I. Introduction

The recent financial and economic crisis has called into question many of the beliefs about market economics that held sway for more than two decades, with a new consensus emerging that markets alone cannot deliver economic stability. Governments and their partners, including international financial institutions, are re-evaluating stabilization policies and financial sector deregulation. The search for new ideas and more effective practices is also opening up space for considering how to reach key development objectives—including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Mobilization of domestic resources and expansion of fiscal space—alongside international development resources—has always been a high priority for developing nations. Labour is another key domestic resource that remains underutilized. Under-employed, unemployed, and often forced into inactivity, its contributions to human and economic development have yet to be realized. Public works and employment guarantee programmes present a significant opportunity to mobilize this underutilized resource. In doing so, these programmes can equitably and efficiently create jobs and income and can bridge development gaps.

In response to ballooning unemployment following the financial and economic crisis, some countries are already implementing such programmes. At the most basic level, these programmes are government-funded initiatives offering minimum-wage jobs to those who are ready and willing to work, but otherwise unable to secure employment in the private sector. In these instances, the state acts as ‘the employer of last resort,’ providing the security of a work entitlement when all else fails. However, a shortage of paying work is a problem both during and after crisis; large segments of the world’s population, particularly women, were unable to find jobs even before the recent global economic upheaval.

This Policy Brief discusses the importance of addressing issues of gender equality and employment guarantee policies, targeting UNDP country offices and their national partners (e.g., national, regional and local governments and parliaments, academia, media, civil society and the private sector). It aims to stimulate and inform country-level discussions with a view towards developing locally-adapted gender-responsive job creation initiatives, and, as an advocacy tool with a view towards increasing awareness of how gender equality can be promoted within government employment initiatives from the local to international levels.
The origin of government ‘public works’ programmes can be traced back centuries to state interventions to avert famine. Government-led relief programmes were implemented to provide the means of survival to those most affected by economic crises or natural disasters. The state identified useful projects—such as building canals and roads—and paid for public service jobs to build them.

Periodically throughout the last century, many countries adopted public service job creation policies that rendered the government effectively (yet in most cases only temporarily) the employer of last resort. To avoid displacing private sector employment and to prevent the more affluent from participating, the pay was usually set around the minimum wage rate. In some instances, most notably in India, the offered wage eventually led to an increase in unskilled rural labour’s wages.

There have been several approaches to job creation (see Table 1). Special attention should be given to the public works programme of India, which has two innovative components: work guaranteed by the Constitution; and a human rights based approach (see Box 2). For this reason, many examples in this brief are drawn from India. In Argentina, the Jefes y Jefas de Hogar was introduced following the 2001 financial crisis. Part-time, year-round employment at slightly below the minimum wage was offered to any head of household with dependent children. The programme was gradually phased out as the crisis eased. The Republic of Korea implemented a similar programme in the wake of the 1997 Asian crisis. In Bangladesh and Ethiopia, public works initiatives have been used during years of severe drought to increase food security, and project selection has aimed at enhancing rural productivity. Many employee guarantee initiatives in Africa and Latin America were introduced to remediate for structural adjustment. However, the initiatives were short-lived and ineffective.

Though transitiveness is a common characteristic of these initiatives, this is not necessary; such programmes can be a useful and critical aspect of a country’s economic policy toolkit. Hyman Minsky proposed a permanent employer of last resort policy that utilizes surplus labour to lead to a more inclusive path of development by focusing on socially needed tasks. Examples of assets created include new roads, maintenance of public infrastructure, rural land development, flood control works, reactivation of traditional water supply systems, reforestation, and environmental cleanup. Society receives many benefits, including increased

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**BOX 1: THE GLOBAL JOBS PACT**

The Global Jobs Pact is the UN system’s key response to the global financial and economic crisis. The Pact is designed to guide national and international policies aimed at stimulating economic recovery and providing social protection to working women, men and their families. By placing the goals of full and productive employment and decent work at the heart of crisis response, and by emphasizing support for job creation and transitioning people into work, the Pact bolsters governments’ efforts to limit the risk of long-term unemployment, underemployment, or dependence on the informal labour market. The Pact supports responses that include public employment guarantee schemes, emergency public works programmes and other job creation schemes that are well targeted and include the informal economy. Stating that “the current crisis should be viewed as an opportunity to shape new gender equality policy responses,” the Pact explicitly recognizes that recovery package design and implementation should give women and men equal voices, should account for how the crisis affects them, and should incorporate gender concerns into all measures. The 2010 UNDP Executive Board decision, ‘UNDP response to the economic and financial crisis: promoting the Global Jobs Pact’, requested UNDP to integrate the Pact into its operational activities.


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II. What is an employment guarantee or public works policy?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Programme Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2002 onwards</td>
<td>Head of households plan (<em>Jefes de Hogar</em>) offers households with children under the age of 18 years old 20 hours of work per week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1940–1970</td>
<td><em>The Commonwealth Employment Service</em> kept unemployment at a low average of 2 percent; in contrast to unemployment hovering near 9 percent in the 1990s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>1986–1990</td>
<td><em>The Emergency Social Fund</em> and subsequent stabilization programme was established to cushion the economic crisis’ adverse effects on the poor by facilitating the transition through structural adjustment phases. Temporary employment in small-scale, labour-intensive projects increased the average worker’s weekly earnings by 32 percent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>1980s onwards</td>
<td>During drought years, the <em>Labour-Based Drought Relief Programme</em> and the <em>Labour-Intensive Rural Public Works Programme</em> provide short-term employment support for vulnerable population groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>1975–1987</td>
<td><em>Programa de Empleo Mínimo</em> was created to combat record high unemployment of 30 percent and managed to employ up to 13 percent of the workforce.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Piloted in 2005</td>
<td><em>The Productive Safety Net Programme</em> aims to provide households with enough income (cash/food) to meet their food gap and thereby protect their household assets from depletion, and aims to build community assets to contribute to addressing the root causes of food insecurity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1988 onwards</td>
<td><em>The Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Costs of Adjustment</em>—part of the government’s structural adjustment programme—has largely involved labour-intensive construction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1972, 2005</td>
<td><em>Maharashtra Employment Guarantee Scheme</em> guarantees manual work to any applicant. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act offers 100 days of employment to rural households.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Relaunched in 1998</td>
<td>Responding to the Asian crisis, the <em>Padat Karya</em> programmes aim at rapidly disbursing income support to the most needy while maximizing the employment potential of the funds spent. The programmes include poverty alleviation and emergency job creation measures through small-scale infrastructure projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Initiated in 1997</td>
<td><em>The Master Plan for Tackling Unemployment</em> involves emergency public works programmes for low-skill workers. The number of participants varied in each year. For example, in 1999, projects provided approximately 400,000 jobs, which reduced the unemployment rate by 2 percent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Since 1961</td>
<td><em>The Promotion Nationale</em> is an autonomous public entity in charge of mobilizing an under- or unemployed workforce to implement labour-intensive projects. Focusing on rural communities in the Saharan and South Provinces, rural-to-urban migration is limited through the permanent improvement of local incomes and living conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Initiated in 1989</td>
<td>From 1992–1996, the <em>Dhaulagiri Irrigation Development Project</em> saw the formation of 66 Farmers Irrigation Associations, 43 Functional Literacy Groups and 90 Women’s Savings Groups/Mother’s Groups (under the heading of ‘Irrigation Related Income Generation’). These groups received training on environmental awareness, vegetable nurseries, smokeless stove construction and financial management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1991–1995</td>
<td><em>Programa de Apoyo al Ingreso Temporal</em>, a public works programme focusing primarily on women. At one point in time it employed 500,000 workers.</td>
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</table>
quality of life, enhanced productivity and livelihood options, development of small- and medium-size businesses, and crowding-in of private investment.

South Africa’s Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), is another example of a permanent labour market policy programme. Introduced in 2004 with a five-year target to create one million work opportunities, the programme is now in its second phase and aims to double its initial target. To alleviate problems stemming from chronic unemployment (which has averaged between 25 and 30 percent in the post-apartheid era), EPWP utilizes public-sector budgets in order to provide short- to medium-term employment opportunities to unskilled, unemployed workers from poor households. EPWP is innovative in that it provides work opportunities not only in infrastructure, but also in the social sectors of the economy (e.g., early childhood development, home-based care and upgrading of other community services—of particular importance for gender equality and women’s empowerment).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Programme Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>2004 onwards</td>
<td>The Expanded Public Works Programme seeks to reorient existing departmental expenditure in ways that maximize jobs creation in the environmental, infrastructure and social sectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>1985 onwards</td>
<td>The National Housing Development Authority engages urban communities in housing and infrastructure development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1938–1970</td>
<td>Programme offered an alternative to welfareism by emphasizing the right to work rather than the right to income. Unemployment rates remained below 3 percent until the late 1980s, when the programme was dismantled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>1933–1936, 2009–2010</td>
<td>The New Deal public works programmes (e.g., Civil Works Administration, Public Works Administration, and the Works Projects Administration), were established as a response to the Great Depression. In 1935, the programmes started to directly engage women, mostly by involving them in arts programmes, school lunch programmes, and clothing and sewing project for charities and hospitals. The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 aims to create new jobs and save existing ones; spur economic activity and invest in long-term growth; and foster unprecedented levels of accountability and transparency in government spending.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>1991 onwards</td>
<td>Micro-project unit targeted the poor and focused on the maintenance of existing infrastructure.</td>
</tr>
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**BOX 2: INDIA’S NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE ACT**

India’s National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) is a permanent programme that creates public works. Introduced to generate employment for members of poor rural households during the agricultural off-season, the NREGA became part of India’s Constitution in 2005. Beyond being a public works programme, NREGA is an entitlement of a permanent employment insurance, guaranteed through an amendment of the Constitution. This made the state the guarantor of the right to work. The programme provides 100 days of work per year to households located in any of the poor rural districts throughout the country. There are ongoing discussions regarding expanding the programme so as to reach the poor in urban centres, and extending the number of available working days to 150 per year. So far, work projects have been selected with the explicit aim of improving rural infrastructure, increasing agricultural productivity, and enhancing livelihood options. The program is unique in many regards, including the simultaneous passage of the Right to Information Act, which enhances civil society’s oversight of transparency and accountability in monitoring of the programme. The cost of the programme, which reaches over 40 million households, is less than 1 percent of India’s gross domestic product.
For some people, the global financial and economic crisis marks a setback from a path to prosperity, while for many others around the world it is accentuating poverty, inequality, and social exclusion. The crisis has led to significant reversals in development gains over the past two years. About 50 million more women and men joined the ranks of the unemployed and, combined with the fuel and food price spikes of 2008, over 150 million more women and men have been trapped in poverty than predicted prior to the crisis.11

Evidence from previous financial crises shows that despite stabilization of gross domestic product growth, employment recovery in the aftermath of crises lags behind other economic indicators by as much as a decade, if they recover at all. For example, in the aftermath of the 1997 Asian financial crisis, the Philippines and Thailand took nearly a decade to decrease unemployment rates to their pre-crisis levels, while Indonesia never recovered to its pre-crisis levels.12

Sudden declines in aggregate demand have always negatively affected employment. Yet problems arising from scarce employment opportunities are not limited to times of crisis. For example, many who work in informal conditions suffer from chronic underemployment and unpredictable spells of unemployment. Most rural workers have access to agricultural work only seasonally and, despite distress migration, face perpetual employment uncertainty. Own-account workers also depend on unstable sources of income, as their earnings from sales are highly volatile. Structural unemployment also takes its toll: Despite many policies to accelerate economic growth, 25 percent of the population in South Africa has remained excluded from access to work opportunities for over fifteen years.13

The imperative for public job creation is gaining much attention at this juncture from governments and policy-advising bodies. In March 2010, UNDP Administrator Helen Clark met with Manmohan Singh, Prime Minister of India, to discuss how UNDP could enhance its partnership with India to foster human development and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (see Box 3).

BOX 3: UNDP ADMINISTRATOR ON NREGA

“UNDP’s partnership with India in the 21st century should also have a global dimension. India has many experiences to share and technologies available to assist other developing countries to meet their development challenges,” said Helen Clark speaking at a symposium on ‘Millennium Development Goals and Human Development in India; Achievement and Challenges’. Clark added, “Building on these experiences, UNDP looks forward to taking its relationship with India to a new level of engagement in South-South cooperation.” [Among these experiences], the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme... is an example of the knowledge and experience that India could export to other developing countries for transformational change.”

During her visit to India, Union Minister for Rural Development C. P. Joshi accompanied Clark to the Bhilwara District in Rajasthan to see the implementation of a NREGS programme that fights poverty in India by providing employment for those who want it. In Bhilwara, Clark saw the innovations that UNDP is collaborating on with the Ministry of Rural Development under the NREGS. While there, she visited a water conservation work site and discussed new projects that allow workers to receive wages through fingerprint technology. A simple mobile-based SMS system also enables workers to access information just by sending a text message.

“There are very many exciting aspects to this scheme, but most exciting of course is the benefit it can bring to women, men, and families,” said Clark. “We hope by working 100 days per year, there will be more money for food for the family, more money for health care, and more money for people to be able to support themselves.” Afterwards, she discussed the programme with local women who had been elected representatives in the district.

In creating job opportunities, public works and employment guarantee programmes deliver income protection for all participants, women and men alike. Thus, employment assurance policies represent a productive social safety net system creating assets and income opportunities, and yielding public and private benefits. These initiatives complement conditional cash transfer programmes by creating opportunities for participants to acquire or upgrade skills, thereby enhancing livelihood options and employability.

Initiatives to hire unskilled manual labour aim to promote social inclusion of marginalised groups and supplement the incomes of those in vulnerable employment. Women make up the majority of the world’s 1.3 billion poor people, comprise larger numbers among those in vulnerable employment, have lower labour-market participation rates, and suffer higher rates of unemployment. It is therefore important to explore how public works and employment guarantee programmes can best serve women’s interests. Insight can be gained by addressing two key issues: first, ensuring that women have access to employment guarantee programme jobs and, second, ensuring that programmes reduce women’s unpaid work.

A. ENSURING WOMEN’S ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE PROGRAMME JOBS

Employment guarantee programmes should be aware of long-standing biases and inequality patterns in the division of labour between women and men. Entry barriers, job assignment segregation, and other asymmetries can be remediated at the design phase. From a policy perspective, four aspects deserve attention:

1. **Ensuring that women have equitable access to jobs by addressing gender-differentiated labour supply constraints.** Unlike men, much of women’s time is devoted to unpaid care work. These tasks include household maintenance, sanitation, food preparation, and—particularly among poorer households—collection and transportation of free goods, fuel wood, and water. Traditionally, women and girls have also been responsible for raising children, necessitating around-the-clock supervision. Hence, their time and space for participation in paid work is constrained.¹⁴ The potential contribution of employment guarantee programmes to reducing unpaid work is addressed in Section B.

Aware of women’s choices between caring for family members and securing employment, India’s NREGA mandates that worksites provide and maintain childcare, shade, and water for children; that lactating mothers have time off to feed infants; and that work projects are within five kilometres of participant’s dwellings. Though Argentina’s Jefes y Jefas de Hogar does not have any formal stipulations, women participants requested and organized on-site child-care facilities and established communal kitchens for meal preparation. In addition, a cost-saving aspect of the programme included some jobs that required only half-day, part-time commitments. When first made available to heads of households with children, the government expected around 300 to 400 thousand households to participate. However, 2 million people, most of whom were women, declared themselves heads of households and eager to participate. Allowing more time for domestic responsibilities, many women reported satisfaction with the twenty-hour per week work restriction, accounting for the very high level of female participation (over 70 percent) in the programme.¹⁵

2. **Ensuring that women are not excluded from jobs that are traditionally considered men’s work.** The gender nature of work assignments (i.e., the horizontal segregation of the labour market) may preclude most women from accessing some jobs. For example, men traditionally fill construction and infrastructure maintenance jobs (which comprise most opportunities created through employment guarantee programmes). Though physiological characteristics are responsible for some of this segregation, the proportion to the number...

IV. Gender equality, public works, employment guarantees and employer of last resort programmes

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<th>MDGs</th>
<th>Employment guarantee programme focus areas</th>
<th>Contribution to achieving the Millennium Development Goals</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger | • Physical and social infrastructure investments  
• Agricultural land development, water harvesting and other environmentally sustainable interventions | • Increased incomes to beneficiaries/workers  
• Reduced unpaid care work for women and girls  
• Enhanced food security and localized agricultural production |
| MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education | • Physical and social infrastructure investments  
• School construction/maintenance  
• Training/education opportunities for adults | • Reduced unpaid care work for girls  
• Enhanced facilitation of increased school enrolment and attendance |
| MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women | • Physical and social infrastructure investments, including durable housing and public-use ovens for meal preparation  
• Water provisioning for and by beneficiaries  
• Home-based care work incorporated into employment guarantee programmes  
• Training opportunities for women workers  
• Participation of female beneficiaries in project selection, design and implementation  
• Early childhood development centres for young children | • Increased incomes for women  
• Reduced unpaid care work for women and girls  
• Enhanced labour force participation of women  
• Enhanced participation of women in decision-making |
| MDG 4: Reduce child mortality | • Early childhood development centres for young children  
• Certified training in extension health services  
• Infrastructure for clean water, latrines and crèche | • Increased income for extension workers and early childhood development community workers  
• Enhanced health of children |
| MDG 5: Improve maternal health | • Education/training certification programmes  
• Maternal health care education programmes  
• Auxiliary community care activities | • Increased income for maternal health care education programme extension workers  
• Enhanced engagement in auxiliary community care activities |
| MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases | • Education and training programme for home-based and community-based care workers  
• Auxiliary community care services | • Accelerated access to prevention and treatment services within underserved communities |
| MDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability | • Environmental remediation, reforestation, development of ponds, traditional irrigation systems, water projects and ecological latrines  
• Management of wastelands and watersheds | • Improved access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation  
• Enhanced adaptation to climate change |
| MDG 8: Develop a global partnership for development | • Learning from the international experiences of job creation programmes  
• Coordination of UN agencies to finance job creation | • Enhanced South-South cooperation |
of tasks that do not require strength does not support the overall amount of segregation. Responding to this challenge, some public works and employment guarantee programmes have included targets for women. For example, during the first phase of EPWP in South Africa, the overall annual participation target was for 55 percent of workers to be women16 and, in India, NREGA mandates a 33 percent participation rate for women. Though there is variation across programmes, women overwhelmingly want to seek jobs in infrastructural projects.17

3. **Ensuring women’s access to semi-skilled categories of public works and increasing their participation rates as subcontractors and supervisors of projects.** In some cases, gender disparities may be a reflection of entrenched and discriminatory labour practices that prevail in the rest of the economy. Proper skills assessment can go a long way, but when appropriate training is warranted it must be mainstreamed into public works initiatives; employment guarantee programmes can play a crucial role in this domain.

Improving skills can broaden livelihood opportunities beyond participating in less traditional occupations. Research in Argentina found that women beneficiaries who received training in carpentry later sought such work as independent contractors in their communities.18 In a rural area of KwaZulu Natal, South Africa, a women’s cooperative for mushroom production, formed within the Expanded Public Works Programme, became self-sustaining. In Limpopo, South Africa, agricultural extension services, combined with the Programme’s social service sector (e.g., child care services), led to the development of vegetable gardens that benefited both programme workers and non-programme community members. During initial discussions on a planned pilot programme in Mexico, potential women beneficiaries passionately expressed interest in learning plumbing, carpentry, and lorry driving, so that they could contribute to all facets of employment opportunities.

Skills-enhancing services, adapted to local needs and conditions, can often be leveraged from within local and national government processes and budgetary allocations already in place. Some rural public works programmes (e.g., the NREGA) have long experience in combining agricultural extension services and marketing training to cooperatives. In addition, South Africa introduced a skills-upgrading component in its initial programme design: the programme allocates one day per week for this purpose, ultimately resulting in participants receiving accreditation and certification from local authorities.

The Rural Roads Maintenance Programme in Peru (2003–2006) increased women’s participation from 3.5 to 24 percent by setting a female participation quota of 10 percent in micro-enterprises, and by providing gender training programmes targeted at different actors and levels of the project. Women’s improved participation in decision-making roles in 284 micro-enterprises was directly linked to the targeted training. Women also undertook all maintenance activities and performed better than men in many activities.19

4. **Ensuring equitable wages and equal pay for comparable work.** The need to address gender-based inequalities in wages stems from the concern that programmes do not mirror practices that are pervasive in the general economy. On a global scale, women’s

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**BOX 4: WOMEN WORKERS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF NREGA IN INDIA**

NREGA participants, women and men alike, belong to the most disadvantaged groups. Many female respondents said that NREGA work was the only paid work opportunity for them. The acceptability of NREGA work by society and women themselves derives from several factors: it is locally available; the working hours are regular and predictable; there is less chance of work conditions being exploitative; the work is considered socially acceptable and dignified; and it is better paid than other work. Women received the same compensation as men, 85 rupees per day (as compared to 47 to 58 rupees they would have received in unskilled, agricultural or other casual labour).

wages lag behind men’s. By setting identical wages for women and men, employment guarantee programmes can effectively lead by example.20 NREGA, for example, incorporated stipulations requiring that women are to be paid equal wages and that compensation levels should be informed by gender- and age-sensitive productivity norms.

B. ENSURING THAT PROGRAMMES REDUCE WOMEN’S UNPAID WORK

Confronting social exclusion, inequality and poverty requires a simultaneous and parallel effort at addressing women’s excessive unpaid care work burdens that limits their full participation in economic, social, political, and cultural life.21 Reducing this inequality must be based on social co-responsibility. To that end, the state must play a leading role and put in place policies that lighten women’s unpaid care work burdens. Gender-informed project design of employment guarantee programme can contribute to this aim.

A concern for employment guarantee programmes is that scarce public funds are invested in socially useful programmes. As many developing countries face backlogs in basic infrastructure maintenance and repair, work projects have traditionally focused on closing such gaps, mostly through labour-intensive methods.22 Though women will benefit from these as much as men, they will benefit doubly from projects that reduce their unpaid care work burdens. For example, locating potable water closer to dwellings or installing sewage systems will help improve everyone’s quality of life. However, for women who are responsible for tasks such as sanitation, cleaning-up or washing clothes, there is the additional benefit of reducing the time and labour involved in these daily activities. Awareness of gender-differentiated priorities also highlights social service delivery backlogs. For example, if women and girls in households caring for those with disabling conditions or protracted illness (e.g., HIV/AIDS or malaria), home-based care is an essential service. Bridging backlogs in social service delivery provides jobs and income, enhances skills (as some training is required), benefits community life, narrows gender-based inequalities in unpaid work and contributes to reaching the Millennium Development Goals (see Table 2).

BOX 5: WHY A SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE SCOPE FOR NREGA IN INDIA?

“About 22 percent of rural households lived [last year] in katcha structures (temporary shelters) and another 29 percent lived in semi-pucca structures (semi-permanent homes). Some 74 percent of rural households had no access to toilets. The brunt of the impact of these deprivations is borne by women. Not a very flattering picture for a country growing at over 8 percent! [NREGA’s] focus on social infrastructure in rural areas can provide employment opportunities for millions of people in toilet construction, waste recycling, methane farming for energy use, vermi-composting and a host of other such uses. What makes the proposal even more attractive is that sanitation projects can earn carbon credits for reducing green house gases and contribute to the government’s green agenda. The emphasis on better health infrastructure will facilitate control of water-borne and communicable diseases and contribute to reducing infant mortality rates, thereby enabling the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals for the country.”


Both in countries with existing employment guarantee programmes and in those contemplating new initiatives, attention to the following issues will simultaneously contribute to gender equality and human development:

1. **Project selection must include works that create and improve social infrastructure, which will also reduce the amount of time spent on unpaid work.**

   While benefiting communities in general, social infrastructure projects have proven to improve women’s lives by reducing drudgery and time requirements in performing tasks such as sanitation, water and firewood collection, daily maintenance of living quarters, accessing free goods from public lands and cooking. The following are examples of public works projects undertaken:
• Construction of more durable housing (Argentina);
• Construction of ecological latrines (South Africa);
• Construction of small bridges, feeder roads, and paving internal roads (India);
• Construction of water-harvesting structures (India);
• Improvement of traditional structures (India);
• Regeneration and reforestation of common lands and plantations (Ethiopia);
• Organization of the collection and distribution of water and firewood (India);
• Construction of public-use ovens for meal preparation (Argentina); and
• Management of wastelands and watersheds (Ethiopia and India).

2. **Programme design should include public job creation that delivers social services.** Within public service job creation interventions, physical infrastructure must be developed hand-in-hand with social services (e.g., early childhood development, after-school programmes, home-based care, assistance to the elderly and people with disabilities, and community-based recycling of garbage). These jobs are meaningful but remain hidden because such work is considered a natural part of what women do for their households. Embedded in the secluded spaces of personal-family relations, the benefits they provide are socially unrecognized and undervalued, and are therefore excluded from consideration by most employment guarantee programmes.

An example of combining physical infrastructure and social services is to encourage education of girls by both building a suitable space/building, and addressing their role in providing the household with unpaid care work. There is evidence that in under-served communities, deficits in social services (e.g., water delivery or care services for people living with HIV/AIDS) are compensated for by long hours of unpaid care work, provided by women and girls who could otherwise be devoting this time to their education.

Appropriate training increases the quality of these services and remuneration ascribes to them the deserved recognition of belonging to the realm of socially valued work.

Good practices in gender-informed design of public works include:

• South Africa's Social Sector projects, which are a part of the overall Expanded Public Works Programme, provide a distinct example of gender-awareness: early childhood development and community- and home-based care were identified at the programme’s inception as appropriate fields for job creation. In its current phase, the Community Work Programme serves as an extension of the initial Social Sector’s efforts, but adds value in that it takes a comprehensive, community-needs approach. Public service job creation that specifically benefits women and girls includes community policing patrols, waste management, teacher’s aides, sports facilitation for girls, home repairs, and cleaning and maintenance work for households headed by older people and those unable to perform these tasks.

• Argentina’s Jefes y Jefas de Hogar engaged women primarily in community-upgrading projects, many of which were designed by programme beneficiaries themselves. It is important to include the voices of the women and men who will be the service providers and beneficiaries of community-based projects in project selection and planning processes. Their active involvement in the design, implementation, and monitoring phases can provide inputs that will ensure public works and employment guarantee programmes promote inclusive, community-based development.

3. **Implementing agencies must be made aware that, for equivalent amounts of resources, social sector public works deliver more jobs than do infrastructure projects.** The argument for project selection in social service delivery can also be made from an economic efficiency perspective. When large-scale public job creation takes place, whether through physical or social sector projects, it affects the entire economy through two channels. First, the income earned by workers is spent in the economy.
Second, through the use of participant labour and physical inputs. When labour is bought for use in public works projects, new demand is injected into the overall system, creating income for other workers and owners of small-, medium-, and, at times, large-scale enterprises. These firms, in turn, demand new goods and services, perpetuating the initial effect. The continuation of this virtuous cycle shows up at the macroeconomic level as growth in employment, output, and ultimately in tax revenues. Research findings derived through models that link the impact of public works to both the overall economy and to individual households show that the impacts on new job creation, new income, and the pro-poor distribution of that income are stronger when public spending is allocated in social services projects rather than in physical infrastructure.24

Though not the only project selection criterion, investing in public works and employment guarantee programmes that focus social care delivers multiple policy objectives: while expanding services, it maximizes job growth, distributes newly created income fairly, and promotes gender equality through social co-sharing and redistribution of unpaid care work responsibilities.

V. Incorporating gender awareness in project selection, design, and implementation

Project design and implementation must include consultations with women beneficiaries and stakeholders. The following is a brief list of practical recommendations for incorporating gender awareness into employment guarantee programmes:

A. PROJECT SELECTION

• Consult with women, separately from men, regarding the types of projects they think would benefit the community as a whole and themselves as individuals. Ask them to prioritize projects;

• Promote a gender-responsive approach within implementing agencies and identify projects that reduce unpaid care work;

• Incorporate project elements that allow women to participate in and benefit from public job creation programmes (e.g., provide on-site childcare, allow regular breaks for nursing mothers); and

• Consult with women about the types of jobs they would like to be able to do—beyond the boundaries of traditional gender roles—in addition to the jobs they traditionally do.

BOX 6: TYPES OF JOBS FOR WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa’s Working for Water project, part of the Extended Public Works Programme, has integrated some gender-sensitive social development aspects by providing, for example, reproductive health and childcare interventions. However, the issue of the type of jobs that women hold in the projects requires increased attention. Research conducted in Tsitsikamma showed that while some women held senior positions (e.g., contractors or foremen), the majority of women held unskilled lower-paying jobs. To effect change, the Programme adopted an innovative strategy: Beyond a quota, it set the objective of paying 60 percent of wages to women. In order to meet this target, women had to receive a larger portion of the wage bill. As a consequence, this stipulation opened the door for women to be shifted towards semi-skilled and supervisory jobs.

B. PROJECT DESIGN

- Engage gender experts and female technicians, professionals, and decision-makers as part of the project design team;

- Consult with women on their need for women-only work teams;

- Define clear objectives, targets and indicators and link them with project activities to reduce the limitations women face in accessing jobs as potential workers. Indicators should address issues such as the impacts of employment participation on total paid and unpaid work time and the number of women and men in different functions;

- Locate projects within a reasonable distance from participants’ homes and/or transport links to and from the worksite so that they can still attend to unpaid work tasks; and

- Ensure opportunities for women workers at three levels through the establishment and enforcement of quotas and availability of child care facilities: equal access to jobs; equal access to on-the-job training; and equal pay for work of equal value.

C. PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

- Ensure that information on eligibility criteria and application processes reach women so that they can apply for jobs. This means going beyond radio announcements, visits to villages, and pamphlets; locally-adapted communication strategies need to be identified by activities such as enlisting support from non-governmental organizations or religious leaders and centres, or using schools and local markets as sites for information dissemination;

- Make focused efforts to develop women’s capacities and skills to take on technical or supervisory functions. This will create opportunities for women to take on more challenging and better paid functions, to achieve higher self-confidence and pride, and to establish their own enterprises and become contractors in the private sector; and

- Include gender experts and women workers in the design of gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation processes.

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BOX 7: GENDER-SENSITIVE DESIGN COMPONENTS IN ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Programme, initiated in 2005 and now reaching approximately 8 million households, incorporates relatively strong gender-sensitive design components. A commitment made in the country’s first poverty reduction strategy paper to ensure “the inclusion of gender in any effort to alleviate poverty” informed the development of the Programme. This commitment is reflected by the Programme’s targeting of women in general and of female-headed households in particular. For example, the Programme supported investment activities (e.g., irrigation development) that could be undertaken on the land of poor female-headed households. Gender-informed stipulations, such as the requirement that worksites of a certain size provide childcare facilities, are also part of programme design. However, implementation processes still face challenges. For example, despite the mandate, childcare facilities have not been routinely provided; in certain parts of the country cultural mobility restrictions have constrained women’s participation; and divorced women have faced difficulties in re-registering in their own right.

VI. Conclusion

As part of an inclusive development agenda, employment guarantee programmes can help shift a country’s economy from a state of surplus-labour to one of localized productive and remunerative engagement. By including workers who only have access to irregular, unpredictable, or no paid work, these programmes can provide jobs and income to those the economy routinely fails. As jobs and income flow to poor and marginalized households, such interventions can steer a country’s economy towards a pro-poor development path. With community participation and good coordination among the implementing departments, appropriate project selection can improve physical and social infrastructure in under-served communities. Renewed hope, improved feelings of self-respect, and a better quality of life will reach those that circumstances and ineffective policies have left behind.

For women to partake in these benefits, gender differences and pre-existing inequalities must be borne in mind at all stages, from design and implementation through to monitoring and evaluation. Employment guarantee programmes can improve the quality of their services by ensuring decent working conditions, (e.g., by providing predictable work, pre-agreed upon number of hours per work day, childcare, by paying better or locally-equivalent wages, and by ensuring social protections). Looking through the lens of social needs, project selection can lead to a win-win situation: poverty reduction and the promotion of gender equality.

VII. Selected web resources


India’s National Rural Employment Guarantee Act: www.nrega.nic.in

South Africa’s Expanded Public Works Programme: www.epwp.gov.za

Economists for Full Employment: www.economistsforfullemployment.org


United Nations Development Programme:
VIII. Suggested reading


ENDNOTES


3 Fiscal space can be defined as “room in a government’s budget that allows it to provide resources for a desired purpose without jeopardizing the sustainability of its financial position or the stability of the economy.”

4 Several sections of an earlier draft of this Policy Brief were drawn upon for a module contributed to a validation workshop organized by the International Labour Office.


6 Variously known as employment guarantee schemes, public employment programmes, food for work, public works programmes or employment of last resort programmes.

7 Wages in public works programmes and employment guarantee programmes is an important policy issue that requires careful consideration, (e.g., paying minimum wages versus wages set at the market rate, or paying wages based on tasks performed or by daily rate). Setting wages lower than what the market rate could contribute to improving the living conditions of participating workers while installing a de facto minimum wage for unskilled informal workers. However, this will put wage pressure on some economic sectors, informal and formal.


15 Tcherneva and Wray (2007), op. cit.

16 EPWP South Africa, influenced by the national labour standards set by the Code of Good Practice targets, also mandates that at least 40 percent of workers are youth and 3 percent of workers are disabled, (percentages are to be scaled-up over time).


19 Gutiérrez, María T., Relaciones de género en un proyecto de infraestructura vial: Medidas afirmativas en pro de la inclusión de la mujer en el espacio laboral, Peru: (Provias RuralMTC. 2005 Perú).

20 The International Labour Organization’s (ILO) international labour standards provide guidance in regards to the issues involved in wage equality. Three ILO conventions to be paid particular attention to are the C.100, Equal Remuneration Convention of 1951; the C. 111, Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention of 1958; and C. 156, Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention of 1958.


22 The ILO has advocated the use of labour-intensive construction techniques for decades. With technical support of specialized engineers, a construction project can be designed so that more labour and less machines are used, thus maximizing the labour content of production. See: www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/recon/eiip/about/index.htm.


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