, without the written consent of the employee

The last general demography and health survey, published in 1999, found that 8.7% of the population comprised fertile, sexually active women who did not want to be pregnant. At the same time, an earlier survey revealed that about half of women married or living with partners between the ages 15 and 49 did not use any form of contraceptive and that abortion was one of the major family planning methods. More than 66% of sexually active adolescents between 15 and 19 did not use contraceptives, and, in 2008, the number of medical abortions reported for the same age group was 28 per 1,000 women. In some areas of Kazakhstan, almost half of pregnancies ended in abortion. This high abortion rate indicates a greater need for universal reproductive health services. The Country Program Action Plan 2010–2015 is designed to improve these outcomes. Such measures will also affect women’s ability to plan whether and when to have children, which in turn will remove a constraint on their capacity to obtain work.

Kazakhstan’s constitution includes an example of good legislative practice on family responsibility and the rights of both parents to take leave and undertake part-time work. Article 27 of the Constitution states that marriage and family, motherhood, fatherhood, and childhood are to be protected by the state. The labor code also provides for child care and maternity leave without pay, and for the establishment of part-time work for women and other people with family responsibilities. An employer is obliged to grant leave without pay to an employee to care for a child under the age of 3, and this can be taken by either the mother or the father, although some men have encountered problems with employers if they seek to exercise their right to take that leave, largely due to gender stereotyping (ADB 2013a). This calls for education and codes of conduct to encourage employers to fulfill their obligations and for enforcement by an effective labor inspectorate.

There are also gender-specific provisions in the labor code that are designed to protect women and their roles as mothers. For example, an employer is forbidden to compel women with children under the age of 7 to work at night or to send them away for business, without the written consent of the employee. Employers also are prohibited from terminating the employment contract of a woman who has children under the age of 3. Unfortunately, these provisions, designed to protect women, can serve to dissuade employers from hiring women. Thus, it is recommended that the labor code be amended to apply such provisions to both men and women.

Prior to the collapse of the Soviet Union, child care centers were available as part of the social support infrastructure. However, these were subsequently dismantled and there is no overarching strategy to reestablish affordable or free child care facilities, particularly for those in need.

Lack of Access to Property

Women’s lack of access to credit and financial services has already been referred to in the context of the agriculture sector and entrepreneurship. The present section refers to women’s access to land.

⁶⁷ See Government of Kazakhstan and United Nations Population Fund (2011).

The Philippines

There are three examples of good legislation in the Philippines. First, the Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Law 1988 (Republic Act 6657) specifically states that women have the right to own land. Second, the Philippines Women in Development and Nation Building Act expresses a number of women's rights, including the right to enter into contracts and have equal access to credit, loans, and resources. Third, the Philippines' Agriculture and Fisheries Modernization Act includes specific provisions for women on this topic (ADB and ILO 2013b).

However, implementation of the Agrarian Reform Law has been slow and was extended because targets had not been met. By 2003, only a quarter of the emancipation patents granted under that legislation had gone to women, and certificates of landownership were granted to fewer than 16,000 women, compared to 33,000 men (ADB et al. 2008). Since the passage of a new land law in 2001, including a progressive measure to ensure that both men and women are identified as owners, 78% of titles have been granted for joint ownership. Unfortunately, women still may be deprived to full property rights as a consequence of Article 96 of the Family Code of the Philippines. This article states that community property belongs to both spouses jointly, but, in case of a disagreement, the husband's decision will prevail. The wife then has 5 years from the date of the contract to appeal such a decision. This provision is discriminatory, and the 5 years from the contract date may even have passed before there is any disagreement. This article should therefore be amended.

Article 96 of the Family Code of the Philippines ... states that community property belongs to both spouses jointly, but, in case of a disagreement, the husband's decision will prevail

Generally speaking, the implementation of legislation is the main impediment to women gaining access to land. This impediment needs to be addressed.

Cambodia

Cambodia has a long and complicated history of agrarian reform, which continues, and landgrabbing is an ongoing issue (UNIFEM et al. 2004). Although women have rights to land, these rights may be denied in practice due to gender-biased cultural and social factors. Even though land is jointly registered and both parties must sign to transfer land titles, in practice this is not enforced, and women are vulnerable to losing control over such decisions and/or deferring to their husbands. This requires monitoring, and women must be better informed about their rights and be provided with legal assistance. In addition, there is a practice whereby a man may register property in his name without including his wife's name, thereby depriving his wife of any rights with respect to the property (ADB 2012b). This practice requires investigation.

Kazakhstan

A recent ADB report (2006b) highlights a number of constraints on women in agriculture in Kazakhstan, including a concern that land reform is complex and does not address the needs of small farmers, which includes significant numbers of women. There is additional concern that land lease arrangements may force small-scale farmers off their land with no alternative means of income.

Improving Women's Conditions of Work

Four legislative good practice measures can significantly improve women's working conditions. The first is to ensure that the international standard of equal remuneration for work of equal value is applied both in legislation and in practice, and that there are institutional frameworks for the objective evaluation of job tasks to ensure that women are paid in accordance with their skill levels (ADB and ILO 2013b). This standard is also linked to the mechanism by which a country sets minimum wages, which should be an independent and transparent process that takes specific account of women's needs. An example of good practice in this regard is Australia's Minimum Wages Panel.

The second good practice is to ensure that women have effective complaint mechanisms to address discrimination in the workplace, including sexual harassment. Such mechanisms should be simple, economic, and accessible. Complaints should be resolved through independent mediation or adjudication, using procedures that address the problems of proving discrimination.

The third good practice is a strong and efficient labor inspectorate, which effectively monitors and enforces legislative measures to ensure that nondiscrimination and decent work standards are applied in practice.⁶⁸

Finally, a strong and effective social dialogue mechanism is required to ensure women's participation, support women in trade unions, and improve collective bargaining to improve the conditions of women's employment and work.

Equal Pay and Minimum Wages

A strong and effective social dialogue mechanism is required to ensure women's participation, support women in trade unions, and improve collective bargaining to improve the conditions of women's employment and work

Many international standards enshrine the notion of equal remuneration for work of equal value. Because men and women often perform different jobs, under different conditions, and even in different establishments, the concept of "work of equal value" is essential to enabling a broad scope of comparison, encompassing work that is of an entirely different nature but which nevertheless has equal value. Good practice requires legislation that expresses this norm correctly, and the failure to appropriately address this requirement has an important effect on the gender pay gap (ADB and ILO 2013b).

The interrelationship among equal remuneration, wage setting and application of national minimum wages, and reducing employment inequality between the sexes is increasingly recognized. A minimum wage sets a wage floor and can also be extended to particular categories of work. This has an important influence on wages for women, who tend to be at the bottom end of free income distribution. Good practice indicates that there should be an independent wage-setting process, which is transparent, applies objective criteria, and includes the involvement of social partners.

The Philippines

The Philippines' legislation on equal remuneration does not conform to CEDAW or to ILO Convention 100, which refers to work that is "identical or substantially identical" or to work that is "substantially equal" (ADB 2012c). Under these definitions, some types of work may not be identical or even substantially identical, and indeed they may be very different, but nonetheless the work may be of equal value and therefore should be equally remunerated. Consequently, the Philippines' legislation requires amendment to meet good practice and international norms.

As is the case in many other countries, there is a disparity between men's and women's wages in the Philippines, despite legislation that requires equal remuneration for both sexes. This raises issues about the institutional wage-setting process (ADB 2012c). In the Philippines, the institutional wage-setting process was established under the Salary Standardization Law, which established the Minimum Wages and the Wage Rationalization Act (Republic Act 6727). Minimum wages are prescribed by regional tripartite wages and productivity boards and are regionally fixed based on all of the orders issued by the boards. Minimum wage increases require board approval or an act of congress, which provides across-the-board wage increases (ADB 2012c).

⁶⁸ See ILO (2006).

According to Article 124 of the labor code, as amended by Republic Act 6727, the following factors are to be considered when setting wages: (i) demand for living wages; (ii) wage adjustment relative to the consumer price index; (iii) changes in the cost of living; (iv) the needs of workers and their families; (v) the need to induce industries to invest in the countryside; (vi) improvement in living standards; (vii) the prevailing wage levels; (viii) employers' fair return on capital invested and capacity to pay; (ix) the effects of employment generation and family income; and (x) the equitable distribution of income and wealth, in keeping with the imperatives of economic and social development. The regional tripartite wages and productivity boards are not required to take into account the circumstances of women, nor is there a need to ensure that the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value is applied.

While domestic workers are now protected under the 2013 Domestic Workers Act, Article 98 of the labor code continues to exclude homeworkers or "persons working in the respective homes in needle work or in any cottage industry duly registered in accordance with the law." Because such jobs are also mostly undertaken by women, they remain disadvantaged in the application of many labor laws, including minimum wage laws. This is a significant issue for a large number of women.

The PLEP includes a strategy for the development of a wage system whereby minimum wages are to be set as a safety net or social floor. The strategy includes reform of the two-tiered wage system, correcting the exclusion of millions of workers in more than 700,000 small enterprises. The planned reform will establish a fixed entry-level wage for new entrants and for the low-skilled, along with a flexible wage that is "above the floor" and is based on industry and enterprise productivity and performance. This wage may be negotiated between employers and workers or their unions/organizations. The government also seeks to address unintended outcomes such as inflation, unemployment, informality, weak collective bargaining, distortions in pay systems, widespread atypical employment arrangements, involuntary noncompliance, and reduced incentive to adopt pay-for-performance schemes. At present, the status of this reform is not apparent. Furthermore, the planned reform unfortunately makes no mention of women or gendered concerns in wage setting.

The process for setting daily and sector wages in Cambodia appears to be insufficiently independent and transparent

Cambodia

Neither the Constitution of Cambodia nor its Law on Labor provide for equal remuneration for work of equal value (ADB 2012b). Moreover, the country's wage-setting process is linked to the gender wage disparity in Cambodia (ADB and ILO 2013a). Thus, there is a need to bring the legislation into conformity with CEDAW and with ILO Convention 100.

The MOLVT based on recommendations from the Labor Advisory Committee, which is composed of 14 government officials, 7 members from employers' federations, and 7 members from labor unions, sets minimum wages (ADB 2012b). Article 104 of the Law on Labor provides that wages "must be at least equal to the guaranteed minimum wage; that is, it must ensure every worker of a decent standard of living compatible with human dignity." In addition, the MOLVT uses Prakas 86 to set the daily base wage rates for a laborer (presently about \$2), but this wage rate is set only for the purpose of determining penalties under the Law on Labor, not to establish minimum wages.

The MOLVT has set minimum wages only for the garment, textile, and shoe industries. Employers and enterprises outside those subsectors are free to set wages and minimum rates of pay as long as the rate is not below the base wage for a laborer. There is also no process that permits the Labor Advisory Committee or the courts to enact wage increases, and the committee has not set wages for other important sectors that particularly affect women, such as domestic work, plantation work, or tourism and related services (ADB 2012b).

On the whole, the process for setting daily and sector wages in Cambodia appears to be insufficiently independent and transparent. Furthermore, it does not require the application of

objective criteria or evaluation. Sector wage-setting in particular appears to involve limited input from social partners and no requirement to consider gender.

Kazakhstan

Article 22(15) of the Labor Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan provides for “equal payment for equal labor without any discrimination.” However, this provision does not conform to ILO Convention 100 and has previously been the subject of comment by the ILO Committee of Experts on Conventions and Recommendations. The article is limited to “equal labor” and does not extend to work that may not be equal in labor but nonetheless is of equal value. It is also unclear whether “pay” covers all aspects of remuneration as it is interpreted by the ILO. Article 121 states, “The monthly wage of the employee shall be set differentially depending on the qualifications of the employee, the complexity, amount, and quality of work performed, as well as the working conditions.” However, this provision does not remedy the deficiency in Article 22 because it does not address all aspects of what is encompassed in the “value” of work.

The gender wage ratio and gender wage gap noted in Kazakhstan is indicative of inequalities that can arise by failing to address remuneration for work that is the same

The gender wage ratio and gender wage gap noted in Kazakhstan is indicative of inequalities that can arise by failing to address remuneration for work that is the same and/or work that is different but may be characterized as “female” work, such as work that requires caring or dexterity. Such work is often undervalued compared to work that is predominantly undertaken by men, such as work requiring heavy lifting or jobs in industry.

Article 122 of Kazakhstan’s labor code governs the setting of minimum wages. The minimum monthly wage, established annually by the government, must be not lower than subsistence level and does not include compensatory and social allowances. The minimum monthly wage rate for employees engaged in heavy work or work under harmful or hazardous working conditions is different from the rate for other work. This minimum wage-setting process is not independent or transparent. There are also no express criteria for and no requirement to consider women’s needs; in fact, Article 122 itself refers specifically to a male employee.

Complaint Mechanisms

Good practice indicates that complaint mechanisms to address discrimination in employment and work should be clear, simple, efficient, and low cost. However, setting up a complaint mechanism includes several complexities. First, discrimination in the workplace often involves particularly sensitive issues such as sexual harassment or assault, which may amount to a criminal offence. There also are cultural issues, including women’s reluctance to complain. Finally, there may be difficulty in determining the body or agency with jurisdiction over a given issue, depending on whether the alleged discrimination is best characterized as a crime, which would be a police and justice system process; a human rights violation, which would be covered by a human rights or equal opportunity body; or, for example, a discriminatory underpayment of wages or dismissal, which may be best handled by a labor inspectorate, a labor office, or labor arbitration.

The Philippines

In the Philippines, the complaint mechanisms available to women who have allegedly suffered from discrimination in their employment or work are confusing. For instance, the public service has its own administrative mechanism, whereas the private sector process involves either the judicial civil process or, in the case of sexual harassment, the police (ADB 2012c). There is also a commission on human rights that is mandated to establish guidelines and mechanisms to facilitate women’s access to legal remedies, enhance the protection and promotion of women’s rights, and assist in filing cases that involve human rights violations. The Women’s Rights Program Center, a special unit to investigate human rights violations, can initiate legal action or provide assistance with respect to legal discrimination, unequal access to land, and other more general human rights breaches. Finally, complaints can be lodged through the Department of Labor and Employment, or matters may come to the attention of labor inspectors. This complicated structure would benefit from a process of rationalization.

Cambodia

In Cambodia, the complaint mechanisms for women who allege discrimination are limited. If discrimination involves sexual harassment, it is a crime and requires a complaint to the police, which can be a very intimidating process. Labor inspectors are required to ensure that enterprises and workplaces comply with various laws, including laws relating to discrimination. They have the power to order immediate measures and to issue fines for breaches of the Law on Labor. The labor inspector also may mediate an individual dispute.⁶⁹ However, the labor inspectorate is not a well-resourced or effective mechanism and requires strengthening. Women can also complain to their union, if they are members, and the union may then raise this issue with the arbitration council as a grievance or individual complaint. However, a woman is not able to take her complaint to the arbitration council unless she is in a trade union and the union undertakes a collective dispute. The current industrial system does not allow for arbitration of an individual dispute before the arbitration council.

None of these processes at the present time can sufficiently address women's concerns about discrimination with respect to work or, in particular, sexual harassment. Women working in the service sector, such as in restaurants and bars, have particularly serious issues with regard to sexual harassment. There is a lack of clarity about what constitutes sexual harassment, and women do not know that inappropriate conduct can amount to sexual harassment. It is only the worst cases of sexual harassment that become the subject of police complaints. Instead, women prefer to keep silent, fearing the loss of a job or reputation. Women also may be forced into socializing with clients who are subjecting them to sexual harassment, for fear of losing their jobs (ADB 2012b).

Women working in the service sector, such as in restaurants and bars, have particularly serious issues with regard to sexual harassment

The Government of Cambodia should consider establishing a more appropriate process for dealing with sensitive issues such as sexual harassment or discrimination against women at work. At present, women are highly unlikely to complain and prefer to remain silent. In addition to an improved complaint mechanism, there must also be an effective and sensitive means of addressing complaints and providing remedies.

Kazakhstan

Article 7 of the Labor Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan states that people who believe they have been subjected to discrimination in employment have the right to apply to a court or other authority. The Law on State Guarantees of Equal Rights and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women is only declarative, however, and does not provide a legal basis for sex discrimination suits. Thus, although women use the legal system to protect some rights, mostly with regard to family issues, employment, and housing, it is reported that only one court case in Kazakhstan in 2003 alleged sex discrimination (Almaty Women's Informational Center et al. 2006; ADB 2013a).

Nonetheless, women encounter discrimination in employment, such as the practice of asking young women about their marital and family status as part of a job interview, lack of promotion, nonpayment of wages, hiring without a contract, and employers' abuse of "trial periods" followed by termination so as to obtain unpaid labor. Furthermore, women encounter problems such as sexual harassment and inadequate maternity and legal protections. However, government officials and the media largely ignore such problems.

There are also gaps between the legal principles of equality and the implementation of specific remedies, making it difficult to bring forth court cases about discrimination in the workplace (ADB 2013a). There is a commissioner for human rights (known as the national human rights ombudsman) and there is a human rights commission under the President of Kazakhstan, both of which work jointly with the National Commission for Women's Affairs, Family and Demographic Policy. However, it is unclear whether there is a mechanism for dealing with sexual harassment complaints by women or similar issues in employment.

⁶⁹ See Prakas No. 318 on Procedure for Resolving Individual Dispute, 29 November 2001.

Labor Inspectorate

Good practice with regard to labor inspectors and their role is generally guided by the relevant ILO conventions.⁷⁰ Several ILO publications stress the importance of a coherent, efficient framework and provide guidance on good practices, seeking to establish the basis for a labor inspection system that is flexible enough to take account of different national circumstances.⁷¹ Labor inspection is an essential part of the labor administration system, carrying out the fundamental function of labor law enforcement and effective compliance. Laws and labor standards that are not effectively enforced are rendered nugatory.

Laws and labor standards that are not effectively enforced are rendered nugatory

Given increased demand and changes in the labor market, labor administrations must consider ways of working more closely with the private sector. The ILO notes that public–private partnerships can yield several benefits, such as improved access to and delivery of high-quality expertise and new technology. Regular monitoring and strict evaluation of the work of labor inspectors is required to assess their effectiveness and cost. Employers' and workers' organizations can make significant contributions to improved workplace compliance, particularly through advocacy and raising awareness among their members. Social partners can also contribute to shaping the strategic priorities and activities of the labor inspectorates.

The Philippines

The PLEP recognizes that the implementation of labor standards has become challenging and that monitoring and enforcement through the labor inspectorate requires significant enhancement. In 2004, an innovative labor standards enforcement framework was introduced, including supporting rules and regulations, detailed manuals, and other supports. The framework was intended to encourage voluntary compliance with labor standards and to build strategic partnerships among employers, workers, and various government entities. However, the ILO's 2009 labor inspection audit revealed that the policy intentions were not being achieved and that there was an enormous divide between the 784,000 establishments subject to inspection and the 193 active inspectors (ILO 2009b). Although the Department of Labor and Employment has partnership arrangements with local governments on aspects of labor inspection, the DOLE has no such arrangements with the private sector, other than the DOLE's support of occupational health and safety personnel and the Kapatiran (big brother–little brother) program, in which large companies provide assistance and support to smaller ones, including the subcontractors of larger enterprises, to help them comply with safety and health standards.

The comprehensive ILO audit made a number of recommendations for the improvement of labor inspection. The government subsequently announced the DOLE Project Labor Enforcement and Action Program (Project LEAP), which commenced in August 2010, though there is uncertainty as to whether this program remains active. This project is specifically intended to intensify labor inspection programs to ensure compliance with certain labor standards.

In addition, the National Tripartite Industrial Peace Council issued resolution No. 3-B, Recommending Proactive Involvement in the Implementation of Tripartite Certificate of Labor Standards Compliance under the Labor Standards Enforcement Framework, dated 2 September 2010. The ILO describes the tripartite certification system as an innovative and creative approach that is unique to the Philippines. It is essentially a voluntary compliance program that issues certificates of labor standards compliance after applicant companies submit to assessment. The certificate exempts the companies from regular or routine labor inspection for the duration of its validity and may be revoked only when a complaint is found to be meritorious and in the absence of voluntary restitution. There is no current information on the effectiveness of the program.

⁷⁰ Notably, the Labor Inspection Convention and Recommendation, 1947 (No. 81); the Labor Inspection (Agriculture) Convention (No. 129); and Recommendation, 1969 (No. 133).

⁷¹ For example, ILO (2006; 2010a; 2011; 2012g).

It appears to be a good initiative, though it does not appear to take gender into account, an issue that also must be addressed. An effective labor inspectorate, for example, could play an educational, monitoring, and preventive role.

In summary, the Philippines is working with the ILO to improve its labor inspection regime through the use of innovative techniques. This could be of particular benefit to women if the intensification of priority labor inspection also covers gender issues such as discrimination, sexual harassment, and women's working conditions.

Cambodia

The rights, powers, and duties of Cambodia's labor inspectors are set out in articles 347 and 356 of the Law on Labor. Labor inspectors are authorized to enter any enterprise or workplace without prior notice in order to conduct examinations, inspections, and investigations considered necessary to ensure that an employer is complying with the working conditions stipulated in the Law on Labor. Labor inspectors also have the authority to order immediate measures and issue fines to any enterprise that breaches the Law on Labor.

Although labor inspectors have these powers, however, they have been unable or have failed to carry out their rights and duties to full effect. This is especially true in relation to inspections to determine whether enterprises or workplaces of more than eight workers have undertaken the required registration with the MOLVT, whether they are complying with health and safety laws, and whether they discriminate against unions and union members. In addition, labor inspectors have failed to carry out their duties to notify or fine employers who have breached the law on labor, and, in certain cases, inspectors reportedly work in complicity with employers (ILO 2012d).

There were 18 qualified inspectors in Cambodia from 2004 to 2010—a minute number to cover more than 375,000 enterprises in the country and a rapidly growing labor force (ILO 2012d). However, the ILO noted that those figures covered only inspectors based in Phnom Penh and excluded inspectors in other provinces and municipalities. In 2011, the MOLVT reported 91 labor inspectors throughout Cambodia. Although this is still far too few, relative to the number of enterprises, the increase is a positive development.

The ILO recommends a continued increase in recruitment of labor inspectors as a means to improve law enforcement among enterprises. There is also a need for a number of measures to extend occupational safety and health protections to informal workplaces, reaching out to microenterprises in particular. Finally, the labor inspectors' functions should encompass issues of gender discrimination in the workplace.

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Social Dialogue and Trade Unions

The term social dialogue covers more than consultations between workers and employers about working conditions. It extends to negotiations, consultations, or exchanges of information between workers' representatives, employers, and governments about economic and social policy issues of broader common interest (ILO 2005). The ILO specifically promotes social dialogue as a means of achieving decent working conditions and providing flexibility for inclusive economic growth (ADB and ILO 2013b). The ILO standards on social dialogue are outlined in Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards), Convention, 1976 (No. 144), and Recommendation No. 152.

The Philippines

The Philippines has ratified ILO Convention 144 as well as the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87); the Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98); and the Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981 (No. 154). As the PLEP demonstrates, the Philippines is taking significant steps to foster strong tripartite mechanisms and processes as well as bipartite mechanisms. The government

continues to develop tripartite industrial peace councils as well as national, regional, provincial, city, and municipal tripartite industry councils (ILO 2011a). These councils institutionalize social dialogue through tripartite consultations about policies and programs that affect labor and management. Their mandate is to promote industrial peace and develop voluntary codes of good practices, with a view to benchmarking compliance with labor laws and regulations on an industry-wide basis (DOLE 2011b).

As of 2010, 200 tripartite industrial peace councils had been created. There were 246 industry tripartite councils and seven national industry tripartite councils covering various industrial sectors and operating as monitoring bodies.⁷² There are also regional tripartite councils.⁷³ The structure appears to be complicated, and the councils' respective roles and interactions are set out in a DOLE department order. According to the PLEP, the government, working with the ILO, seeks to strengthen the capacities of these bodies and to amend Article 275 of the labor code to institutionalize a tripartite and social dialogue framework. Fourteen voluntary codes of good industry practice have been adopted during PLEP implementation, using the tripartite engagement of industry social partners to assist with self-regulation.

**Men comprise
the bulk of union
members and
officers**

The PLEP also refers to the creation of works councils in all enterprises employing 10 or more workers. In the absence of a union, such works councils would have the right to information and to consultation and negotiation with worker-elected representatives. The extent to which this has been implemented is not clear.

The PLEP noted a decline in union membership and a general decline in annual union registration from 2004 to 2009. The number of collective bargaining and negotiation agreements rose slightly during the same period, but these covered only about 82,000 workers in the private and public sectors. Union membership fell sharply from 30.5% of all workers in 1995 to 10.6% in 2010 in both the industry and the services sectors. Men comprise the bulk of union members and officers. However, male membership declined from 67.9% in 1995 to 62.1% in 2010, whereas women's union membership rose from 32.1% to 37.9% over the same period. The collective bargaining coverage rate also fell and was down to 10.9% in 2010.⁷⁴

The ILO suggests that this decline may be due to the growing number of short-term, seasonal, or casual employees in private establishments; the large proportion of workers in self-employment and unpaid family work; and the growing number of establishments employing fewer than 10 people.⁷⁵ The ILO also noted that these matters need to be the subject of continuing social dialogue.

Women need to be represented at all levels of social dialogue, from unions to the tripartite industrial peace councils, industry tripartite councils, and national industry tripartite councils, and their voices need to be heard.⁷⁶ This is likely to require a targeted approach by both government and unions. As part of this strategy, good practice indicates that the government should lead the way through the use of labor clauses in public contracts, which could contain targets for women.⁷⁷

⁷² All of the national, regional, or local industry tripartite councils are integrated as part of the organizational structure of the national industry tripartite council. See DOLE Department Order No. 111-11 series of 2011 and ILO (2011a).

⁷³ DOLE Department Order No. 111-11 series of 2011.

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ See ADB (2012e).

⁷⁷ Convention on Labor Clauses (Public Contracts), 1949 (No. 94), and Recommendation (No. 84). See also ADB and ILO (2013b).

Cambodia

A 2010 study of unions in Cambodia some identified characteristic features of the country's trade union movement (Nuon and Serrano 2010). For instance, the study noted an entrenchment of union leadership, the relatively young union movement, concentrated in the garments industry, and that employers intensely avoid unionization. In addition, there is a multiplicity of unions and the number has dramatically expanded, from 87 unions in 2001 to 1,758 unions in 2010, represented by 41 union federations. At the same time, membership in Cambodia's main employers' organization, the Cambodian Federation of Employers and Business Associations, has also risen sharply. Finally, the study found that the public is generally unsympathetic toward unions.

Most organized workers are found in the garments sector, and more than half of union members in the enterprises covered were women. However, men still dominated union leadership; on average, only one in three union officers was a woman. This trend was particularly apparent when looking at the composition of the bargaining teams, where 30.5% of participants were women. Thus, the study found that the labor movement could be said to be "essentially a women's movement under male leadership."

The labor movement could be said to be "essentially a women's movement under male leadership"

The survey also affirmed the difficulty of integrating gender-related issues into collective bargaining. The study recommended that unions adopt policies and strategies to enhance women's participation in leadership, including an affirmative union policy allocating a high proportion of leadership positions to women. The study noted that these measures would encourage women's participation and improve their ability to influence collective bargaining.

Recent observations indicate improvement by some unions. For example, women are increasingly seen to be defending their rights before arbitration council members.⁷⁸ In addition, major union federations such as the Free Trade Union, the Coalition of Cambodian Apparel Workers Democratic Union, and the Confederation of Unions for Tourism and Services of Cambodia have trained local union leaders, some of whom are women, in labor law, negotiation, and dispute resolution (ADB 2012b). However, some large sectors, such as agriculture, the informal economy, construction, and services, still have small or ineffective unions. Questions have also been raised about the independence of some unions in the garment sector.

Collective bargaining remains a relatively new practice in Cambodia and there has been limited sector penetration to date. Again, collective bargaining is most widespread in the garment sector, but even that sector has low levels of genuine bargaining and agreement, due in part to a weak understanding of the bargaining process and as a consequence of union multiplicity (ILO 2012d). The ILO notes that it is impossible to determine the actual quality of collective bargaining agreements from official data and that renewed efforts are required to ensure that collective bargaining is better understood.

Much can be done to assist women's movement into leadership roles within the union movement. The government also can encourage active social dialogue within Cambodia, using processes similar to those undertaken by the Government of the Philippines with the assistance of the ILO.

⁷⁸ See the Cambodian Arbitration Council newsletters (2011a; 2011b).

V

Policy and Legislative Recommendations for a Gender-Inclusive Labor Market

This section brings together the common themes and challenges in enhancing and improving women's employment and work in the three DMCs under discussion. Policy and legislation recommendations are grouped under three themes: promoting access to work and enhancing employment opportunities for women, limiting constraints on work for women, and improving women's working conditions. There are specific recommendations for the expansion of women's employment and decent working conditions in the agriculture, industry, manufacturing, and services sectors (including tourism and public service), as well as in entrepreneurship.

In making these recommendations, it is noted that the three DMCs have different historical, economic, and sociocultural conditions and gender relations, and that the countries have followed different economic development paths. These differences need to be borne in mind when considering the application of such recommendations in each DMC; some recommendations may be more readily incorporated in some countries than in others. Thus, these opportunities are not intended to be strictly universally applicable.

Promoting Access to Work and Enhancing Employment Opportunities for Women

Legislation and policies that guarantee gender equality and eliminate gender discrimination are fundamental to ensuring that women are not disadvantaged in employment and occupation. Law and policy need to work together in a balanced way to provide adequate protection for decent work standards while also ensuring sufficient flexibility to promote employment opportunities. Promoting access to work and enhancing employment opportunities for women also requires balancing the functions of social protection and gender equity with economic efficiency considerations. Policies and legislation based on social dialogue are best able to accommodate the interests of both employers and workers in a dynamic global market.

Furthermore, employment equity means more than treating people in the same way; it also requires special measures and the accommodation of differences. For instance, good employment equity practice requires measures to enable both men and women to reconcile work responsibilities with family obligations.

National Plans and Policies

National policies are central to ensuring that economic growth brings with it increased employment. Economic growth in the DMCs generally has not brought about sufficient growth

in employment and decent work to substantially reduce poverty and inequality. Thus, the major strategy is to increase the demand for labor in a gender-equitable manner.

Macroeconomic and Employment Policies

To enhance employment opportunities and decent work, and thereby promote gender equality and inclusive growth, it is necessary to

- make gender equality an explicit objective of national plans,
- recognize increased employment as a macroeconomic goal to be promoted through all macroeconomic policies,
- set and monitor gender-equitable employment targets to ensure that all women benefit,
- analyze gender employment impacts of monetary policy,
- analyze gendered employment effects and the benefits of fiscal policies such as taxation and expenditure, and
- analyze gendered employment impacts of trade policy on both exports and imports.

The proposed National Employment Plan for Cambodia is an important step toward gender equality, as is the setting of employment targets in the Philippines. Adding greater gender sensitivity to both initiatives is important for promoting women's employment.

Gender Mainstreaming and Target Setting

There are a number of good strategies and projects under way in the Philippines and Cambodia, but more can be done to strengthen gender mainstreaming and gender-specific projects and to include gender targets more broadly in government policies and programs. Opportunities for women to work within government and the labor market need to be identified, and this requires working with civil society generally and women's groups specifically. Sex-disaggregated data, monitoring, and evaluation need to be continued and enhanced.

Developing member country would benefit from developing an overarching agriculture strategy for women

The gender mainstreaming plans and sex-disaggregated target setting in some ministries in Cambodia and gender budgeting in the Philippines provide good examples of policy innovations that could be expanded and monitored more closely.

The continued and expanded use of targets in formulating sector policies is recommended for Cambodia, and such targets should be introduced in Kazakhstan and the Philippines. This tool for gender mainstreaming can be applied across ministries both to institutionalize a gender reflex and to achieve and monitor specified gender goals. There is wide scope for this approach, and it is recommended that all three DMCs examine how to move forward on this.

Finally, although gender-aware practices are apparent in both Cambodia and the Philippines, it is necessary to effectively implement these practices to reduce gender inequality.

Agriculture

Due to the importance of the agriculture sector to the overall economy and to poverty reduction for women and their families, each DMC would benefit from developing an overarching agriculture strategy for women, thus reducing constraints on women in deriving income and employment from agriculture production. The nature of such constraints varies across countries and must be understood. It is also important to increase women's productivity and incomes from agriculture, rather than only facilitating their movement into other sectors, where opportunities for economic security and decent work are limited. Efforts to increase cash-cropping for domestic sale and export need to include women, but women's production of subsistence crops for food security must also be supported. In each DMC, women should be included in the transition to commercial agriculture to ensure that they are not relegated to subsistence agriculture, as has occurred in other countries. The transition from subsistence to commercial agriculture cannot be achieved overnight, however, and the immediate needs of poor women farmers must be addressed. Each DMC may be able to benefit from aspects of good practice described earlier in this report.

The development of an overarching agriculture strategy to enable women to participate more productively in the agriculture sector and to control their own resources should include the following features:

- Collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data and mapping of where women work, the products they produce, and their roles in the production process.
- Analysis of the specific constraints on women's access to land reform and rights to inheritance, and specific strategies, programs and targets to redress disadvantages.
- Analysis of the specific constraints to women's access to appropriate credit and finance, and specific strategies, programs, and targets to enable women to develop or increase agriculture income opportunities through entrepreneurship.
- Targeted government agriculture extension programs structured to fit women's needs so that they are represented in the sector.
- Development of gender-specific programs to encourage and support women working in the agricultural sector.
- Gender-disaggregated targets for training, including microenterprise training and credit programs, to encourage women to undertake processing and value-added production.
- Development and promotion of women in farmers' organizations, or separate women's organizations, to increase women's voice and empowerment in employment.
- Organized and cohesive combination of national and local programs.
- Monitored and assessed goals and targets to ensure that women are properly considered at all levels, from design and content through implementation and outcomes.

Industry and Manufacturing

It is important that women have access to new employment opportunities in manufacturing and are not displaced from manufacturing employment

There is significant potential to promote and enhance employment opportunities for women in the industry and manufacturing sectors of the three DMCs, each of which has a different focus due to particular country circumstances. In general, it is important that women have access to new employment opportunities in manufacturing and that, as production processes change, for example through technological improvements, women are not displaced from manufacturing employment. Barriers to employment—such as those arising from a lack of training or from gender norms and discrimination that prevent women from working in higher-level occupations and certain types of manufacturing—need to be reduced.

Manufacturing in the Philippines

Potential strategies to improve the Philippines manufacturing sector in general include

- providing a better business and investment environment,
- improving infrastructure,
- strategically increasing foreign direct investment,
- increasing public–private partnerships,
- fostering development of small and medium-sized enterprises,
- increasing product diversity,
- clustering related products or services,
- upgrading products and manufacturing value-added products,
- factoring in labor-intensive products, and
- increasing labor productivity.

These measures should also capitalize on opportunities in rural areas, and one of the biggest challenges is to select and target the best products for development. Each of these strategies requires active structural change as well as government support and focus.

Most importantly, women must be included in manufacturing growth development at all stages. An integrated manufacturing strategy provides an ideal opportunity to focus attention on the sector and take women's interests into account. Such a plan should include the identification

of manufacturing subsectors with the potential to enhance women's employment opportunities and reduce poverty, particularly in rural communities. Moreover, it is necessary to design and implement programs in ways that ensure women's equal employment with men.

Garment Industry in Cambodia

This report endorses the Cambodian National Report recommendations, which will assist Cambodia in successfully competing in the global apparel market in the longer term and will improve opportunities for extended and improved decent work for women (ADB 2012b). The garment industry could be improved and expanded to benefit women if the Government of Cambodia were to

- adopt a more radical approach to garment industry growth and upgrading, such as by finding new export markets beyond the United States and the European Union;
- initiate a number of value-adding activities in Cambodia, such as special finishing, printing, or embroidery;
- develop technological advancements, improve skills, and provide appropriate training for the use of upgraded equipment;
- improve the overall working conditions of women through women's representation in social dialogue involving employer groups, workers' unions, and the government;
- include better management of factory floor processes and capacity utilization rates, combined with more efficient pay incentives;
- encourage greater local industry ownership, particularly ownership by micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises, by facilitating local investment in garment factories and improving access to credit;
- investigate the potential to locate garment factories in areas close to rural communities in which women reside; and
- extend the Better Factories Cambodia approach to small domestic factories.

Kazakhstan identified the textile industry as one of the important industries having competitive advantages

Resources and Light Industry in Kazakhstan

Women's employment opportunities in Kazakhstan's resources sector can be significantly enhanced. It is recommended that the government consider adopting policies and strategies similar to those outlined in the UNDP report *Mainstreaming Gender in the Extractive Industries: Lessons for Cambodia* (2010) and encourage corporations to adopt targeted employment approaches to attract women to the resources sector. These approaches will need to be accompanied by initiatives to encourage women to undertake the necessary education and vocational training to obtain these jobs. It is also recommended that the government amend Article 186 of the Labor Code and review the list of jobs prohibited to women.

There is also potential to promote employment opportunities for women in light industry. A textile and clothing sector study implemented by the Hellenic Clothing Industry and supported by the Association of Light Industry of the Republic of Kazakhstan identified the textile industry as one of the important industries having competitive advantages in Kazakhstan (Hellenic Clothing Industry Association, undated). The study analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of the industry and indicated the potential for the fashion industry. As of January 2010, there were 497 enterprises registered in the textile industry, 155 of them actively operating, including 12 large, 24 middle-sized, and 119 small enterprises with 7,200 employees. They are concentrated in the Almaty and South Kazakhstan regions.

Development of the industry provides an opportunity for women in the textile and garment industry to be involved in clustered development of wool production and garment making. The study referred to the need for close cooperation with international organizations on entrepreneurship development in that industry. Although the number of women involved in the suggested clustered development is relatively low, such an industry in a particular locality could be funded as a pilot initiative to include development partners and to incorporate decent work standards in a manner similar to the Better Factories Cambodia program. Such clustered

development could be a highly effective way to help women in rural communities expand their employment opportunities. Skills development would be required at many levels to enable women to take up such employment opportunities.

Services Sector

The services sector in each DMC provides expanded opportunities for women's employment. Development is recommended in three subsector areas: tourism, business process outsourcing, and government services.

Tourism

Tourism is already on the list of priorities for each DMC. The concern is that the various policies and strategies appear to be gender-blind, and Cambodia appears to be the only country that includes gender mainstreaming as part of its tourism strategy.

Cambodia appears to be the only country that includes gender mainstreaming as part of its tourism strategy

It is recommended that women in Kazakhstan and the Philippines be involved in all stages of the development of tourism policies and legislation. In addition, policies should incorporate focused action plans that include targets for the participation of women across all subsectors of tourism and other allied sectors. Government prioritization of the tourism industry, especially ecotourism, could be very beneficial, given the industry's potential to help rural women and their families supplement their agriculture incomes. Women should also have adequate access to technical and vocational education and training in a wide variety of areas beyond gender-stereotyped areas such as traditional handicrafts, cleaning, and cooking. This will enable women to access the full range of work opportunities in tourism, especially opportunities in higher-paid positions. Furthermore, the issue of trafficking of women and children must be addressed in a comprehensive way in Kazakhstan and the Philippines, and the work of the ILO in Cambodia would provide good guidance.

Business Process Outsourcing Services in the Philippines

The business process outsourcing sector is highly important to the Philippines, particularly for women's employment. The strategic development of BPO policy would be enhanced by contributions from the government, the Business Processing Association of the Philippines, employers in relevant economic sectors, and other stakeholders. BPO policy also should identify new and improved employment areas in the information technology industry. Short-, medium-, and long-term plans should be developed to help match workers' skills with available or potential jobs. At present, some BPO services are relatively low-skilled and are carried out by overqualified workers. The high attrition rate within the industry is a concern, and consideration could be given to development of an overarching code of ethics to prevent the rampant poaching of employees within the industry (Amante 2010).

Future prospects to improve and expand decent work for women require four issues to be addressed.⁷⁹ First, women must share in the skills development strategy so that they obtain appropriate skills across all categories of present and future BPO activities. Second, the common practice of stereotyping roles, which appears to exist in some subsectors, should be examined, and the entry of women into areas presently dominated by men, such as hardware and software technology-based jobs, should be facilitated. Third, the gender wage gap between male and female employees should be addressed by examining employment practices and the reasons for pay differentials. Finally, strategies are needed to reduce health problems associated with work and to improve safety, particularly for workers travelling at night.

Government Services

The extent of men's and women's differential employment rates and the clustering of women in the low-wage services in Cambodia and Kazakhstan warrant a more targeted approach. The

⁷⁹ See further recommendations in ADB (2012e).

Philippines has good policy approaches but still needs improvement in the civil sectors, where women may still be underpaid relative to their human capital value.

It is recommended that the Ministry of Women's Affairs in Cambodia and the National Commission for Women's Affairs and Family in Kazakhstan work with individual ministries to assess the constraints on women's employment and to develop a comprehensive strategy. This should include gender mainstreaming and gender-specific targets to increase the number of women employed across all categories of the civil service. This could include identifying and addressing constraints such as gender stereotyping, setting minimum targets and timelines, implementing specific strategies to encourage women to apply for work, and developing special programs to enable women to access higher-paid work and more senior management positions. The low female-to-male wage ratio needs to be analyzed and addressed. It is recommended that the Philippines identify and focus on strategies to improve women's representation in the civil sectors.

Entrepreneurship for Rural Women

Female entrepreneurship as a source of work and employment has rapidly increased in a variety of sectors and subsectors in each DMC. Supporting women's increased access to credit facilities and training and supporting female-led micro and small enterprises increases employment opportunities for all women (ADB and ILO 2013a). This recommendation is specifically relevant for rural women, and it is linked to earlier recommendations made with respect to the agriculture sector.

In the Philippines, women in rural areas should be targeted through agrarian reform, by tailoring lending products to women's needs and capacity to pay, by providing relevant training, by extending the GREAT Women project, by considering ways to support and encourage the expansion of NGOs such as the Negros Women for Tomorrow Foundation, and by enabling women's expansion into higher-value enterprises.

In Cambodia, a complete support package is recommended to reach rural poor women. The support may include start-up capital, post-training technical support, and market linkages.⁸⁰ Some of the policies and good practice programs that have been implemented in the Philippines could represent useful precedents to better assist women in Cambodia.

In Kazakhstan, women's access to microcredit programs could be extended through targeted lending and additional supports, and could be further improved by requiring less documentation, lowering interest rates, and simplifying collateral conditions (ADB 2013a).

Moreover, women in all three DMCs could benefit from improved access to information, training, and outreach services to build their capacity to start businesses and upgrade them over time. Women can also benefit from support for networking in women-specific and mixed business associations and networks and the marketing of their products and services.

Public and Private Employment Agencies

Both Cambodia and the Philippines could each benefit from the development of an effective and coordinated employment agency framework, which includes both public and regulated private employment agencies. This could be developed through social dialogue among employers, workers, and the government to improve the linkage, quality, and coverage of such agencies' employment services. Good practice indicates that employment agencies need to be more than just a job referral and exchange agency. Agencies can also be an important source of information about a country's overall employment strategy, including its trade and investment priorities, and can provide workers with information and counsel on technical and vocational education and training opportunities.

Supporting women's increased access to credit facilities and training and supporting female-led micro and small enterprises increases employment opportunities for all women

⁸⁰ See further recommendations in ADB (2012d).

Cambodia and the Philippines both are working toward improved public employment services and could benefit from giving more attention to private employment agencies and the services they provide. The respective governments can develop and enhance their employment agency strategy, which should include women at all stages of development, implementation, and monitoring. Both public and private employment agencies should address gender issues, particularly direct discrimination against women and indirect discrimination in the form of stereotyping. An additional part of the strategy might include developing rules and codes of conduct and training staff to apply nondiscriminatory practices. The ILO can be a useful resource to strengthen this area.

Limiting Constraints on Work for Women

Access to Resources

It is important to identify the particular constraints that women face in accessing resources such as land and finances, and to note that collective/community and private ownership/market based–solutions are necessary to overcome such constraints. Increasing women’s access to such resources will help improve their productivity and incomes. A legislative framework in conjunction with appropriate employment policies, codes, and guidelines may best redress the multiple levels of disadvantage suffered by women in each of the three DMCs under discussion. There are examples of good practice legislative provisions in the Philippines, but the implementation falls short. Each DMC also should monitor the effectiveness of its policy implementation, which would include collection of sex-disaggregated data.

It is important to identify the particular constraints that women face in accessing resources

To work toward providing women with equal access to land and credit, each DMC must

- identify women’s needs for a resource;
- identify the particular constraints women face in accessing that resource and the reasons women are not achieving equitable access to that resource;
- address such constraints through a legislative framework in conjunction with appropriate policies, codes, and guidelines, including gender mainstreaming;
- develop specific targets with practical strategies to address the constraints;
- deploy collective/community or private ownership/market–based solutions, depending on the situation; and
- monitor and assess the effectiveness of implementation, which would include collection of sex-disaggregated data.

Reducing Women’s Domestic Work and Care Burden

Women’s labor market participation is constrained by time-consuming domestic and care responsibilities, including child care. Quality, affordable, and convenient child care services can alleviate this restraint on women’s ability to work.

There are significant differences in child care services in each of the three DMCs under discussion. Notably, Cambodia possesses less-developed infrastructure, less trained staff and facilities, and a lower level of development than the other two DMCs. Thus, a Cambodian framework could encompass a mix of legal and policy measures, a variety of child care services, and enforceable minimum standards. The cost of child care could be met through employer-funded centers at the workplace, employer payment of child care expenses, or contributions from employers, workers, and/or government. The strategy could be developed through social dialogue and phased in over a number of years. In the short term, Cambodia could also assist cooperatives of women in employing locally trained child care workers, either in the village or near the workplace.

It is recommended that Cambodia and Kazakhstan develop a framework similar to the comprehensive approach of the Philippines’ early childhood care and development system,

but adapted to meet local circumstances. Funding for child care services must be restored in Kazakhstan, and each DMC will need additional resources.

Improving Women's Conditions of Work

Social Protection in the Informal Sector

Gender-responsive social protection will necessarily take different forms depending on the specific context and will be adapted to enable participants to move up the social protection ladder as conditions permit. However, a major common concern for all three DMCs under discussion is the lack of social protection coverage for informal sector and domestic workers, the majority of whom are women.

The Philippines, which is already addressing the minimal social protection coverage in the informal sector, may benefit from Cambodia's approach in its national social protection strategy. This could potentially be done with the assistance of the ILO, country social partners, and development partners.

In Cambodia, on the other hand, it is recommended that the government ensure that NSPS implementation considers gender issues and that monitoring of its effectiveness includes sex-disaggregated data and information. The Government of Cambodia also expects to launch a conditional cash transfer scheme linking financial benefits to educational and nutritional outcomes for children of poor families. Therefore, Cambodia could potentially benefit from undertaking a modified version of the Philippines' Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program.

Kazakhstan could also potentially benefit from Cambodia's NSPS approach, though the individual country circumstances are significantly different. Further conditional cash transfers and a modified version of the Philippines' program could be a means of assisting poor women and their families, particularly in rural areas.

More generally, all three DMCs should explore mechanisms to support women's employment through cash transfers. It is also recommended that each DMC consider implementing legislation and policies that provide for employment guarantees. Such employment guarantees, if adopted, would need to be monitored and assessed to enhance their effect on gender-equitable employment.

It is also recommended that each developing member country consider implementing legislation and policies that provide for employment guarantees

Training Programs and Skills Development

Technical and vocational education and training programs are a vital means of giving women access to work and employment, but to be effective they must be targeted and well delivered. Each DMC must address gender stereotyping and gender inequality in program availability and service delivery.

The Philippines must address an overall lack of coherence in the delivery of TVET services, a fragmented government approach that is not consistently gendered, and the need for improved linkage between TVET and current and future employment opportunities. The government also needs to use public-private partnerships to increase the connection between TVET and industry and employer groups. Finally, there is a need to obtain and assess qualitative information about the services available to women and whether such services are relevant and effectively enable women to undertake TVET.

In Cambodia, the national TVET plan must align industry needs in all sectors with government employment priorities and local market demand so that relevant training courses can be designed and delivered to meet those needs. The local availability and supply of raw materials, the presence of basic market infrastructure and microcredit services, and the feasibility and sustainability of

the occupation for which trainees are being trained should also be considered. This requires cooperation between government and industry, which could be achieved through a partnership approach. Importantly, gender needs to be considered at all stages, from the development of the strategy through to implementation, monitoring, and assessment, to ensure a gender-sensitive approach. Programs that address the transition of young women from school to work and enable women to access nontraditional occupations should also be considered.

The ILO is already involved in Cambodia and the Philippines and can assist both countries in realizing improved and enhanced TVET programs. Although the TVET situation in Kazakhstan is not discussed in the present report, the sex segregation of occupations should be addressed and women should be targeted for nontraditional education and skills training, particularly in relation to the resources sector.

Legislation and Decent Work Requirements

Antidiscrimination Legislation

To varying degrees, the constitution and labor legislation of each DMC under discussion includes guarantees of equality and nondiscrimination. However, further clarification of the meaning and scope of discrimination within that legislation is required both in Cambodia and Kazakhstan.

In Kazakhstan, there is no legislation providing for temporary special measures, and the prohibition of sexual harassment should be made explicit in the legislation

For instance, Cambodia's Law on Labor does not explicitly state that the act of discrimination includes both direct and indirect discrimination. The legislation does not provide for allowable exemptions from discrimination on the basis of inherent job requirements, nor does it provide for temporary special measures. In addition, the current definition of sexual harassment needs to be clarified and made explicit.

In Kazakhstan, the definitions of discrimination are contained in the Strategy for Gender Equality 2006–2016, but there is uncertainty about how these policy documents would be used to interpret the Constitution or the labor code. There is no legislation providing for temporary special measures, and the prohibition of sexual harassment should be made explicit in the legislation (ADB and ILO 2013b).

Legislation on Multiple Short-Term Contracts

Each DMC under discussion has enacted potentially good practice legislation to address the problem of multiple short-term contracts. It is recommended that such legislation be assessed to establish the extent to which it is implemented in practice and to provide guidance on potential application in other countries. Legislation should also be assessed to ascertain whether it achieves its aims without unduly impeding flexible employer–employee relationships.

Cambodia needs to address the problem of multiple short-term contracts, and the ambiguous interpretation of the Law on Labor. It is recommended to carry out a study on the use of fixed-term duration contracts with a view to identifying discriminatory practices, for example on the grounds of sex and maternity and participation in trade union activity.

Decent Work Measures

Legislative good practices and decent work measures that can significantly improve women's working conditions in each DMC include

- ensuring that the international standard of equal remuneration for work of equal value is applied both in legislation and in practice, and that there are institutional frameworks for objective wage setting;
- providing women with effective complaint mechanisms to redress discrimination and sexual harassment in the workplace, and strengthening labor inspectorates to enforce nondiscrimination; and
- creating strong, effective social dialogue mechanisms that support the participation of female trade union members.

Equal Remuneration and Minimum Wage Setting

The legislation in the DMCs under discussion does not accord with the ILO conventions enshrining equal remuneration for work of equal value. Furthermore, the wage-setting process in these DMCs is insufficiently independent or transparent, does not require the application of objective criteria, and does not fully involve social partners. In particular, there is no specific requirement to consider gender equity issues. This is the case for both general minimum wage setting and sector wage setting. In setting general minimum wages, the criteria and their application should be aimed at providing a decent wage floor and should include consideration of women's needs, which may differ from the needs of men. Sector or subsector wage setting should adhere to the concept equal remuneration for work of equal value.

In setting general minimum wages, the criteria and their application should include consideration of women's needs, which may differ from the needs of men

It is recommended that each DMC amend its legislation to specifically require equal remuneration for work of equal value. Steps also should be taken to develop and implement an independent wage-setting process that is transparent, applies objective criteria, and involves social partners (ADB and ILO 2013b).

Complaint Mechanisms and Labor Inspectorate

Each of the DMCs faces challenges in providing effective, simple, and well-publicized mechanisms to encourage women to make complaints and seek redress for discrimination and sexual harassment in their working environments. Furthermore, each DMC needs to significantly improve the effectiveness and coverage of its labor inspectorate. Some of the initiatives undertaken by the Philippines may provide good guidance in this regard. Funding labor inspectorates is also a challenge, particularly in relation to Cambodia, which may be able to develop public-private partnerships and social dialogue to achieve improvement.

Each DMC should review its complaints process in relation to good practice, which indicates that the best approach is to have a single mechanism to refer complaints to the relevant authority. Such a complaint mechanism could be a preexisting body. The first point of contact should be especially simple and sensitive to women's needs. Women should also be provided with information and education about the complaints process and should be given access to legal assistance if necessary.

In addition, it is recommended that Cambodia and the Philippines continue to work closely with the ILO to improve the labor inspectorate in each country. Both countries need to develop an improved and better-resourced public labor inspection system. Such a system should include a risk assessment of establishments so that, for example, employer self-assessment programs can be applied to low-risk establishments. Other strategies may be adopted to monitor and assess compliance with standards, depending on the nature and level of risk in different establishments. This can be achieved through dialogue involving employer and worker organizations. The expressed mandate of labor inspectorates and the requirements for any employer self-assessment strategies should include consideration of gender issues, with special attention given to gender discrimination, sexual harassment, and women's working conditions.

Social Dialogue and Trade Unions

It is recommended that each DMC take measures to increase social dialogue. The Philippines' initiatives, undertaken with the assistance of the ILO, represent a good practice example. The inclusion and representation of women at all levels is likely to require a targeted approach by both government and unions. It is important that networks of informal workers and entrepreneurs contribute to raising awareness and assist in linking women with larger organizations and government institutions to ensure that women's interests in employment and work issues are taken into account. Finally, unions themselves need to adopt policies and strategies that enhance women's participation in leadership positions and create an affirmative union policy that allocates a high proportion of leadership positions to women. Such measures would encourage women's participation and their ability to influence collective bargaining.

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Gender Equality and the Labor Market: Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines

Based on an analysis of gender inequalities, strategies and promising initiatives to counter gender discrimination and promote equality between men and women in Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines, as well as an inventory of global good legal, economic, and social practices, this report summarizes the findings and recommendations for these countries. It shows how to improve equitable employment opportunities, remuneration, and treatment for women and men at work to support the development of decent work and gender equality good practices in Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines. The report is part of a series consisting of:

- Good Global Legal Practices to Promote Gender Equality in the Labor Market
- Good Global Economic and Social Practices to Promote Gender Equality in the Labor Market
- Gender Equality and the Labor Market: Cambodia, Kazakhstan, and the Philippines
- Gender Equality in the Labor Market in Cambodia
- Gender Equality in the Labor Market in the Philippines.

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Asian Development Bank
6 ADB Avenue, Mandaluyong City
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www.adb.org



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