

Sessione 9: Qualità del lavoro e job satisfaction

Decent work in Italy

Martina Lavagnini[♦], Antonella Mennella[♦]

Abstract

This study tries to propose another approach to the decent work measure, taking into account only the working conditions, consequently worker is entitled to aspire and experience decent work. The aim of this interpretation of decent work is to investigate the individual and relational conditions of the person while working although peculiarities of an economy and characteristics of a labour market are obviously important as fields where work is created and takes place.

The idea of decent work it is articulated into three profiles: basic, relations and fairness, and it has been put on test by analysing the Italian labour market.

This choice it is done in the belief that the decent work analysis, which has usually been much more focused through developing countries, is valuable just as well to make considerations on any kind of economy.

[♦] Facoltà di Economia – Università Roma Tre mar.lavagnini@stud.uniroma3.it

[♦] Facoltà di Economia – Università Roma Tre amennella@uniroma3.it

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1. Introduction

The concept of decent work was conceived by ILO in 1999 as: “opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (ILO 1999, p.3).

In years that have passed since then, there has been an intense debate on how to effectively measure decent work around world’s regions, compare performances among countries and through years, so to use decent work as a specific tool to help outline employment-centred policies for countries’ development paths.

After more than a decade this debate is still open and lively, the aim of this paper is to take part in it by proposing another possible approach to the decent work measure.

The idea of decent work here will be articulated into three profiles: basic, relations and fairness, and it will be put on test by analysing the Italian labour market.

This choice is done in the belief that the decent work analysis, which has usually been much more focused through developing countries, is valuable just as well to make considerations on any kind of economy.

Data selected come from different sources, among them the ISTAT labour force survey, statistics on accidents and diseases from INAIL, data from the INPS observatories on workers, the ISFOL-PLUS survey.

Data time series permits an overlook on the national situation from 2006 to 2010, then a territorial analysis is possible on regions and provinces, but it suffers from non homogeneous data breaks.

After an introduction which displays aims and steps of the paper, the second section retraces the existing literature on the concept of decent work, that mostly comes from the International Labour Organization.

In the third section the proposed approach of decent work is described in its sense, definition, methodology, and the matter of how to use available data on the Italian labour market is analysed.

In the fourth section the proposed approach is used to evaluate decent work in Italy.

Conclusions on what emerges about decent work in Italy are discussed in the last section and it is evaluated the possibility to use this approach for further purposes, for example into the count of capabilities in Italy.

2. *Decent work*: definition and different approach to its meaning and measure.

In a world where the ideas and images, processes and policies of development are overwhelmingly dominated by capital and its protagonists, this intervention [the conception of “decent work”] opens up some countervailing strategic space. It potentially reclaims visibility and voice for silenced and subordinated labour.

(SAITH, 2004, p.4)

The concept of *decent work* was defined by ILO¹ in 1999 as: “opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (ILO 1999, p.3) and so endorsed by the international community².

¹The International Labour Organization (ILO) is an agency of the United Nations composed by representatives of governments, employers and workers from the UN States. ILO is focused on the issues of labour markets: it oversees the international labour standards and promotes *decent work*.

² As a matter of fact *decent work* was soon after included among the Millennium Development Goals: the Millennium Declaration was signed in the occasion of the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000 by 189 countries, which have so engaged themselves to meet the eight Millennium Development Goals by 2015. In particular, target 1B is “achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young children”

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In years that have passed since then, there has been an intense debate on how to effectively measure *decent work* around world's regions, compare performances among countries and through years so to use *decent work* as a specific tool to help outline employment-centred policies for countries' development paths.

As it is recalled (ILO 1999, p.3) the Declaration of Philadelphia³ has given ILO the mandate to help creating worldwide conditions “*of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity*” in which “*all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, can pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development*”.

Eighty years after, at the beginning of the twenty-first century, the Director General⁴ of ILO reckoned to remain faithful to this aim affirming that *decent work* is “*the primary goal of the ILO today*” and that “*decent work is the converging focus of all its four strategic objectives: the promotion of rights at work, employment, social protection and social dialogue*” (ILO 1999, p.3)

It is specified that *decent work* has to become the target for every kind of employment: from the wage-employments of the formal sector to self-employments, home working and every kind of employment in the informal sector: “*all those who work have rights at work*” (ILO 1999, p.4).

Moreover, it is affirmed that “*the defence of rights at work necessarily involves the obligation to promote the possibilities of work itself*” (ILO 1999, p.4) and it is clarified that the expanding of employment opportunities is considered an objective of *decent work* just as well as earning a decent livelihood. Nevertheless qualitative and quantitative measures of work are desired in the analysis because “*the goal is not just the creations of jobs, but the creations of jobs of acceptable quality*” (ILO 1999, p.4).

In this fundamental report, the Director-General of ILO situates his proposal of this notion and global aim in the strategic context of a great changing in the world's economy: “*In the last two decades [...] international capital markets have moved out of alignment with national labour markets, creating asymmetrical risks and benefits for capital and labour*” (ILO 1999, p.1). This detachment, it is argued, has produced changes in the production systems and in the income distribution and “*if present trends continue unchecked the greatest threat we face is instability arising from growing inequalities*” (ILO 1999, p.5).

Therefore an economic re-organization is needed and this can't exclude and indeed can be pointed on the central importance of work and workers, because “*a global economy without a sound social pillar will lack stability and political credibility*” (ILO 1999, p.6).

This first reflection on *decent work* carries the idea that for countries at every level of development focusing on growth is not enough, it is important to point to *inclusive* growth, which should be centred on the issue of creating good jobs, in order to offer to every human being a sufficient, valuable and equal opportunity to access and perform in the labour market, because it is still through work that a large part of the peoples can achieve a decent livelihood, a meaningful life and an adequate social recognition. “*Work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development*” (ILO, 2006, p.1)

Getting a job, to be a wage or a self-employee in the formal sector, is the basic key to enter capitalistic society for who doesn't live on returns on capital investments or land revenue. Who doesn't fit in as a worker, because of a mis-overlapping of demand and supply of labour, finds problems to define him/herself in terms of relation to society. Some find a solution in recognized familial relationships, others live an identity problem or at least a situation of poverty. Augmenting employment opportunities is then one of the four aspects that are proposed in the first definition of *decent work*⁵.

³ The Declaration of Philadelphia was adopted in 1919, as an annex of the Constitutional Chart of ILO, it contains aims and objectives of the agency.

⁴ Mr. Juan Somavia, elected on 23 March 1998, still in charge now for his third mandate.

⁵ One of the most heavy critiques to *decent work* is that it refers better to industrialised countries, so that countries which are more developed in a capitalistic way may seem to have more *decent work* than others where people still have

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Another is ensuring fundamental rights at work. Once a person has entered the capitalistic society he/she could still be far from wellness due to a lack of respect in his/her working condition. ILO⁶ has recognized this four infeasible rights: freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining, elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour, effective abolition of child labour, elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.

So the ideal situation is to freely choose a job, once reached the appropriate age and despite every personal peculiarity, and regulate working duties and rights in association with a freely chosen group of interests which holds effective negotiating power. If an employed person doesn't meet this conditions while working in his/her everyday life, *decent work* is not reached. In this case, aside from laws, more significant is the level of concrete experience of this rights. Or, even in the case where laws are insufficient, more strongly it can be sad that "*the evaluative framework begins with acknowledging certain basic rights, whether or not they are legislated, as being a part of a decent society*" (Sen, 2000, p.122)

A third characteristic of *decent work* in its first definition is the strengthening of social protection. Welfare state goals are: prevent poverty, avoid the falling of income levels during crisis, ensure access to health care and social services. A basic level of shelter is assured to every citizen, but further rights are often linked to the condition of worker, this is also a way to satisfy the issue of the financial sustainability of provisions, so it is crucial to enable every citizen to be always redirected to a working condition and protected when some kind of personal or social problem forbids it. "*That protection against vulnerability and contingency is, to a great extent, conditional on the working of democratic participation and the operation of political incentives*" (Sen, 2000, p.125). Moreover, a side effect of social security is that it enables citizens and workers to smoothly adjust themselves to social and economic changes, preserving society from violent reactions.

The last of four aspects of *decent work* in its first definition is social dialogue. This was already mentioned amongst the fundamental rights at work. Strengthening industrial relations is a way to foster social cohesion and build, through mutual consensus of social partners, the production systems that characterize a society. The model recommended by ILO is that of tripartite consultation in which actors are: employers' organizations, workers' organizations and government. The first two are groups that defend a private collective interest, often they are in open conflict and negotiating is actually the activity of trying to reach a shared solution that is the result of the respective economic and social power. Government is the superior force that represents the interests of the entire economic and social system and should delimitate the field and show the direction in which the negotiation can take place.

It is recalled (Ghai, 2002, p.9) that critiques have been raised to the universal validity of *decent work* concept, because the perceived approach was the one based on the employer-employee model and so it seems better applicable to market industrial countries, "*but these aspects relate to mechanism and instruments for the attainment of decent work objectives. When it comes to the objectives themselves, it can plausibly be argued that decent work is indeed a universal aspiration*" (Ghai, 2002, p.9)

informal non-market economic relationships, which are not always characterized by bad working conditions, but for example they can be based on barter, gift or other forms of reciprocity, and people here don't have the difficulties recalled. As an example it can be looked -even in western societies- at those experiments of "local exchange systems", e.g. the time bank, where people produce and exchange services and goods on the basis of time they have used to realize them, so *de facto* this is a productive situation which can create good conditions of "work", but it can not be called so because its output is not counted among production in the GDP. This kind of problems arise everywhere there is a non-market relationship that concerns production and exchange of services and goods. In this cases, as this production is not taken into account by the capitalist way of interpreting value, just as well the working conditions are not considerate as so. For the aim of this dissertation, which is to adapt a United Nation concept to an industrialized country, this observation doesn't have an essential quantitative relevance, and it can be assumed that in Italy all economic relationships outside formal economy are characterized as perpetrating indecent working conditions.

⁶ Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, ILO, June 1998.

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Even if there is no unique way in interpreting its definition, the innovative power of *decent work* is that it forces to take into account simultaneously more than one aspect of work. This produce a more realistic and complete drawing of working population's conditions and encourages to understand and exploit synergies and handle trade-offs between *decent work* components, “*a distinguish feature of the approach is that it situates conditions of work and employment within a broader economic, political and social framework*” (Sen, 2000, p.125)

The proposals that have been given in this decade by scholars on how to measure *decent work* basically are of two kinds: some think that a dashboard of chosen indicators, both quantitative and qualitative, can capture its different dimensions, and then eventually a detailed description of the country can be given; others have tried to find a proxy number, that could be used to precisely rank a country, individuate paths and make comparisons over time and space.

Debate is lively and still hasn't come to an end, several valid instruments can be used jointly, anyway “*the exchange on definition and measurement of decent work*⁷ showed that we do need a way of counting how many women and men have a job/work that is decent” (Pursey, 2012)

A question raised (Ghai, 2002) is whether it is possible to prioritize the components of *decent work*. This involves the existence of relationships among them (synergies or trade-offs) on which there is no certainty. This author finds it convenient to regroup the four suggested components into two: the ones which are determined mostly by the level of economic development (employment and social security) and the others which are more a matter of legislation and administration (workers' rights and social dialogue). Not only the relationship between the four components are terrain of debate, but it can also be said that “*the question of priorities must depend upon societal values, socio-economic institutions and levels of prosperity and wealth*” (Ghai, 2002, p.3)

To this end, three models of *decent work* are recognized in the world: classical, transition and development. This three economic structures are individuated on the basis of differences and similarities about: per capita income, predominant sector of the economy and employment status of the labour force (wage-employees, self-employed and other kind e.g. family members), social security expenditure.

The classical model is characterized by: high per capita income, high share of the labour force in wage employment, high social security expenditure as a proportion of GDP. All countries that are comprises in this group⁸ present a share of wage employees from 70% to 90% on the totality of workers, the service sector employs between 60% and 80% of the labour force, the other relevant sector is industry and agriculture is residual (less than 5%). The social security expenditure varies from 25% to 33%. In this countries extreme destitution is absent, relative poverty (as the percentage of people having incomes below the half of the national median income) varies from 5% to 22%.

The transition model is characterized by: middle income per capita, high proportion of labour force in wage-employment, high government expenditure. Countries included in this group⁹ are the ones coming from a centrally planned economy and moving towards a market economy.

The third model, the developing, gathers countries¹⁰ with less homogeneous characteristics, but anyway there can be traced those: middle and low income per capita, the larger part of workers are employed in agriculture (up to 80% of labour force), the share of the labour force in wage-employment is low in low income countries (less then 15%) and higher in middle income countries (around 60-70%). The informal sector is here a lot more relevant then in other groups. The social expenditure is less than 15%.

Ghai continues his analysis proposing a schedule to analyse *decent work* (see Tab.1.1 below)

⁷ E-Discussion: *Recovering from the crisis by advancing decent work*, 8-17 February 2012, <https://one.unteamworks.org/node/190842>

⁸ Among them are mentioned: USA, Norway, Japan, Denmark, France, Australia, Netherlands, UK, Ireland, New Zealand, Spain, Portugal

⁹ Among them are mentioned: Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Latvia

¹⁰ Among them are mentioned: South Korea, Chile, Malaysia, Mauritius, Mexico, Botswana, Brazil, Costa Rica, Indonesia, Egypt, Sri Lanka, India, Kenya, Ethiopia.

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Tab.1.1 Ghai's interpretation of decent work in 2002

DW aspects	indicators	variables
employment	employment opportunities	labour force participation rate
		employment-to-population ratio
		unemployment rate
	remuneration	workers earning an income less than half of the national median wage
		absolute poverty: person earning less than \$14,40 per day
	working conditions	accidents and deaths at work in relation to the employed population
fundamental rights at work	forced and child labour	qualitative indicators based on studies
		child 10-14 economically active
		non-enrolment in secondary school
	discrimination at work	female labour force participation rate
		female employment-to-population ratio
		female unemployment rate
		difference in earnings between sexes
		distribution of skilled jobs per sexes
		earned income share indicator
	freedom of association	ratification ILO Convention N°87 and 98
		N° violation to trade union rights
		index of civil rights (by Freedom House)
		union density
social protection		public expenditure on social security
		coverage of workers from contingencies
social dialogue	collective bargaining	ratification ILO Convention N°87 and 98
		coverage rate of collective bargaining
	economic democracy	descriptive studies
	participation at national level	descriptive studies

Indicators, he argues, are used to measure the extent to which an objective has been achieved, make comparisons over time and space, and above all they are useful to test hypothesis on the nature of relationships among different components of *decent work*. “*there is rarely a unique measure of the desired outcome, and a combination of several indicators will probably give a more accurate measure of a specified objective*” (Ghai, 2002, p.10). The proposed indicators are both quantitative and qualitative, arranged following the first ILO suggestion of four components. The final task of this analysis is so far just to describe a country’s situation in terms of *decent work* condition, the construction of a unique index is theoretically possible but problematical because it “*raises questions of the weight to be given to different indicators and also the formula to be used for combining qualitative and quantitative indicators*” (Ghai, 2002, p.10) Another problem is the data availability and its comparability over time and space.

Anyway, an early attempt to build an index valid within industrialized countries is done by Ghai in the same discussion paper, with the collaboration of Yoshika Hirata (see Tab.1.2 and Tab.A1.1-7)

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Tab.1.2 Decent Work in industrial countries, Ghai 2002.	
DW in industrial countries	variables
rights at work: gender discrimination	female labour force participation rate
	female unemployment rate
	occupational segregation by sex
employment	labour force participation rate
	unemployment rate
	gini coefficient on income distribution
social protection	public social expenditure %GDP
social dialogue	union density
economic performance	average GDP growth per capita
	average inflation rate

To compose this index only quantitative data are taken, and, among all, only the ones available for all of the countries involved¹¹ are considered. All variables have the same weight when averaged. The aim of the procedure is to measure the relative performance of *decent work* in industrial countries in the decade 1990s, in order to rank (put in order from the best to the worst) countries by their performance in every of the four *decent work* components and also in their overall situation including economic performance. It follows that it is possible to draw typical profiles of *decent work* and so divide countries in groups

with distinctive features.

Ghai individuates four *decent work* profiles for industrial countries¹².

The Nordic profile (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) performs well on every field with the exception of the employment rate.

The Anglo-Saxon model (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States) has a low ranking on income distribution and social protection, but a good one in gender disparities and labour force participation.

The Continental profile (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Switzerland) has bad marks in: gender disparities, labour force participation, unemployment rate; it has a middle/good ranking on: income distribution and social dialogue, social protection.

The Industrializing profile (Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Spain) has bad rankings on all aspects.

A proposal (Anker et al. 2002) which had great acknowledgment¹³ not only in the theoretical debate but also in the recent elaboration of the *Decent Work Country Profiles*¹⁴ identifies 11 major aspects of *decent work*, listed in the following chart (Tab.1.3) with their pertinent indicators, for a total of 44 recommended variables, two¹⁵ of which, both concerning working time, are proposed in more than one aspect.

¹¹ 22 OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States.

¹² Only Japan is excluded from this division because it presents characteristics non reproachable to any of the groups.

¹³ It is the struc

¹⁴ Six pilot countries studies have been realized between 2009 and 2012: Austria, Azerbaijan, Brazil, Indonesia, Tanzania, Ukraine.

¹⁵ *Excessive hours of work* and *time-related underemployment rate*

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Tab.1.3 Decent Work Measure, Anker et al. 2002.	
DW aspects	Indicators
employment opportunities	Labour force participation rate
	Employment-to-population ratio
	Unemployment rate
	Youth unemployment rate
	Time-related unemployment rate
	Share of wage in non-agricultural employment
	Female share of non-agricultural wage employment
unacceptable work	Children not in school by employment status
	Children in wage employment or self-employment activity rate
adequate earnings and productive work	Inadequate pay rate (percent of employed below half of the median or an absolute minimum)
	Average earnings in selected occupations
	Excessive hours of work
	Time-related underemployment rate
	Employees with recent job training
decent hours	Excessive hours of work
	Time-related unemployment rate
	Atypical or asocial working hours
stability and security of work	Tenure less than one year
	Temporary work
combining work and family life	Employment rate women with children under compulsory school age
	Excessive hours of work
fair treatment in employment	Occupational segregation by sex
	Female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations
	Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment
	Female/male wage or earning ratio per selected occupations
	Female/male ratios or differences for other indicators
safe work environment	Fatal injury rate
	Labour inspectors
	Occupational injury insurance coverage
	Excessive hours of work
social protection	Public social security expenditure
	Public expenditure on needs-based cash income support
	Beneficiaries of cash income support
	Share of population over 65 years benefiting from a pension
	Share of economically active population contributing to a pension fund
	Average monthly pension
	Occupational injury insurance coverage
social dialogue and workplace relations	Union density rate
	Collective wage bargaining coverage rate
	Strikes and lockouts
economic and social context for decent work	Output per employed person
	Growth of output per employed person
	Inflation
	Education of adult population
	Composition of employment by economic sector
	Income inequality
	Poverty
	Informal economy employment

“Decent work is a broad concept, with many dimensions” explain these authors “we need to have a clear view of where the priorities lie” (Anker et al., 2002, p. IV). They warn about the possible confusion between what is to be measured and what is more easily measurable, because the main practical problem that arise when an index is wanted is the actual availability and comparability of data. An essential aim, while measuring *decent work* with statistical indicators, is to understand

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relationships among them (their positive or negative mutual impact) and eventually the relation between *decent work*, poverty and growth. The fundamental issue, in their opinion, is to measure progress towards *decent work* and understand how *decent work* paths outline through countries, so to use this information to build up policies which can drive countries towards *decent work*.

The basic elements of *decent work* are universal, they affirm, although the relative importance of every specific aspect varies among countries and persons. It is a fundamental dimension of the quality of life since work is a major part in a person's lifetime. Not only it is quantitatively significant, but also meaningful in terms of social integration and self-esteem, "*every person (...) has a notion of what decency at work stands for*" (Anker et al., 2002, p.1)

From the definition of 1999 they reckon to extract directly six dimensions. First, a person must have the possibility to get a job, so it is of a central importance exploring the employment opportunities that a country offers. Second, work should be freely chosen, it is essential to eliminate child and bonded labour, strongly asserting that certain scopes of work are not acceptable. Third, because work is the main source of a decent livelihood, it must be productive, in the sense that it has to give to the worker a fair wage and also in the sense that it has to concur to the developing of a country and to the sharpening of its competitiveness. Fourth, among the effective condition of work crucial importance have equity among workers: not only an absence of discrimination is required, but also it should permit an even balance between work and family life. Fifth, the safeguard from illness and poverty is a central aspect of liberating the worker from insecurity of contingencies. Sixth, workers should be treated with respect at work, they should be free to voice their ideas and somehow participate to production matters. In addition, to analyse the economic situation of the country is a way to, on the one hand, contextualize *decent work* expectations and, on the other hand, see how *decent work* reached objectives enhance labour market performances and economic growth.

The indicators chosen satisfy those criteria: conceptual relevance, easy communication and interpretation, availability of data for a range of countries from the three groups (developing, transition and industrialized), reasonable level of international comparability.

The contribution that results from the application of this indicators set is a description of a country that gives well the idea of multiplicity that *decent work* contains. The authors affirm that it is not yet possible to construct an index without the availability of micro data for all of the indicators, though it is possible to pick from the list and build partial indexes, coping with "*subjective judgment*" (Anker et al., 2002, p.6) required to weight different indicators, choose a methodology to aggregate them and coherently interpreting the meaning of this. "*Patterns of quality of work emerge at the individual level*" (Ritter, 2005, p.1) is confirmed also by other scholars, links between two characteristics of decent work can only be hypothesize, for example it is unknown if workers with low pay are the same who suffer from unsafe working environment, "*micro data make it possible to establish linkages between measured characteristics of work and normative outcomes*" (Ritter, 2005, p.1)

If *decent work* is the recommended and desired level of a set of chosen indicators, some authors (Bescond et al., 2003) have looked at the other side of the problem and they have worked on the measure of the *decent work deficit*.

Six dimensions of *decent work* they reckon are held in its original definition (the same that were already detected previously from Anker's team): the first two are linked to the availability and acceptability of work, the other four are more strictly related to the decency of working conditions.

The possible *decent work deficits* pinpointed are seven: low hourly pay, excessive hours of work, unemployment, youth unemployment, children not enrolled at school, gender gap in labour force participation, elders not taking advantage of welfare income provisions.

Population older then 10 years is divided into below working age (from 10 to 14) and working age (15 and more). This second group is divided into economically active population (labour force) and

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not labour force. Labour force is divided between employed and unemployed. Non labour force is divided into younger than 65 years old and over 65.

From the employed group are taken the first two indicators:

- 1) low hourly pay
- 2) excessive hours of work (for economic or involuntary reasons)

From the group of the unemployed are taken the third and the fifth indicators:

- 3) unemployment
- 5) youth unemployment

In the group of population below working age it is legible the fourth indicator:

- 4) children not enrolled at school

In the active population group, from the difference between male and female labour force participation rates it comes the sixth indicator:

- 6) gender gap in labour force

The last indicator is taken from the group of the over 65 among non labour force:

- 7) over 65 without a pension

Data needed to compile this *decent work deficit* schedule are available from labour force surveys: this relative easiness¹⁶ gives the proposal a good level of coherence among indicators and the possibility of international comparisons.

“The best basis for comparison among workers is clearly hourly earnings” (Bescond et al., 2003, p.183). This team resumes the definition of “adequate pay” proposed by the Anker’s group: they agree that taking the half of the median of wage distribution as a point of reference permits to identify the relative –not the absolute- position of a worker in the distribution. As a matter of fact this *“is meant to accommodate differing national norms regarding the “decency” of pay as well as differences in hours of work (...) in each country”* (Bescond et al., 2003, p.182) So theoretically the same hourly pay can be judged decent in a country while indecent in another, depending on the general socio-economic situation influenced by law, production practices, values, levels of inflation etc. Absolute values are anyway considered meaningful when the half of the median is lower than an absolute minimum, in this case the absolute minimum replaces the half of the median as a point of discrimination. The absolute minimum proposed is 0,65\$ (US) and it applies to all countries. It is calculated as the hourly earning needed to support the worker and at least another person above the poverty line of 2\$ (US) per day¹⁷. The calculation is done considering a full-time year-round worker, who works 8 hours per day, 6 day a week, 50 weeks per year. The authors suggest that alternatively it can be considered a threshold based on the national poverty line or on the cost of the vital amount of nourishment basket.

“Formulating the indicator in terms of a percentage of the median makes it independent of national currencies and greatly facilitates international comparison. The choice of 50 per cent of the median has the virtue of simplicity, but it is also consistent with empirical results showing that minimum wages established through democratic process are often close to half the median wage” (Bescond et al., 2003, p.183)

It seems that this methodology can disguise situations of doubtful interpretation: the numerical distribution of hourly pay can be -regardless or not of the democratic level of the country- more a *de facto* situation than a desired one. They furthermore affirm *“it would also be useful to monitor (...) the real value of the earnings of workers in the lowest pay bracket”* (Bescond et al., 2003, p.183).

The indicator of excessive hours of work, as it was in Anker’s proposal, measures at once several aspects of *decent work*. A worker should not¹⁸ work more than 48 hours per week. This is valid for

¹⁶ Labour force surveys among countries are standardized to a significant extent, still it is always necessary to check if definitions of every dimension overlap (for example the possible retirement age, which could vary by law, bear on the universe of active population), how often survey is held (annually, quarterly, monthly) and how comprehensive is the sample.

¹⁷ Threshold set by the World Bank and the United Nations

¹⁸ ILO Convention 1919 No.1

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all kind of jobs and if a worker holds more than one job it refers to the sum of the two. Of course the information here needed is the effective amount of worked hours (weekly or monthly) and not the legal or contractual ones. It is specified by the authors that a *decent work* deficit is detected only when the excessive amount of worked hours is due to “*economic or involuntary reasons*” (Bescond et al., 2003, p.187), because, in their opinion, it is not an abuse when a worker autonomously and voluntarily decide, for his/her personal reasons regarding passion or ambition, to work an enormous amount of hours, although they have found that none of the labour survey they have consulted¹⁹ inquired about workers’ reasons to overwork. In their analysis over countries emerges that the threshold of the 48 hours per week is frequently and largely surpassed in developing countries, less in industrialized countries, transition countries hold intermediate rates. Self-employed tend to work more (or to overestimate their working time) than employees.

Unemployment, the researchers argue, is considered one of the most important indicator of labour market, but, they underline, it has different interpretations on the basis on how it is calculated (if the number of people actively seeking a job is divided by the entire population or by the labour force) and it is also influenced by the existence and thickness of social income provisions. In a way unemployment is a luxury that is unaffordable for who is struggling for survival in a country with no welfare state at all. In this situation it is more reasonable to imagine that a person would exit the labour market and eke out a living in the informal sector. They also notice that unemployment affect mostly the wage-employees, rather than the self-employed, so it could be meaningful, especially in countries whit a large amount of self-employees, to compare the number of the unemployed to the number of the wage-employee rather than to the total amount of the working population, being this ones “*the population at risk*” (Bescond et al., 2003, p.191). The index suggested is can be called “*wage-employment-specific rate of unemployment*”. The study reveals that there is a linear relationship between the wage-employment-specific rate and the conventional unemployment rate, what this calculation permits to esteem is the gap between the two rates. From the analysis of this authors it comes out that developing countries present a wide gap between the two, even one (wage-employment-specific) doubles the other; gap is thinner in industrialized countries, middle values in transition ones.

Highlighting moreover youth unemployment, which regards people aged 15-24, is reckoned meaningful because it shows everywhere in the world noticeably high marks in comparison with the unemployment rate of total population.

Measures of children in a working condition are not often available, the proxy chosen is the number of children not enrolled in a national educational programme. The range of age is 10-14 because of countries comparability purposes. The belief²⁰ is that the number of working children and children-not-in-school offset each other in the long term.

The division by sexes of the labour force (in every part of the world is recorded a major participation of men to labour markets) is considered significant because it is a signal of how much of the economy of a nation is integrated in the formal sector: often care, familial duties and little households matters are managed, for a series of cultural and social reasons, by women. This kind of activities are not comprises in the formal economies, so who is involved in such daily life is not counted as a worker, and doesn’t get all of the social freedoms and rights that all workers should have, but remain in the dominion of familial relationships.

“*Decent work should (...) entitle a worker to an income after she/he exits the labour market*” (Bescond et al., 2003, p.203) Looking at the part of the population aged over 65, it should be possible to understand reasons why a person should go on working or he/she would rather choose to exit the labour market. To continue working can be a free choice or a consequence of a lack of sufficient social provisions for elders. Data on pensions entitlements can show if retirement is a fully available possibility.

¹⁹ Labour surveys of 43 countries, source Eurostat.

²⁰ This was argued in ILO, 2002. *Every child counts: new global estimates of child labour*. Geneva, ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour.

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The basic idea of this proposal is that *decent work*, being a multi-faceted concept, changes its core depending on who is facing it: who hasn't entered the labour market needs to find a way in, who is unemployed needs to get a job, who has a job needs an adequate pay and fair working hours, who is too young shouldn't work at all, who is old and has worked needs to have recognized a pension.

A way to understand this proposal is affirming that *decent work* can be a detector of a fair relationship between a person and the formal economic production system together with the society that holds and generates it.

The seven proposed indicators of possible deficits of *decent work* are additive, if necessary they could be weighted with the relative population share. There can be problems in finding data for all of the seven indicators: the inescapable ones are low hourly pay and excessive hours of work and for each country are needed at least four indicators. Indicators are added up with equal weight by applying the trimmed mean method: the two extreme values are excluded. This is done to be sure to catch the central tendency of a country, not considering outlier indicators because they are likely to have been badly measured. The resulting index of *decent work* of the country is an average score referring to a specific point in time. The best performer is the country that has the lowest score, as a matter of fact it shows the average percentage of people having a *decent work* deficit²¹.

Considerations that authors point out on results of their essay are: with the exception of youth unemployment all *decent work* possible deficits decrease as economy grows, the best performers are all centre-north European countries. As a little remark to the universal validity of this index the researchers say "*the indicators selected to measure decent work are partial: in a sense, they are mostly geared to employee-type work relations*" (Bescond et al., 2003, p.208)

"In thinking about indicators, it is important to insist that decent work as a concept must be firmly located in the labour market" (Godfrey, 2003, p.7), "*the concept is fundamentally labour-ist in nature*" (Saith, 2004, .4). *Decent work* dimensions that have formerly²² been derived from its first definition are not mutually pursuable, argues Godfrey, there are trade-offs and complementarities between them. This author highlights that full employment is often an overestimated indicator: it cannot be the major objective by itself, but only if pursued jointly with the improvement of working conditions, fairness of income distribution, and even the right to choose whether to work or not. In fact whatever kind of job is accepted by somebody who is obliged to by reason of poverty, this makes the employment rate grow, but it can't be interpreted as an augmentation of the decency of work.

Furthermore, work should be meaningful to workers, "*meaningful work should be freely chosen, but also satisfying and compatible with prevailing culture and norms*" (Godfrey, 2003, p.2). During the past century mass production has been characterized by a Fordist organization of labour, where the specialized worker is an assembler and more than the content of his/her daily activity is the context that have been improvable in terms of working conditions (pauses, wages, trade unions, etc.). Nowadays big firms around the world still organize their production in this way, but new forms of organization²³ are arising in industrialized countries. In the service sector of knowledge society higher productivity is obtained from a more flexible worker, a "knowledge worker", who is more creative, responsible, problem solver, highly literate. So in this new case the activities which work consist of are much more interesting and varied, but other context working conditions are doubtful decent, "*a shift towards more meaningful and more satisfying work (...) is accompanied by a big fall in demand for unskilled workers, declining union membership, an increase in precarious and "atypical" forms of work, and in some countries stagnant or falling real wages*" (Godfrey, 2003, p.3). Employers have divided their workers into two groups: the core workers and the peripherals. Workers in the first category can aspire to good and very good working conditions because they perform the important part of the production and are valuable for the firm, while people in the

²¹ See Tab.A1.9

²² The author refers to the six dimensions that were firstly enumerated in Anker et al., 2002.

²³ For example the so called *total quality management* (TQM)

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second one can't because they fulfil just marginal tasks and so they are highly substitutable. The promotion of *decent work* is a difficult task because of the uncertainty of priorities and because of the unclear net of interdependences between aspects: distortionists believe that sets of laws such as minimum wage or employment security regulations discourage hiring and provoke the effects explained in the insider-outsider theory²⁴. Minimum wages set the level above the market clearing point, so unemployment cannot disappear. Moreover, if this regulations can't be extended to the whole labour market raises a segmentation and in the long term employment in the regulated market decreases. At the same time a high cost of labour is an incentive for employers to choose capital-intensive techniques, with the consequent narrowing of labour demand. On the other hand, institutionalists think that there is a positive relationship between high wages and labour productivity²⁵, because they produce more commitment, less absenteeism, lower turnover and support workers to accept organizational changes, so in the long run they can also make employment rise. Empirical evidence is not strongly confirming one or the other approach. "*While these potential trade-offs should be borne in mind, a more hopeful message is that the emphasis should always be on increasing productivity, the key to convert a zero-sum into a positive-sum game*" (Godfrey, 2003, p.5). As a matter of fact, in his opinion, "*increasing productivity is at the centre of a decent work strategy*" (Godfrey, 2003, p.13), because, holding in mind that a change in labour demand can also produce a change in wages and/or in other conditions of work, generally speaking an augmentation of productivity firstly makes the labour demand grow, and this changes the size of employment as a whole in the considered labour market, as a sign of a good competitive capacity of the national industries and as an element of health of a labour market. Of course, it is important to enable the disadvantaged workers of an economy to take advantages of any expansion of the labour demand, improving and updating their skills in the same direction where the labour demand seems to be more likely to broaden.

Given that²⁶ every theoretical framework on relationships between all of those elements is not incontrovertible, "*it is less confusing to locate the employment problem firmly in the labour market and to subject the poverty problem to separate analysis.*"²⁷ (Godfrey, 2003, p.8). Godfrey chooses then to fix his attention only to wage-employment, because on this kind of work more precise and direct data are available and even if it represents only a part of the total employment (and even a small one in developing countries). Other basic labour market indicators -such as employment and unemployment rates, labour force participation, employment-to-population ratio, time-related underemployment rate- do not explain directly the labour market conditions they are extracted from. For the same value of an indicator there can be different reasons, while data on wage-employment are more typifying. Moreover, "*as a guide to changes in the labour market as a whole, wage employment is a better indicator*" (Godfrey, 2003, p.8). A primary (full time) and a secondary (part-time and temporary) sector are findable within wage-employment. It would be meaningful to know if a part time is chosen or involuntary, but available statistics hardly give informations on this which would be a way to distinguish between a decent from an indecent condition. Godfrey accuse the scarcity of detailed informations from labour surveys around the world about remuneration²⁸ and agrees with Anker's team proposal to calculate the percentage of employed earning a sum below

²⁴ The insider-outsider theory was developed by A. Lindbeck and D. Snower. They sustain that workers who are already recruited exploit a privileged position that workers still seeking a job don't have. The employer sustains hiring, firing and training costs, which he/she would like to pay as less often as possible. The existence of labour turnover costs nullifies wage underbidding for the thickness of this costs themselves. What follows is the existence of a dual labour market, where outsiders have worst working possibilities than insiders.

²⁵ efficiency wages argument

²⁶ On the contrary, the Europe 2020 strategy that has the aim that EU becomes a "*smart, sustainable and inclusive economy*" is based on clear causal hypothesis and calls this three features "*mutually reinforcing priorities*" that will help member states to rise up employment, productivity and social cohesion.

²⁷ Just at the opposite, ILO affirms "*decent work is the best route out of poverty. Employment creation and poverty reduction are inextricably linked*" (ILO, 2006, p.2)

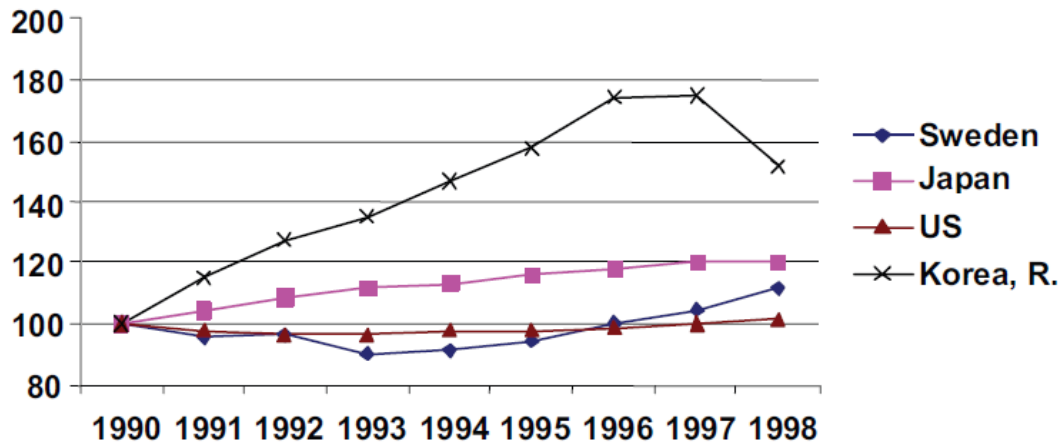
²⁸ In Italy ISTAT produces a monthly index on contractual wages

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half of the median of wages, and average earning in selected occupations. Lastly, for further analysis every indicator should be disaggregated by gender, age, education level.

The “index of labour morale” (Godfrey, 2003) is intended to cover only the employment aspects of decent work, it is projected to satisfy two features: easy to understand, based on available data. The index of labour morale multiply and index of real wages by the percentage of wage-employment on employment. Trends in real wages show how is wage labour compensation, but doesn’t show how difficult it is to get a wage-employment (and doesn’t either give informations on other non-wage working conditions). The percentage of existing jobs which are wage-employees’ reports how significant is this slice of labour market.

Fig.1,2. Index of labour morale, Godfrey, 2003.



In Godfrey’s example of application of his proposed index, 1990 is the base year, hourly direct pay in US \$ of manufacturing workers is multiply by wage-employment proportion²⁹.

Statistical indicators alone are insufficient to monitor progress towards decent work (ILO, 2008) they need to be complemented with a legal framework of the country analysed. Unfortunately “*it is unreasonable to expect aggregation of qualitative and quantitative indicators*” (ILO, 2008, p.4). The validity of the construction of an index is mostly intended for countries comparison, while “*monitoring progress towards decent work at the country level should not be linked to an index*” (ILO, 2008, p.17). Two approaches have been used to arrange informations about *decent work*: the first regroups them under the four strategic objectives of *decent work* definition, the other organizes data under substantive features of *decent work*. As an example of this second practice, the Anker’s 2002 team proposal is reconsidered by ILO which divides that list of indicators into main and additional³⁰ and compares them to indicators of Millennium Development Goals concerning work³¹. “*The revisited framework will then be used to compile decent work country profiles*”³² (ILO, 2008, p.33).

“*In the broad concept of decent work the main focus is on work per se, not necessarily on employment*” (Saith, 2004, p.V). Attentions and actions of the international community have often been too much shaped, Saith argues (2004), on to the “*income-poverty*” and the “*employment-income*” approach, that means actions of poverty eradication were meant to take poor up the poverty line and measures of unemployment elimination aimed to give everybody a job, “*the poverty line approach implicitly assumes that money can buy health, education and other services at any time in*

²⁹ A part of the calculation reported in his papers is: USA 1998 (14,72\$) x (88%) = 12,95

³⁰ See Tab.A1,13

³¹ See note 2

³² See note 14

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any place” (Saith, 2004, p.25). This author welcomes the conception of *decent work* because he sees in it a possibility to overcome a too much volumetric worldview “*much, of course, depends on the conceptual refinement and skilful use of the notion, without which it is likely to lapse into a buzz world*” (Saith, 2004, p.4).

“*Working to live or living to work?*” smartly asks himself and the others Freeman (2002), the LTW (live-to-work) vision, “a workaholic paradise”, is where every valuable activity is performed in the market, everyone works, “*as a result, consumption involves buying market goods rather than leisure*” (Freeman, 2002, p.155), social benefits are linked to the status of worker, inequality and/or high incentives are deterrents of hazard and create availability for long working hours. On the contrary, in WTL (work-to-live) vision “*consumption spending takes the form of time more than of goods*” (Freeman, 2002, p.156), there is unemployment but social state is strong and people are cared after. Every of the two visions have desirable and undesirable extremes, in Freeman’s burlesque representation are the USA and Europe to be compared, in both places hourly productivity wage is similar, the one which will turn out to be the better place to live will be determined on their respective performance in periods of crisis.

A more institutional call comes from Juan Somavia, the Director-General of ILO who announces “*it is time to build a new era of social justice on a foundation of decent work*” (ILO, 2011, p.1)), which can help recover from the crisis, which is closer to citizens more than others economic issues, “*in so many ways the quality of work defines the quality of society*” (ILO, 2011, p.1)

3. The *decent work basic-relations-fairness* approach

In the previously recalled debate on *decent work* there have been proposals of large dashboards of indicators, comprehensive of the social and economic conditions of the entire economy (e.g. Anker et al. 2002) and proposals of proxy numbers, which are much more concentrated on a few selected indicators of working conditions (e.g. the index of labour morale by Godfrey 2003).

A motivation to choose one or the other approach is the identity of the subject identified as the depositary of *decent work*. The first and official definition (ILO,1999) of *decent work* refers to “*women and men*”, so, coherently, analysis enlarged to the entire economy consider any kind of relationship between a person and work as part of the *decent work* analysis.

However, other more focused analysis suggest that different interpretations are possible. Analysis that take into account only characteristics of the labour market and the system of welfare provisions linked to work suggest the idea that the subject studied is the group of population who has or had an active relationship with labour market: employed, unemployed, retired...

Furthermore, a study can be focused on working conditions, in this case is the worker to be entitled to aspire and experience *decent work*.

In this sense the *decent work basic-relations-fairness* proposal is intended to be focused on working conditions. Peculiarities of an economy and characteristics of a labour market are obviously important as fields where work is created and takes place but the aim of this interpretation of *decent work* is to investigate the individual and relational conditions of the person while working. Even if work is such an important possibility in life, that has social and personal effects also on non-working moments, still it is possible to analyse worker’s and people’s conditions separately. “*In the broad concept of decent work the main focus is on work per se*” (Saith, 2004, pag.V).

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The indicator proposed is composed of three parts.

<i>DECENT WORK</i>					
<i>BASIC PROFILE</i>		<i>RELATIONS PROFILE</i>		<i>FAIRNESS PROFILE</i>	
Working hours defect	WHD	Monetary enrichment	ME	Equal chance defect	ECD
Physical safety defect	PSD	Educational enrichment	EE	Hanging work	HW
Legality of jobs defect	LJD	Freedom to voice	FV		
Unemployment rate pressure	URP				

The first one *-basic profile-* regroups the fundamental indicators, which are characterized for being the ones more intimately linked to the daily working conditions. For these indicators it is possible to point out a chosen desired value, and the gap, whether positive or negative, between the actual and the desired value is recorded as a *decent work basic defect*. Similarities with this part of the approach can be found in Bescond et al. 2003, where the aim of the methodology is to identify the percentage (in that case the average percentage) of workers that live a decent work deficit.

The first basic physical and psychological indicator is *working hours*. The amount of personal time spent on working activities is the most important element of *decent work*. Time is a non-renewable personal resource and the opportunity cost³³ of working an hour more instead of interrupting market working activities after the working regular time -no matter how personally satisfying the job is- is doubtfully rewarded with the overtime hourly wage³⁴. In every economy it can be individuated a range for the formally accepted length of the workweek, contract types available in the economy show possibilities for people on how to share and organize work through time, both as employed and self-employed. Once a range is detected, that range is the target for this basic aspect. For Italy the right amount of working hours is identified in between 20 and 40 hours per week maximum, corresponding respectively to a part and a full time employee contract. Working more and working less than that are equally undesired. The WHD (*working hours defect*) indicator shows the percentage of the employed population working an amount of weekly hours different from the ones within the working hours range. Working too little is outside the target because of the importance of spending time at work once a person has done the choice to work. Working too little, in respect to the most frequent habit experimented in the belonging society, can prevent a worker to get involved in what is being realized in his/her productive organization, so he/she can feel excluded, detached, or he/she can lose chances to advance his/her career, and it can give the worker the perception that his/her contribution to society is of a minor importance. Working too much is unhealthy and stressful, it can sharpen the likelihood of working disease or working accidents due to hazardous concentration drops, it can interfere with the worker family and personal life.

The indicator on working hours is largely used in many other measurement proposals: Anker et al. 2002 place the indicator “excessive (and extreme) hours of work³⁵” under 4 out of 11 aspects of decent work: adequate earnings, decent hours, combining work and family life, safe work environment. Moreover they analyse the insufficient amount of working hours too with the indicator “time-related underemployment rate³⁶” which is part of three aspects of decent work: employment opportunities, adequate earnings, decent hours. So they recognize a slightly different meaning of this two opposite distances from the “normal” working hours, while in the *decent work basic-relations-fairness* proposal they are specular and eventually they are summed up to build the

³³ The *opportunity cost* is the value of the next best alternative not chosen

³⁵ *Excessive hours of work* are individuated in more than 48 per week, as the ILO Convention N.1/1919 stated, *extreme hours of work* are individuated in more than 60 per week.

³⁶ “percent of employed population working less than hours threshold, but available to work and wanting to work additional hours” (Anker et al. 2002, p. 29)

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WHD indicator. Bescond et al. 2003 also use the indication of the effective amount of worked hours, but a decent work deficit is identified only when this excess is not freely chosen for personal reason, such distinction on the basis of the reason is not done in this proposal, that means that even if freely chosen an amount of weekly worked hours superior than threshold constitutes a *working hours defect*.

Another fundamental aspect of *decent work* is that a worker should not be in personal danger while staying in his/her working environment: the second basic indicator is PSD (*physical safety defect*). Assuming that annually no more than one accident or disease can be related to the same worker, PSD is obtained summing up working accidents and working diseases and dividing all for the number of employed person. The percentage of workers involved in unsafe happenings should be nil, every percentage different from zero is a *physical safety defect*.

Ghai 2002 expresses the aspect “working conditions” of decent work only through “accidents and deaths at work in relation to the employed population”, so it is similar to the indicator proposed here, except that in the present proposal to accidents (fatal and not) are added working disease. In Anker et al. 2002 there is the indicator “fatal injury rate” among indicators of “safe work environment”.

The third basic indicator is LJD (*legality of jobs defect*), it shows the share of non regular employees on the totality of employees (regular and non regular) or the share of non regular working hours on the total amount of regular and non regular working hours.

Anker et al. 2002 introduces an indicator on “informal economy employment” under the aspect “economic and social context for decent work”, in this proposal the idea is to near this indicator amongst the basic aspects of decent work, in the belief that performing ones working activities non regularly affects every other component in a non predictable way. The target of the LJD indicator is zero: in industrialized countries should not exist non regular work³⁷.

The critique raised to many *decent work* approaches is that they were better applicable to market industrial countries, for this indicator proposed here the critique is valid, because, while it may be that in non industrialized countries good working conditions can also be find in non market productive situations, it is of a crucial importance to record non regular work in industrialized countries, which tend to concentrate in the formal sector more righteous linkages between people.

The fourth basic indicator is URP (*unemployment rate pressure*). This is meant to be a proxy of the actual freedom to change job that a worker has. Due to the importance to get the status of worker to interact within society, a worker can decide to leave a job for personal reasons only if the economic environment, in terms of employment, unemployment and jobs creation shows factual alternative possibilities. Because leaving a job for a worker actually means trying to change job, or maybe passing from the condition of employee to the one of self-employed, the target value for simplicity is no unemployment, this should indicate that a worker is free to leave his/her job without being subordinated to the hazard of unemployment. This indicator is build summing up discouraged people with unemployed workers and dividing all for labour force augmented with discouraged people.

The unemployment rate (or youth/female/wage-employment-specific unemployment rate) is taken into account from most of the proposals on *decent work* but in terms of indication on the employment opportunities (Ghai 2002, Anker et al. 2002, Bescond et al. 2003) or gender discrimination (Ghai, 2002). (riferimento disoccupazione lungo periodo)

The second part of the proposed approach –*relations profile*- regroups indicators linked to the social aspect of working. For these indicators it is not possible to identify a desired value, but here “the more is the better”³⁸. SPOSTA NOTA

³⁷ See note 5 cap.1

³⁸ It is possible to arise critiques, such as: if the *monetary enrichment* of some chosen categories of workers is too high compared to the other categories level, this can be a sign of an unfair distribution more than a sign of *decent work*

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The first indicator identified for this aspect is called ME (*monetary enrichment*). The remuneration of labour is influenced but hardly identified with its marginal productivity, on the contrary it is much more influenced by social relations³⁹, such as the bargaining power of social actors. The same job can be rewarded and perceived differently among societies. The *monetary enrichment* indicator is meant to measure the decent recognition of employees' work, the relative consensus given to a worker in monetary form. It is a concept largely endorsed in constitutional democracies that every job should give sustenance to the worker⁴⁰, so this indicator is not intended to evaluate poverty, but it is intended to measure the difference in remuneration levels between sectors and occupations and then referring to other economies to compare data on wages.

In other approaches wage informations are managed in the sense of poverty analysis, and exception is the index of labour morale (Godfrey, 2003) which multiplies hourly pay by the share of wage-employed on employees to rank countries in the belief that wage-employment is by hypothesis the closest to *decent work* conditions.

The second *relations* indicator is the *educational enrichment* (EE). It is intended to have a meaning similar to the previous indicator. The concept that every job should be meaningful is part of the frame of constitutional democracies⁴¹, but it is noticeable, especially in a *knowledge* society, that a worker gets a personal reward in being continuously educated while working: in the same time it is a gain in productivity for the working organization and a personal resource inseparable from the worker, which so gets more valuable. The indicator is the share of employed population of who had attended in the last 12 months a course in relation to his/her occupation.

The indicator here is proposed identically to the "employees with recent job training" which Anker et al. 2002 insert in the aspect called "adequate earnings and productive work".

The last indicator of this profile is *freedom to voice* (FV). For this indicator strikes (number, participation, hours) are chosen as a proxy for the freedom of pointing out worker's voice on work matters. The same proxy is chosen by Anker et al. 2002 among indicators for "social dialogue and workplace relations". Another useful proxy could be union density (as suggested by Ghai, 2002), but for some countries, including Italy, this information is harder to find.

The third aspect *-fairness profile-* collects indicators that show how people with every kind of personal characteristics other than the professional ones can equally access every job, and that show how working conditions don't fall into an obvious lack of significance. This profile is composed of two indicators, both deeply influenced by the peculiarities of the analysed labour market and society, no topic is identifiable in absolute, but the target is the absence of any findable discrimination and absurd working practice. As in the *basic profile*, this profile adopts the methodology of looking for the *decent work deficit* (as in Bescond et al. 2003). If possible, in respect to data availability, it would be meaningful to get percentages on workers experimenting the defect.

The first indicator within this aspect is called *equal chance defect* (ECD), its aim is to detect suspicious parallelisms between the distribution of jobs and other characteristics of the person different from the professional ones, such as sex, religious creed, ethnic or minority belonging or others. For example, as it will be done with the Italian case, sexual discrimination can be detected when looking at the share of women in top employee positions (such as managers, executives...).

The same indicator is proposed in *decent work* approaches under different labels "distribution of skilled jobs per sexes" or "occupational segregation by sex" (Ghai, 2002) "female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations" (Anker et al., 2002).

relations profile for a specific kind of worker. It is important to use this indicator within the context of the analysed labour market.

³⁹ The reference is to the eterodox economic literature

⁴⁰ For example, in the Italian Constitution, art. 36, 1st paragraph, it is stated that "*worker has the right to a remuneration proportionate to the quantity and quality of his/her work and in any case sufficient to ensure him/herself and his/her family a free and decent existence*"

⁴¹ Italian Constitution, art. 35, 2nd paragraph: "*(the State) cares after education and professional elevation of workers*"

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The second indicator is called *hanging work* (HW) and the meaning of it is to record the incidence of extended non productive working conditions. In the Italian case, for example, it is remarkable the existence of the institution called “*cassa integrazione*”, which doesn’t interrupt the status of worker but for some organizational for various economical reasons an enterprises is allowed to temporary (but even to an extreme extent of four years) push aside workers, who would partially or not at all work in the firm, while the contingency problem is being solved. This institution is socially precious, it is dedicated to big enterprises, the State partially stands in for the employer to fulfil the obligation to pay wages, and this contains the risk of violent social wobbles, but a part from that, the working significance of it is nil. It is intended that a worker who has decided to enrol for a job has the will to actually perform that work, rest involved and up-to-date with the production system, and that it is perceived as vexing or shaming to be prevented to work unwillingly. Similarly in other economies there can be retraced conditions inside the universe of what is recognized as work that have some disputable characteristics. The indicator has been called “*hanging work*” to give the idea of suspension.

In the other *decent work* approaches, this indications is recorded in a completely different way. While in the present approach the *hanging work* has a negative sense of interruption of the meaning of work, in other approaches (Ghai 2002, Anker et al.2002) the sense is positive, because this indication is an additive component among the public expenditure on social protection, which is one of the firstly identified objectives of decent work (which in the present proposal, as said before, is not taken into account).

Ghai 2002 raised the question if it could be possible to prioritize decent work components, and agreed with Ritter 2005 that trade-offs and synergies between them can only be explained having access to complete micro data, otherwise hypothesized.

The proposed approach ranks by hypothesis two levels in which profiles are collocated: the fundamental level is composed by the *basic profile*, which is intended as indispensable. *Relations* and *fairness profiles* come together in a subordinated level. It would later be significant to identify a minimum target for the *basic profile* to be fulfilled to get the possibility to continue analysing work through the other two profiles. The idea underneath this hypothesis is that no social remuneration can compensate awful personal *decent work defects*, and that in judging work practices the presence of wrong conditions is worst that the absence of right conditions. Furthermore this is confirming the decision on the identity of the subject to whom *decent work* refers to: the worker. Indicators chosen are analysed separately, the problem of tracing causal relations between them using statistical indicators rest unsolved, still it is possible to make plausible conjectures.

4. Decent work in Italy

4.1. Basic profile.

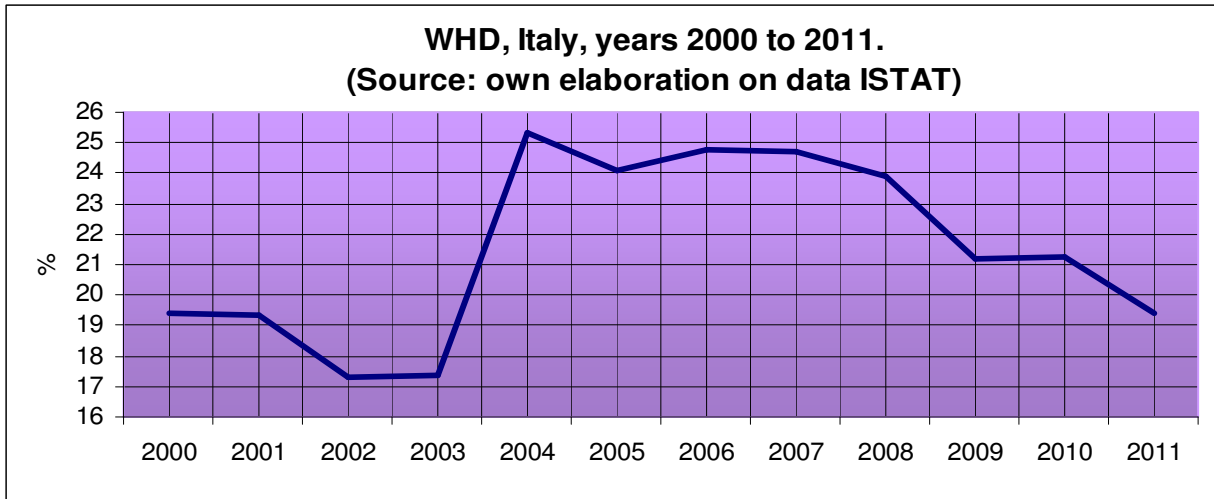
4.1.1 Working hours defect (WHD).

Working hours are considered of a right weekly amount between 20 and 40 per week. These limits have been chosen because they correspond to a full and a part time employment contract. The WHD is meant to calculate the share of employed and self-employed workers who work an incorrect weekly amount of hours, either too much or too little, so to get a percentage of workers who experience a *decent work defect* in working hours. Due to data availability⁴² the WHD is calculated at a national level for years 2004 to 2010 summing up people who work more then 40 hours with people who work between 1 and 10 hours and then dividing them all for the totality of the employed people, while for years 2000 to 2003 people working more then 40 hours are summed up with who work between 1 and 15 hours. It is to notice that the survey also reports data about people working

⁴² Source: ISTAT Labour Force Survey

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0 hours per week. This information has not been taken into this count because this group includes workers enjoying some form of social security provision (such as sick pay, maternity allowance, CIG...) and so they escape the group of interest, which is only composed by workers at work.



The national picture of the phenomenon through the years first of all shows that a *decent work defect* in the working hours aspect of decent work does exist in Italy. In recent years the lowest percentage of people living this defect, 17%, is recorded in years 2002 and 2003. It is noticeable that there is a break in data between 2003 and 2004, as a matter of fact it correspond to a change in the survey methodology⁴³. The year 2004 brings the higher percentage: in that moment one fourth of the workers were spending an incorrect amount or time per week at work (25,3%), but afterwards the overall detectable trend is descending, as was also from year 2000 to year 2003. In recent years, 2009 and 2010, the *working hours defect* concerns a little more then one fifth of the workers.

The *working hours defect* is mostly composed by the group of who works more then 40 hours: their overall percentage is in every considered year much more relevant then the one of who works too little⁴⁴: for the period 2004-2010 the percentage of people working more then 40 hours on the WHD is around 90% and the one of people working from 1 to 10 hours on WHD is around 10%⁴⁵.

Anyway it is important to include both categories in the WHD because of their comparable negative contribution on workers' lives. Working more than 40 hours per week could be a choice of employees who have the will to succeed their careers and the possibility to implement their compensations. For example⁴⁶ it can be looked at the category of managers, where, especially male managers, are highly involved in the habit of extra-working: the pick in years between 2004 and 2010 is in 2008 where 48% of male managers and 32% of female managers have worked more than 40 hours, while for both sexes the percentage of managers working less then 10 hours is constantly around 1%. Working more than 40 hours per week could also be a given situation that the employee must accept because of organizational reasons out of his/her control, or maybe a worker accepts to work more because of an insufficiency of his/her wage to satisfy basic needs of his/her family unit⁴⁷.

Blue-collar workers⁴⁸, another category in the group of employees, confirm that man are more likely then women to work over 40 hours per week, but percentages recorded in this group never

⁴³ Survey on the cross section in 2004 became continuous

⁴⁴ See appendix

⁴⁵ See Tab XXX in the appendix.

⁴⁶ See appendix

⁴⁷ Controllare disponibilità dati su motivazione straordinario

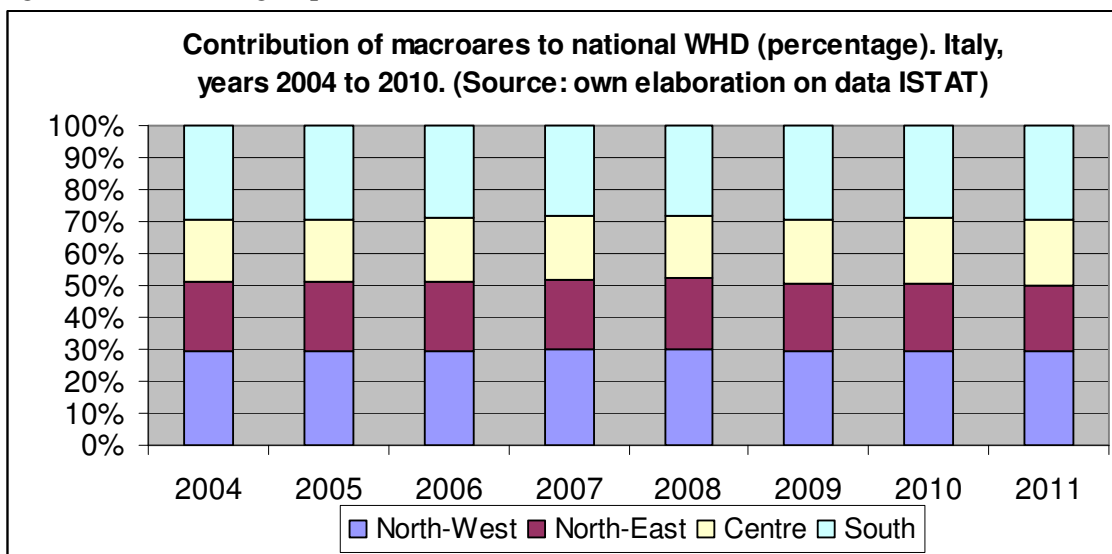
⁴⁸ See appendix

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surpass 20%. Female labourers have a higher habit of working less than 11 hours per week than men: in recent years this group has worked less than threshold at around 5%.

The group of employees in general⁴⁹ confirm that this kind of *decent work defect* is a more masculine than a feminine custom, men's percentage is around two times women's one.

Self-employed workers⁵⁰ present the highest level of *working hours defect*, the pick is for men in 2007: 53,8%. Reasons for that can be that self-employed, working for themselves, have stronger incentives to perform better and more or, more pessimistically, they are compelled to due to economic reasons. Among them, entrepreneurs⁵¹ have a strong facility to work more than threshold: records of the period 2004-2010 show that men at around 60% to 70 % and women in the order of 32% to 42% work more than 40 hours per week. While entrepreneurs working less than threshold are less than 1% among men and up to 4% among women. Professionals⁵² demonstrate the same habit of working more than 40 hours per week but with more moderate percentages for men (42-45%) and women (20-24%). Percentage of professionals working less than 11 hours per week are higher than the other group: 3% for men and 6 to 7% for women.



A WHD is recorded all around Italy and each of the four macro areas⁵³ (north-west, north-east, centre and south) contribute for more than 20% to create it (see graph. XX). Anyway, if the two northern areas are considered together it is possible to say that WDH is much a northern problem, resulting that its contribution to the national WDH is at around 50%.

Unfortunately, data from the ISTAT labour survey about the effective weekly worked hours don't have a geographical detail more specific than this. The survey works on a sample, so data are not diffused at a lower territorial level because of the hazard of meaningfulness problems.

The ISFOL PLUS survey is still based on a sample (which numerical size is comparable to the labour force survey⁵⁴) and, taking into account this methodological information, data are used to look at perceptions of good or bad organization in terms of working hours at a regional level. The survey has been realized in years 2005, 2006, 2008 and 2010. Question N° 42.2 asks the interviewed about his/her level of satisfaction in relation to his/her working hours. The person can choose between four answers: very low, low, high, very high. It is put the hypothesis that who

⁴⁹ See appendix

⁵⁰ See appendix

⁵¹ See appendix

⁵² See appendix

⁵³ See appendix

⁵⁴ Comparison between ISTAT and ISFOL PLUS methodologies: the total amount of employed of any kind considered in ISTAT survey are 22618530 and in ISFOL PLUS are 22618512. (GIAMMATTEO, M., 2009. *L'indagine campionaria Isfol-Plus: contenuti metodologici e implementazione*. Collana Studi ISFOL N°3 marzo 2009)

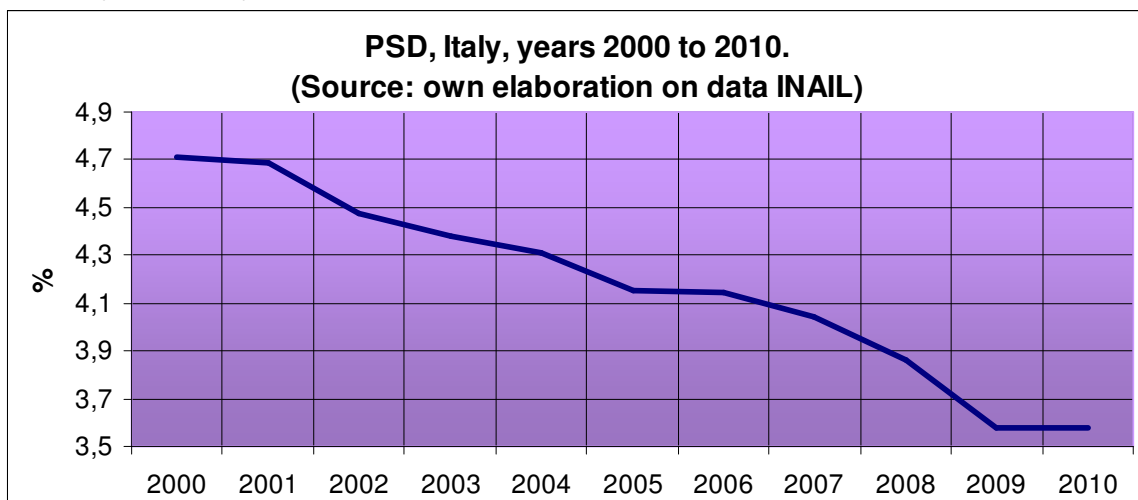
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chooses one of the two answers of non-satisfaction is included in the group of people working less than 20 hours or more than 40. Of course the same answer can be lead by other kind or reasons, either linked to the efficiency and agreeableness of the working place organization in all terms, or personal. Keeping in mind the nature of data, the percentage of people expressing non satisfaction on the total of people answering the question is calculated for every region⁵⁵.

Non satisfaction is descendant from 2005 to 2006 in every region, it regains percentage points in 2008 in several regions (except in Abruzzo, Calabria, Trentino, Veneto, and Piemonte-V.A. where the trend is still descendant), in 2010 most of the regions have lower points (with the exception of Basilicata). The overall trend is descendant. The percentage of non satisfied workers is about from one quarter to one fifth in 2005 and is around one quarter in 2010. Regional data from ISFOL PLUS survey so interpreted are not in contrast with what comes out at a national level from the labour force survey ISTAT. The best performers is Trentino, where percentage of non satisfied workers is 16% in 2005 and around 12% in other years. Worst performer are Lazio and Campania (respectively over 19% and 20% in every year).

No data referring to a smaller geographical level were found about working hours.

4.1.2 Physical safety defect (PSD).



The second basic indicator is about safety on work, the PSD indicator should record zero as the percentage of workers implicated in accidents or diseases connected to work.

PSD is calculated using data from INAIL summing up accidents and disease happened in the year and then, assuming that every worker could possibly be involved in only one accident or disease, this sum is divided for the total number of employed people. National data⁵⁶ shows that the trend is falling constantly. In 2000 less than 5% of workers have been involved in accidents or had illness from job activities, in eleven years time the trend has always been descendant and the recorded percentage is lower of about one percentage point. It is important to specify that those data refer to denounced accidents and disease, it is unknown how this picture would change if it were possible to take into the count accident and sicknesses not denounced, and, because it is possible that this refers to regular and non regular workers, the problem largely have links with the problem of legality of jobs.

Data with geographical details⁵⁷ are available from the same source.

Among regions best performers are: Campania, which values were close to 2,5% in 2000 and are in 2010 near 1,5%, Sicilia and Calabria, around 2,5% for the entire period. Worst performers are:

⁵⁵ See appendix

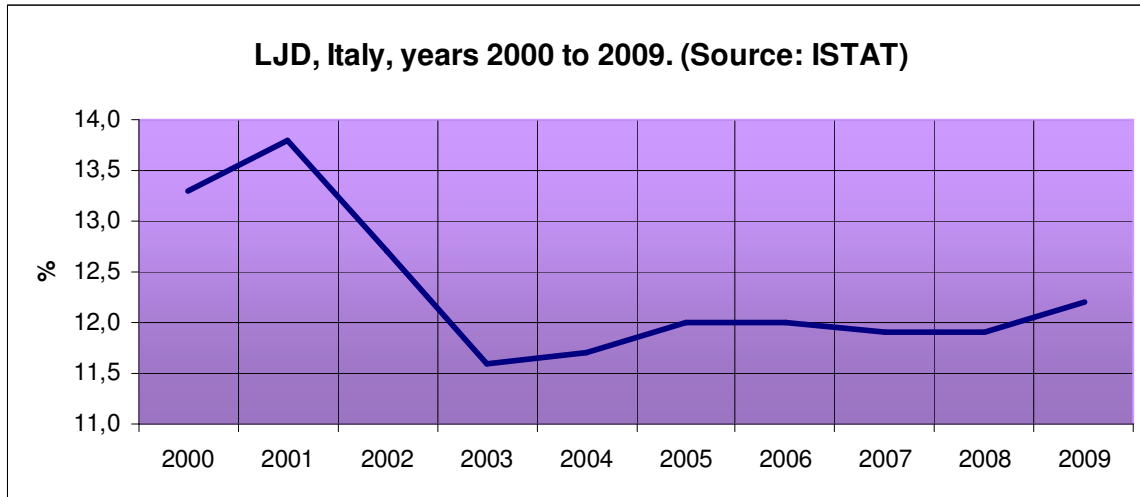
⁵⁶ Source: INAIL and ISTAT

⁵⁷ See appendix

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Emilia Romagna (around 8% in the beginning of the period to around 6% at the end), Trentino (from 7,5% to 6,5%). It seems then that northern regions bring up the value of denounced work accidents, while southern regions are either more secure or there is a lack of denunciations.

4.1.3 Legality of jobs defect (LJD).



ISTAT produces an esteem on irregular working hours in the frame of national counts, this is available up to regional detail. The institution also produces an esteem on irregular workers, but this is available only for the national level. Here it is chosen to use the information about irregular working hours, in the belief that it can be more realistic to imagine that the phenomenon of irregular working hours can concern both people having a regular job and people completely working in the irregular sector. The percentage of irregular working hours on the total amount of regular and irregular working hours is given. As it is shown in the graph. from year 2001 to year 2003 there is a fast decrease in this percentage, it correspond to the enacting of laws⁵⁸ about the procedure to regulate the employment of a familial collaborator. After that moment a softer but continuous growth is on going through years: from 2003 to 2009 the difference is of about half percentage point.

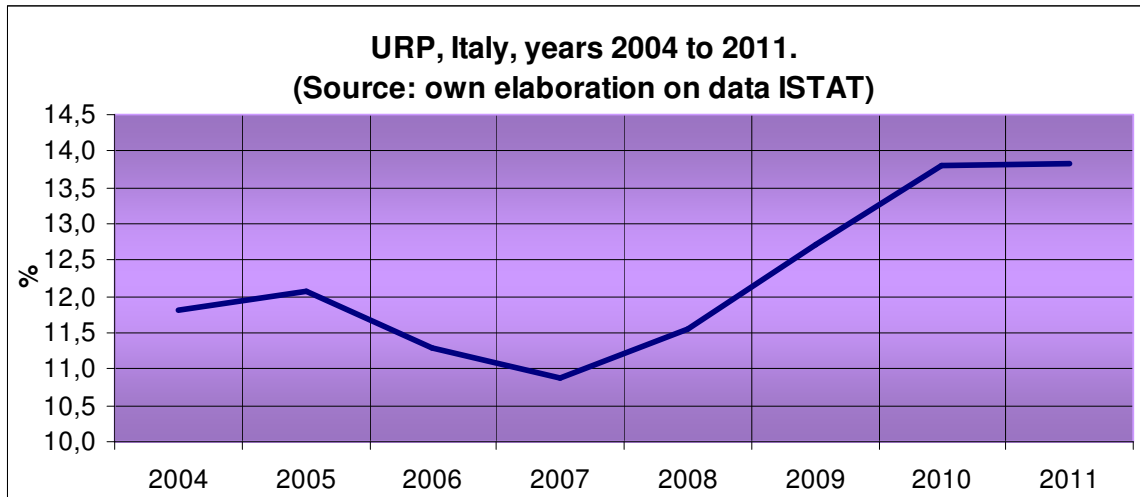
In the regional frame⁵⁹ there is Calabria as the worst performer (in the period it gets marks from 25% to 29%). Good performer are: Emilia, which percentage is unfortunately growing from 2003 to 2009 but still it stays under 9%, Toscana and Trentino have the same growing trend but marks around 9% as well.

It is interesting to notice that the same regions turn out to be the worst performer in terms of *physical safety defect* and best performers in the field of *legality of jobs defect* (e.g. Emilia and Trentino). Vice versa a region as Calabria has a low result in PSD while it has an high percentage for the LJD. Even if it is not possible to know if there is correspondence between people having this two kind of problems, it is possible to make the conjecture that this two indications are linked, or better one (the legality of jobs) can prevent the other to be realistic.

4.1.4 Unemployment rate pressure (URP).

⁵⁸ L.189/2002 and l.222/2002

⁵⁹ See appendix



It has been chosen to build up an unemployment rate corrected with that part of population called “discouraged” who is normally counted into the non-active population. It has been added to the total amount of unemployed workers the amount of this other group and this sum have been divided for the ensemble of the working force and the discouraged. The resulting rate is higher than the commonly used unemployment rate. In this approach it seemed more interesting to choose this corrected rate because the aim here is to use it as a proxy for the perception of the worker about the possibility to feel free to leave his/her job and try to get another. If the pressure of the unemployment and the discouragement is high on society every worker would take this into account while evaluating the choice to continue performing that job.

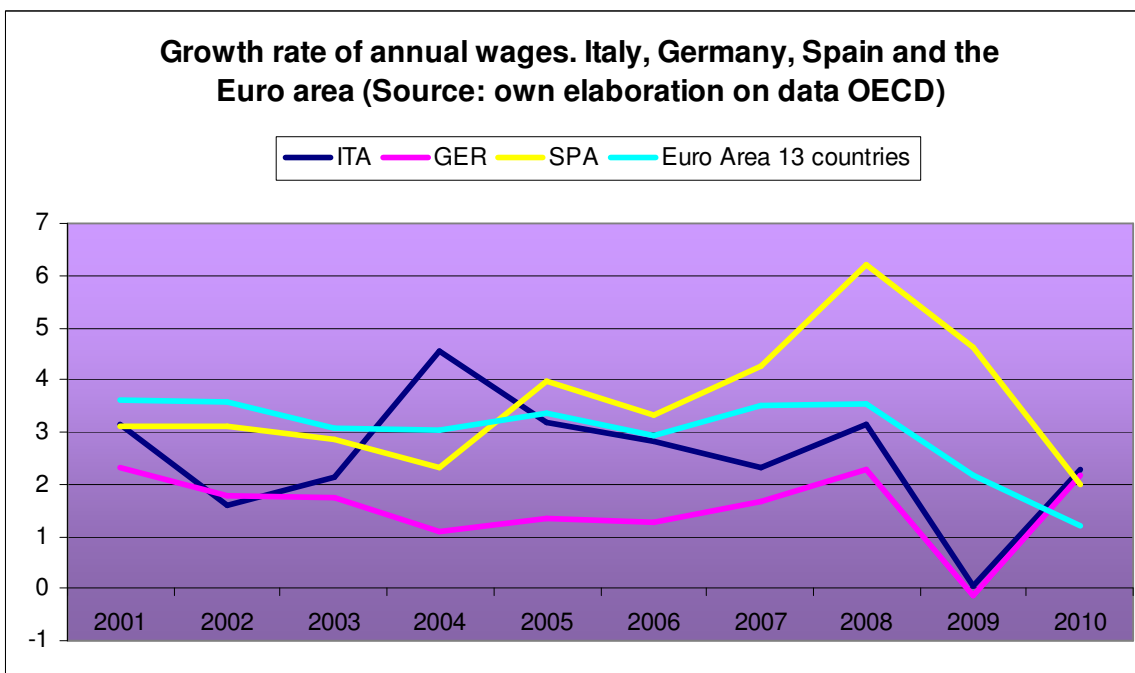
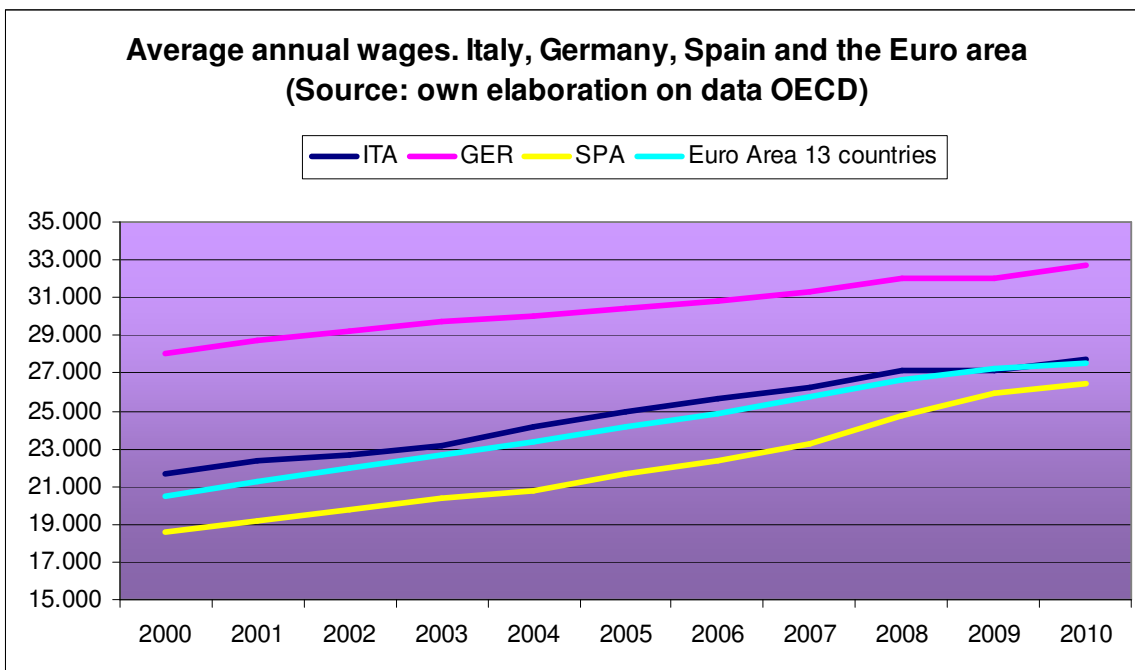
4.2. Relational profile.

4.2.1 Monetary enrichment (ME).

This indicator is meant to refer only to wages. The idea is to find a different path from the one of poverty and distribution analysis and catch, through a reflexion on the relative position of employees’ wages, an information regarding a decent recognition of employees’ work.

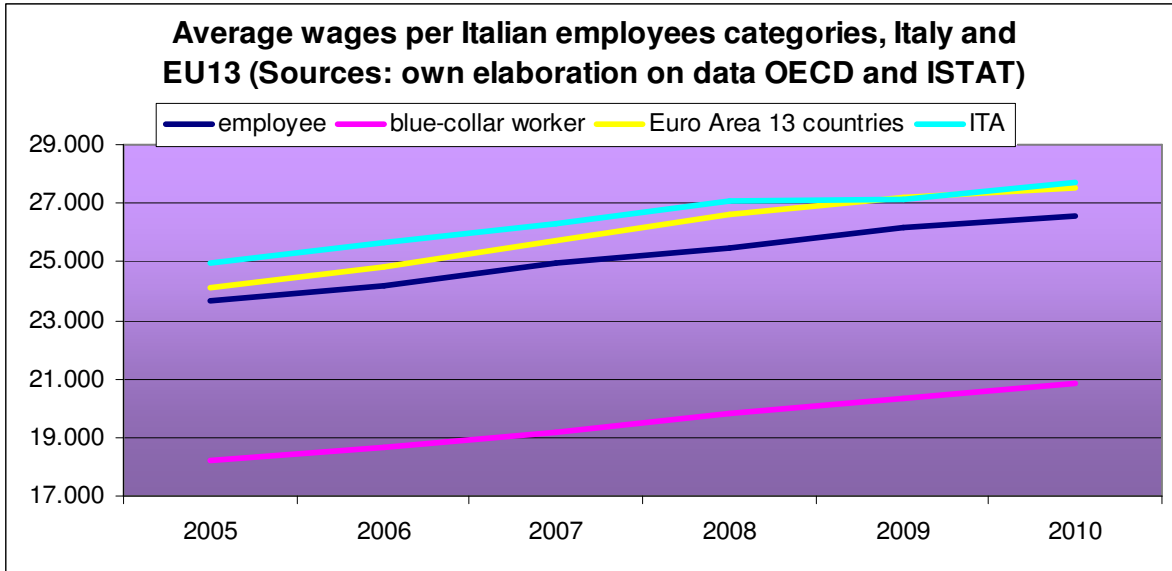
In a European comparison, the Italian average annual wage has levels close to the average of the Euro area (13 countries)⁶⁰, Germany performs better and Spain has lower levels, but looking at their growth rate, it is remarkable that the better performer has the lowest rate, while Spain was had strongly risen his average level until 2008 (when the common crisis had make all of the rate descending). Italy doesn’t have good performances in the period 2004 to 2008, that means before the crisis, as in Germany growth rate of wages is rising from 2009 to 2010.

⁶⁰ See appendix

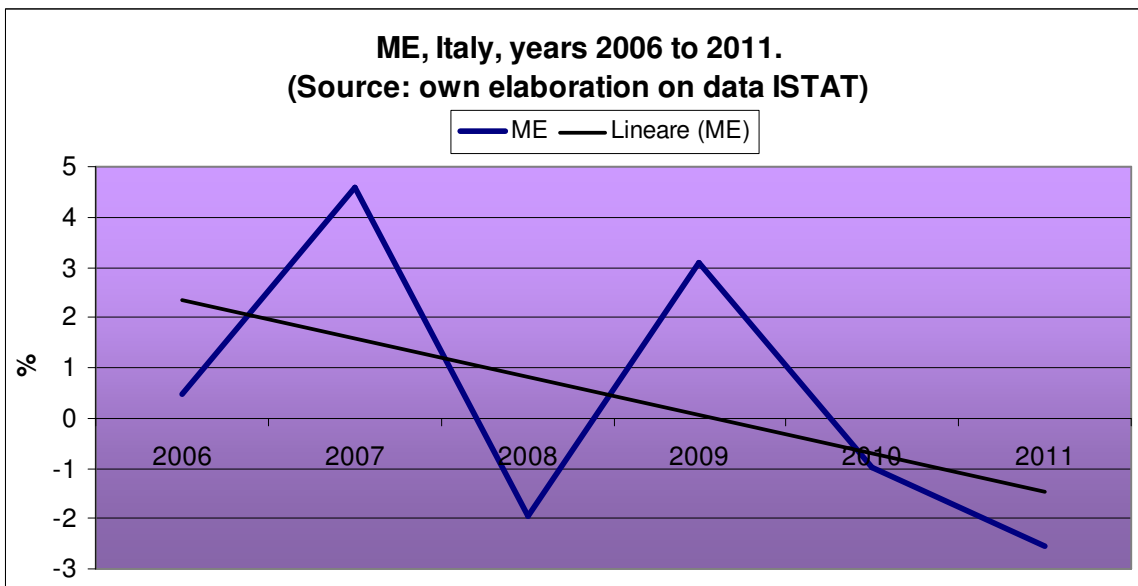


Another interesting comparison is between Italian average wage of employees per categories and the average of EU13 and Italy as a whole. ISTAT data are available on two groups of workers: blue-collar employees and white-collar employees. Executives are left apart, their percentage on the totality of employees for the period considered is around 4%. The average national wage is a data from OECD source, the distance between this informations must be filled by this left apart category.

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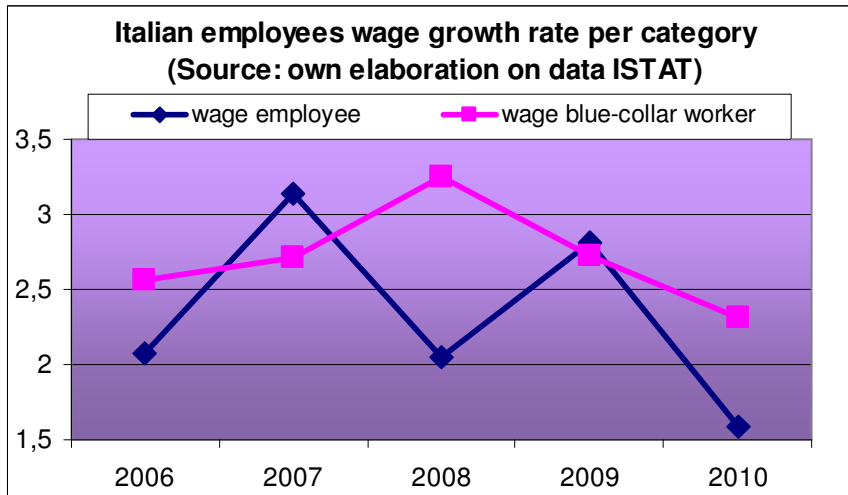


A first proposal to define a *monetary enrichment* is considering the growth rate of the distance between the blue collar worker and the white collar worker average wage.

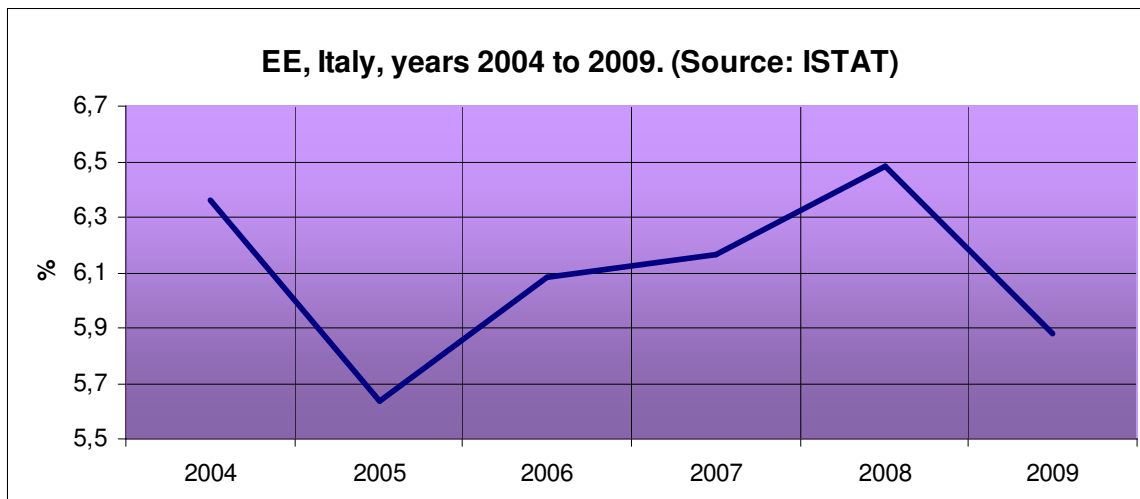


Because the average wage of the blue collars varies smoothly in comparison to the one of white collars, the narrowing distance between the two is a sign of an alignment through the bottom. The trend of the difference between the two wages is negative, so it is a sign of reduction of monetary enrichment. Nevertheless this indicator is tricky because an enlargement of the distance can be caused by a falling of the lower line or by a rising of the higher one, but hypothesizing that the blue collar wage is more stable and basic than the other, it can be seen as a sort of point of reference.

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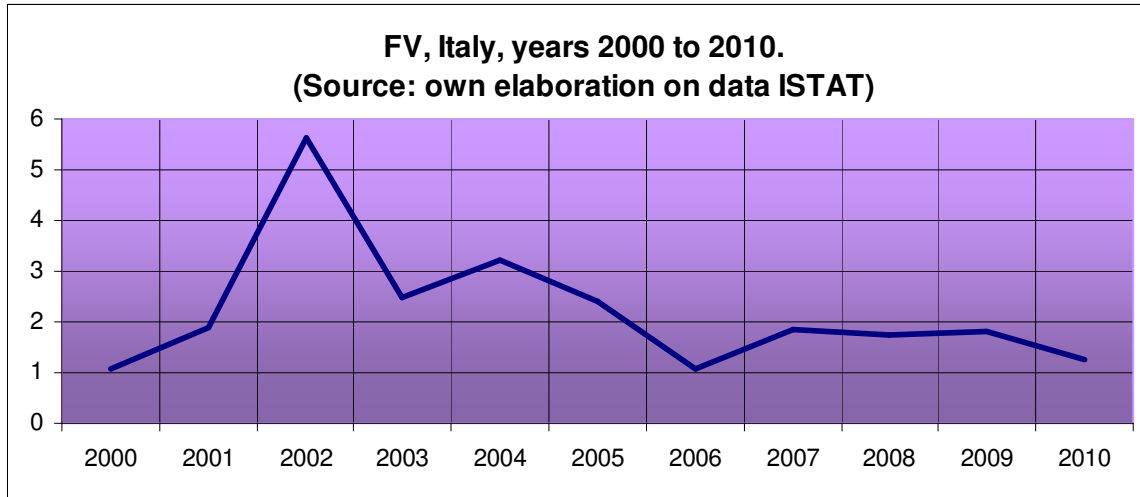
4.2.2 Educational enrichment (EE).



Data on working people attending courses are available from ISTAT, the national picture shows a climbing trend from 2005 to 2008, which then reverses in 2009.

The regional situation see as good performers: Liguria, at 8% in 2008 and 2009, Trentino, from 2007 the percentage is descending but it marked between 8% and 9% for the entire period considered. All the southern regions had a fast growth from year 2007 to year 2009, and then, as other regions the trend is reversed.

4.2.3 Freedom to voice (FV).



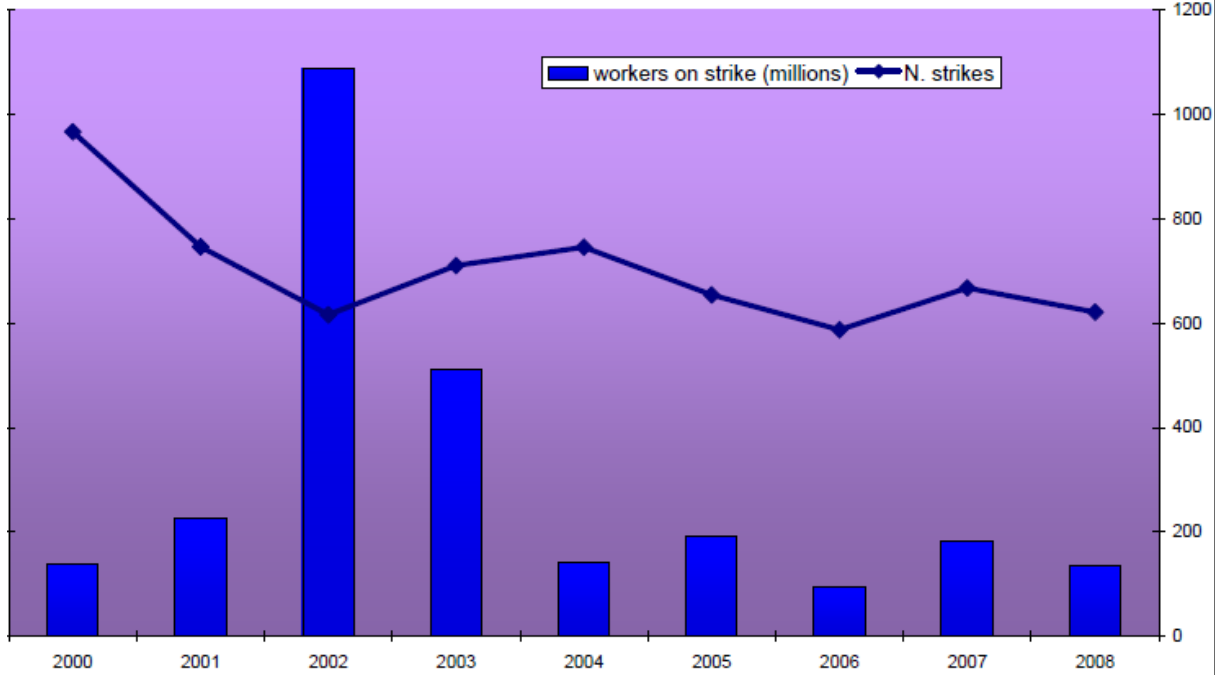
Data on union density are particularly hard to find. They would be a proxy much more interesting than others for the *freedom to voice* that workers enjoy. That data could indicate who among workers has access to the collective mechanisms of bargaining better than other, if workers are linked to syndicates or not enough to say that a syndicate is representative enough⁶¹. Data on strikes, on the contrary, are available from different sources. It is to notice that a strike is only one of the possible consequence of the freedom to voice. Virtually, an absence of strikes is not necessarily the consequence of the scarcity of opportunity to go on strike, but maybe it can come from the presence of other means of communication between employer and employee. The first data chosen is that of the number of hours spent in strike every 1000 hours worked, which source is ISTAT. They are only available on a national basis. In 2002 a pick in hours of strike is marked, around 6 hours every 1000 hours of work. The trend afterwards is descendant, from year 2006 to 2010 this value is below 2. Looking at ILO source, data on the number of strikes and the number of workers involved can be compared. Year 2002 again presents a pick, but here it is revealed that in general among years there is a mis-overlapping between the number of strikes called and the relative amount of people participating. Concerning this, year 2000 can be compared to year 2002⁶²: in 2000 there were the highest amount of strikes called in the period analysed (966), but a low quantity of workers participating (687000), while in 2002 an extremely high amount of people have attended strikes called (5442000), that in number were among the lowest of the period (616).

⁶¹ This matter in Italy is linked to the subject of partial enforcement of article 39 of the Constitution, which had planned the legal registration of syndicates and a representation proportional to the amount of their members, but never was implemented.

⁶² See appendix

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Workers on strike and strikes number, Italy, years 2000 to 2008 (Source: own elaboration on data ILO)



4.2. Fairness profile.

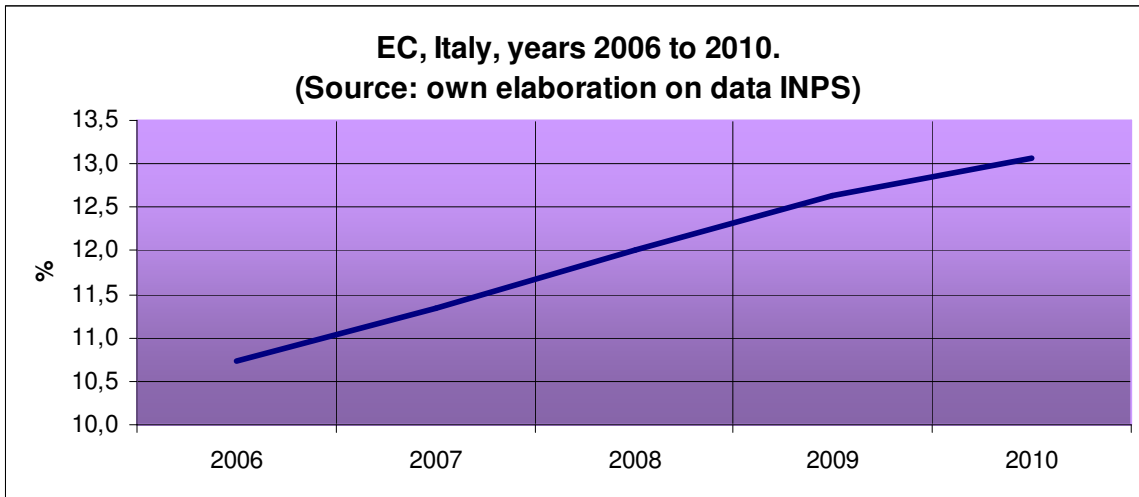
4.2.1 Equal chances (EC).

A peculiarity of the Italian society are the various gap between sexes in approaching the labour market: a lower activity rate⁶³, especially in southern regions⁶⁴, a lower employment rate⁶⁵ and a lower presence in roles at the top of the career interest women in Italy. It is possible then to identify this group as a disadvantaged one. This doesn't mean that it is the only disadvantaged part of population, *equal chance* can refer also to other kind of groups, such as youngers or strangers or any kind of minority. Data on sex are easily findable, here it is chosen to look at data from INPS about executives, simply it is extracted the percentage of woman in charge in this role in years. Data are available from 2006 to 2010 and the territorial detail goes up to provinces.

⁶³ Female activity rate in 2011: 38,5% and male activity rate in 2011: 59,1% (Source: ISTAT)

⁶⁴ Female activity rate in South Italy in 2011: 28,3% and male activity rate in South Italy in 2011: 53,7% (Source: ISTAT)

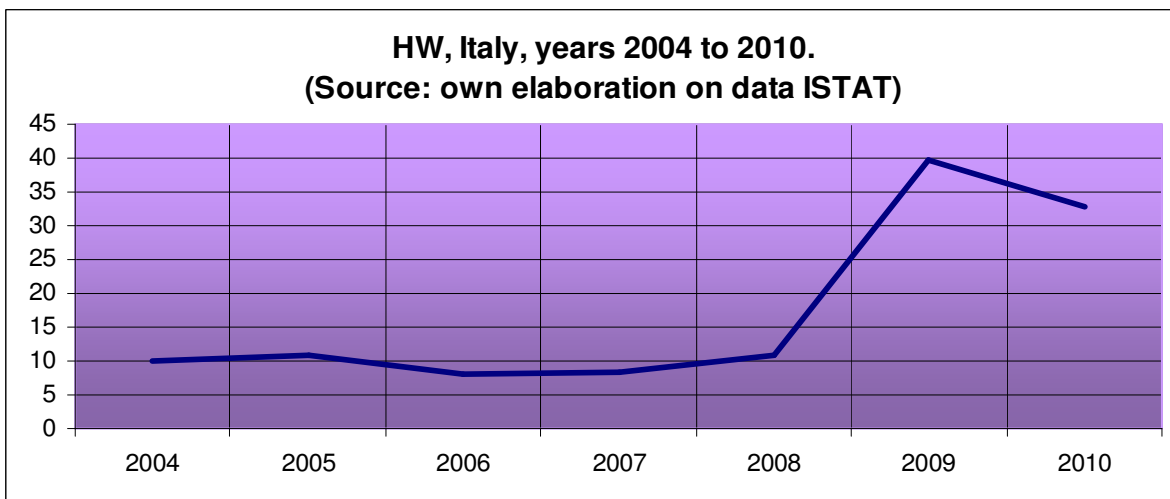
⁶⁵ Female employment rate in 2011: 46,5% and male employment rate in 2011: 67,5% (Source: ISTAT)



The national frame is showing a regular tendency of augmenting the percentage of women in executive roles, which was around 10% in 2006 and has risen up to 13% in 2010.

The regional overlook shows that worst performers are: Trentino, with a percentage slowly growing in the period considered from around 5% to 7%, Abruzzo with similar marks. Among best performers Lazio shows percentages of women from around 15% to over 17%, and this region has much higher level of women in charge then all the other central regions. In Calabria percentage is strongly growing.

4.2.2 Hanging work (HW).



Cassa integrazione is an institution of the Italian State dedicated to help employer and employees of big enterprises. In case of unpredictable crisis or urgent needs to redirect the production, the State, after the demand and with the contribution of the employer, cares after the wages to be paid to workers, while the enterprise has time and resources to solve the imminent problem. This is a temporary solution (anyway it can last several years) that prevent a territory to be shattered by a too sudden change in the labour market.

Seeing it from the inside, workers living this condition are in the edge between working and being helped by the community. Legally they are considered workers, but actually their everyday life is composed by less than usual or zero hours of work, a smaller salary to live on, a powerless wait for

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the enterprise to overcome the economical crisis that have led to this social condition and often the actual disadvantage⁶⁶ of leaving that job and looking for another.

So, in the perspective of this approach on the concept of *decent work*, this kind of work is not considered meaningful in itself, it is meaningful just in the social protection perspective, that is here put aside.

Data on *cassa integrazione* are available from ISTAT: hours of CIG every 1000 hours of work. As it can be seen in graph. XX from 2008 there is a fast increment in the use of this provision, in 2009 the number lowers, but it doesn't come back to previous levels.

5. Conclusions

The aim of this paper has been to propose another approach to the decent work measure, taking into account only the working conditions, consequently worker has been entitled to aspire and experience *decent work*. The aim of this interpretation of *decent work* is to investigate the individual and relational conditions of the person while working although peculiarities of an economy and characteristics of a labour market are obviously important as fields where work is created and takes place.

The idea of *decent work* it has been articulated into three profiles: basic, relations and fairness, and it has been put on test by analysing the Italian labour market.

This choice it has been done in the belief that the decent work analysis, which has usually been much more focused through developing countries, is valuable just as well to make considerations on any kind of economy.

Il primo indicatore considerato nel *basic decent work* sono le ore di lavoro. I dati mostrano come nell'arco di quasi 10 anni il peso degli occupati che svolgono lavoro straordinario si è ridotto. In particolare, dal 2005 al 2011, la contrazione è stata di circa 6 punti percentuali. Questa evidenza può quindi essere interpretata, in prima battuta, come un segnale di avvicinamento ad una condizione di *decent work*.

Anche il secondo indicatore, quello sulla incolumità fisica sul lavoro, presenta risultati incoraggianti, infatti nell'arco di 10 anni la quota di occupati vittime di infortuni e malattie sul lavoro è scesa di un punto percentuale (dal 4,7% al 3,5). Tuttavia l'interpretazione di questo dato richiede la lettura combinata con il terzo indicatore *basic*, quello sul lavoro irregolare, oltre che con il dettaglio regionale.

Rispetto a quest'ultimo, tutte le macro aree presentano una tendenza ad una maggiore sicurezza sul lavoro, anche se la dimensione del fenomeno appare più pronunciata al Nord che al Sud. La virtuosità di quest'ultimo può spiegarsi attraverso la lettura dell'indicatore sul legal job: nel mezzogiorno si registrano i più alti tassi di lavoro irregolare (o sommerso). È dunque plausibile pensare ad una sottostima degli infortuni dovuta alla mancata denuncia degli stessi perché avvenuta durante prestazioni di lavoro irregolari (o sommerse). In effetti parallelamente alla diminuzione della variabile *physical safety* si ha la progressiva crescita dell'indicatore *legal job*.

Pertanto per l'indicatore di sicurezza sul lavoro la chiave interpretativa, pur presentando delle ambiguità, può essere positiva e quindi di riduzione della distanza dalla condizione di *decent work*, quello sul lavoro sommerso, invece, è evidentemente una lettura negativa aumentandone la distanza.

L'ultimo indicatore che compone il *basic decent work* è l'*unemployment rate pressure*. Per avere una misura più rappresentativa della pressione si è privilegiato un tasso di disoccupazione corretto per il numero degli inattivi scoraggiati. In questo caso la variabile registra almeno 4 punti percentuali in più rispetto al tasso di disoccupazione ufficiale. Rispetto alla sua interpretazione con la condizione di *decent work* è evidente un netto peggioramento del dato, soprattutto dal 2008, andando a contrarre quella libertà di scelta che si intende rappresentare attraverso questa variabile.

⁶⁶ when a big firm is having a period of crisis it is likely that in the same territory employees are too much and too specialized to be easily relocated.

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Si può dunque concludere che salvo il dato delle ore di lavoro straordinarie, per il quale è opportuno un approfondimento, i restanti indicatori non sembrano inviare segnali di avvicinamento o di consolidamento della condizione di *decent work*.

All'interno della *relations profile* sono compresi tre indicatori: il primo riguarda la possibilità di poter avere un riconoscimento economico capace di garantire una esistenza dignitosa. Per capire se le retribuzioni italiane sono tali da garantire questa esistenza dignitosa, si è iniziato con un confronto europeo delle retribuzioni medie annue per poi passare ad una osservazione interna in funzione della posizione professionale.

Il generale la retribuzione media in Italia è di poco più alta di quella europea (se si considerano i 13 paesi dell'unione) ma nettamente più bassa della retribuzione media della Germania che possiamo prendere come riferimento dei paesi più virtuosi e più alta della media spagnola che interpretiamo come paese con maggiori criticità. Tuttavia la dinamica dei tassi di crescita ci descrive una situazione molto diversa comparando, l'Italia, come il paese con la peggiore performance, soprattutto a partire dal 2004 in cui la Germania e in particolare la Spagna registrano tassi di crescita positivi e crescenti mentre l'Italia presenta un trend in netto calo.

Rispetto alla situazione interna al paese, questo calo della retribuzione tende ad essere particolarmente sentito dalla quota degli occupati dipendenti che ricoprono la posizione impiegatizia. Infatti il divario tra la retribuzione degli operai e quella degli impiegati (e quadri) tende a ridursi nel tempo per una progressiva contrazione dei salari di entrambi sebbene quella impiegatizia sia più pronunciata.

Tali risultati ci consentono di poter fare una prima riflessione, sebbene non esaustiva rispetto all'informazione che si vuole fornire, secondo la quale l'Italia si pone in una situazione intermedia garantendo ai lavoratori dipendenti dei salari di modesta entità rispetto al confronto europeo e con prospettive di reddito pessimistiche alla luce del trend negativo registrato nei tassi di crescita delle retribuzione e che investe sia gli impiegati sia gli operai (i quali questi ultimi si trovano già ad avere delle retribuzioni particolarmente basse). Si può dunque concludere che il monetary enrichment sia un obiettivo attualmente disatteso e che ci si trovi lontano dalla condizione di *decent work* che si intende dimostrare.

Il secondo indicatore considera la formazione on the job. Compatibilmente con i dati disponibili, dal 2005 si è potuta osservare una progressiva crescita della quota di occupati che fanno formazione, una dinamica incoraggiante e che sembra muoversi nella direzione della *decent work condition*. Resta comunque inesausta la questione della reale efficacia ed adeguatezza dell'attività formativa, ossia tale da accrescere effettivamente il capitale umano della forza lavoro.

L'ultimo indicatore presente in questo profilo, *freedom to voice*, dovrebbe indicare la possibilità del lavoratore di poter esprimere la propria posizione e partecipazione alle questioni legate al lavoro. Questo viene rappresentato dal numero di ore di sciopero ogni 1000 ore lavorate. Il dato presenta una certa omogeneità nel tempo sia in termini di ore che di partecipazione. Unica eccezione è il biennio 2002/2003 che risente dello sciopero generale del 23 marzo e del 16 aprile 2002 (contro gli interventi legislativi proposti sull'articolo 18 dello Statuto dei lavoratori) e che trova riscontro anche nei dati sulla partecipazione. Questo picco può avere valenza positiva esprimendo la possibilità di reazione e contrasto per scelte politiche non condivise. Resta tuttavia da porsi la domanda se un'alta adesione allo sciopero si traduca in una effettiva influenza sulle scelte di politiche di un governo o di *governance* di una impresa. Volendosi basare sull'esperienza del 2002, si potrebbe rispondere affermativamente al quesito, visto che le intenzioni non hanno poi avuto un risvolto normativo. Non può dirsi altrettanto nei casi di scelte non condivise prese dai vertici di aziende private, soprattutto perché il coinvolgimento non riguarda l'intera forza lavoro ma solo quella associata all'azienda. Al di là del peso della forza lavoro, quest'ultima sembra avere più potere di persuasione quando ha un interlocutore istituzionale, spesso di carica elettiva, che risulta essere sensibile al consenso elettorale, ciò a cui non è invece sensibile un imprenditore (salvo non intenda candidarsi al parlamento!!). Infine, per completezza, la forza di persuasione della forza

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lavoro rispetto a decisioni aziendali non condivise può essere tanto più efficace quanto più è affiancata da interventi di mediazione delle istituzioni.

In linea di massima si può concludere che all'interno di questo secondo profilo solo l'indicatore di enrichment si presenta distante dalla condizione di *decent work*, una solitudine che non rincuora.

L'ultimo profilo, il *fairness profile*, viene rappresentato da due indicatori: il primo prende in considerazione la questione di genere, in particolare le opportunità di carriera delle donne, il secondo, invece, considera la condizione dei cassintegrati.

Rispetto alla questione di genere, i dati mostrano un quota crescente di donne in posizioni apicali: nell'arco di cinque anni è passata dal 10,7% al 13,1%. Nelle regioni del sud e del nord est si registra la minore presenza ma la dinamica in tutte le macro aree è positiva. Sebbene questi risultati non ci permettano di concludere se si stia effettivamente infrangendo il "tetto di cristallo", la tendenza in aumento dei dati sono comunque un segnale incoraggiante di avvicinamento alla condizione di *decent work*.

Quanto all'indicatore relativo alla cassa integrazione, il suo incremento non è espressione di un risultato a favore del *decent work*, risultato nettamente peggiorato negli ultimi tempi a causa della crisi.

Concludendo, i dati al momento disponibili non hanno consentito la costruzione di rank o soglie rispetto alle quali poter delineare una condizione di *decent* o *indecent work*. Inoltre per alcuni indicatori sarà necessario approfondire l'analisi rispetto alla territorio e al settore di attività economica.

Tuttavia, dei nove indicatori impiegati per l'analisi, cinque presentano delle tendenze che, pur con un atteggiamento di cautela, possono considerarsi a favore della condizione di *decent work*, muovendo così un primo passo verso la sperimentazione del fenomeno in Italia.

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Tab. A1.1 Gender ranking (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Female labour force participation (1)	Ranking 1	Female administrative & managerial worker (2)	Female professional & technical worker (2)	Average	Ranking 2	Female / male unemployment rate (3)	Ranking 3	Average ranking	Overall ranking
Australia	64.8	9	24.4	44.4	34.4	16	0.88	3	9.3	8
Austria	56.4	15	27.3	47.3	37.3	12	1.26	11	12.7	12
Belgium	50.3	17	30.2	47.1	38.7	8	1.67	18	14.3	14
Canada	70.4	5	37.3	52.2	44.8	2	1.07	10	5.7	6
Denmark	77.8	2	23.1	49.7	36.4	13	1.54	17	10.7	10
Finland	72.9	3	25.6	62.7	44.2	4	0.97	5	4.0	2
France *	59.9	13	9.4	41.4	25.4	21	1.45	15	16.3	18
Germany	62.0	11	26.6	49.0	37.8	11	1.32	13	11.7	11
Greece	45.0	19	22.0	44.9	33.5	18	2.23	22	19.7	21
Ireland	40.9	21	26.2	46.2	36.2	14	1.01	7	14.0	13
Italy	29.3	22	53.8	17.8	35.8	15	1.76	20	19.0	20
Japan	59.2	14	9.5	44.0	26.8	20	1.06	9	14.3	14
Luxembourg *	47.4	18	8.6	37.7	23.2	22	2.10	21	20.3	22
Netherlands	55.0	16	22.8	45.7	34.3	17	1.50	16	16.3	18
New Zealand	65.8	7	36.6	51.5	44.1	5	1.02	8	6.7	7
Norway	72.1	4	30.6	58.5	44.6	3	0.92	4	3.7	1
Portugal	60.6	12	32.2	51.1	41.7	6	1.26	11	9.7	9
Spain	44.6	20	32.4	43.8	38.1	9	1.71	19	16.0	17
Sweden	81.5	1	27.4	48.6	38.0	10	0.82	2	4.3	3
Switzerland	62.8	10	20.1	39.9	30.0	19	1.34	14	14.3	14
United Kingdom	65.6	8	33.0	44.7	38.9	7	0.67	1	5.3	5
United States	68.6	6	44.4	53.4	48.9	1	1.00	6	4.3	3

- (1). Female labour force participation 15-64, 1995
Source: World Labour Report 2000, ILO
- (2). Proportion of administrative, managerial, professional and technical posts held by women
Year: Data refers to the latest available year
Sources: Human Development Report 2000, UNDP
* : Calculated on the basis of data from UN 1994 and ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics 1994, 1995
- (3). Female-Male unemployment rate 1995
Source: Human Development Report 2000, UNDP

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Tab. A1.2 employment ranking (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Labour force participation (1)	Ranking1	Unemployment rate (2)	Ranking 2	Gini coefficient (3)	Year	Ranking 3	Average ranking	Overall ranking
Australia	74.8	9	9.1	14	35.2	1994	17	13.3	14
Austria	68.7	14	3.9	4	23.1	1987	1	6.3	5
Belgium	61.9	19	11.8	18	25.0	1992	5	14.0	16
Canada	77.5	3	9.8	16	31.5	1994	11	10.0	8
Denmark	82.2	2	7.9	10	24.7	1992	3	5.0	2
Finland	75.7	6	13.0	20	25.6	1991	7	11.0	10
France	67.7	16	11.4	17	32.7	1995	15	16.0	19
Germany	72.4	11	7.9	10	30.0	1994	10	10.3	9
Greece	61.3	21	9.3	15	32.7	1993	15	17.0	20
Ireland	60.5	22	13.1	21	35.9	1987	19	20.7	22
Italy	63.0	18	11.8	18	27.3	1995	9	15.0	18
Japan	71.8	12	2.9	2	24.9	1993	4	6.0	3
Luxembourg	63.3	17	1.9	1	23.9	1994	2	6.7	7
Netherlands	67.8	15	6.4	9	32.6	1994	14	12.7	13
New Zealand	74.3	10	8.0	12	43.9	1991	22	14.7	17
Norway	77.1	5	5.1	5	25.8	1995	8	6.0	3
Portugal	71.3	13	5.8	6	35.6	1994/95	18	12.3	12
Spain	61.9	19	20.3	22	32.5	1990	13	18.0	21
Sweden	83.4	1	6.3	8	25.0	1992	5	4.7	1
Switzerland	77.2	4	3.2	3	32.1	1992	12	6.3	5
United Kingdom	75.5	8	8.1	13	36.1	1991	20	13.7	15
United States	75.6	7	5.9	7	40.8	1997	21	11.7	11

- (1). Labour force participation 15-64 1995
Source: World Labour Report 2000, ILO
- (2). Unemployment rate 1990-1998
Source: World Economic Outlook 1999 and 2000, IMF
- (3). Distribution of income or consumption
Source: World Development Report 2000/2001

Tab. A1.3 Social public expenditure as a percentage on GDP, year 1996 (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Pension	Health	Total	Ranking
Australia	4.6	5.7	15.7	21
Austria	14.9	5.3	26.2	9
Belgium	12.0	6.9	27.1	7
Canada	5.4	6.6	17.7	19
Denmark	9.6	5.2	33.0	2
Finland	13.2	5.4	32.3	3
France	13.3	8.0	30.1	4
Germany	12.4	8.3	29.7	5
Greece	11.7	4.5	22.7	14
Ireland	5.1	5.1	17.8	18
Italy	15.0	5.4	23.7	12
Japan	6.8	5.6	14.1	22
Luxembourg	12.6	6.5	25.2	11
Netherlands	11.4	6.8	26.7	8
New Zealand	6.5	5.4	19.2	16
Norway	8.9	7.0	28.5	6
Portugal	9.9	5.0	19.0	17
Spain	10.9	5.8	22.0	15
Sweden	13.8	6.1	34.7	1
Switzerland	12.8	6.6	25.9	10
United Kingdom	10.2	5.7	22.8	13
United States	7.2	7.6	16.5	20

Source: World Labour Report 2000, ILO

Tab. A1.4 Union membership as a proportion of employees year 1995 (Ghai, 2002)

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Country	Density	Ranking
Australia	35.2	11
Austria	41.2	9
Belgium	51.9	5
Canada	37.4	10
Denmark	80.1	2
Finland	79.3	3
France	9.1	22
Germany	28.9	13
Greece	24.3	16
Ireland	48.9	6
Italy	44.1	7
Japan	24.0	18
Luxembourg	43.4	8
Netherlands	25.6	14
New Zealand	24.3	16
Norway	57.7	4
Portugal	25.6	14
Spain	18.6	20
Sweden	91.1	1
Switzerland	22.5	19
United Kingdom	32.9	12
United States	14.2	21

Source: World Labour Report 1997-1998, ILO

Tab. A1.5 Decent work ranking (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Gender disparities	Employment	Social dialogue	Social protection	Average ranking	Overall ranking
Australia	8	14	11	21	13.5	14
Austria	12	5	9	9	8.8	5
Belgium	16	16	5	7	11.0	8
Canada	5	8	10	19	10.5	7
Denmark	8	2	2	2	3.5	2
Finland	2	10	3	3	4.5	4
France	18	19	22	4	15.8	20
Germany	11	9	13	5	9.5	6
Greece	21	20	16	14	17.8	21
Ireland	14	22	6	18	15.0	19
Italy	19	18	7	12	14.0	15
Japan	13	3	18	22	14.0	15
Luxembourg	22	7	8	11	12.0	10
Netherlands	16	13	14	8	12.8	12
New Zealand	7	17	16	16	14.0	15
Norway	2	3	4	6	3.8	3
Portugal	10	12	14	17	13.3	13
Spain	20	21	20	15	19.0	22
Sweden	1	1	1	1	1.0	1
Switzerland	15	5	19	10	12.3	11
United Kingdom	5	15	12	13	11.3	9
United States	4	11	21	20	14.0	15

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Tab. A1.6 Economic performance ranking (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Growth (1)	Ranking	Inflation (2)	Ranking	Average ranking	Overall ranking
Australia	2.7	3	1.7	5	4.0	2
Austria	1.6	11	2.5	17	14.0	17
Belgium	1.7	10	2.3	15	12.5	13
Canada	0.9	20	1.4	2	11.0	12
Denmark	2.5	4	1.6	3	3.5	1
Finland	1.2	14	1.7	5	9.5	8
France	1.2	14	1.7	5	9.5	8
Germany	1.1	16	2.2	13	14.5	18
Greece	1.4	13	11.0	22	17.5	20
Ireland	6.0	1	2.0	11	6.0	4
Italy	1.0	18	4.4	20	19.0	22
Japan	1.1	16	0.2	1	8.5	5
Luxembourg	1.9	7	2.2	13	10.0	10
Netherlands	2.1	6	2.1	12	9.0	6
New Zealand	1.0	18	1.6	3	10.5	11
Norway	3.4	2	1.8	9	5.5	3
Portugal	2.4	5	5.8	21	13.0	14
Spain	1.8	8	4.2	19	13.5	15
Sweden	0.5	21	2.4	16	18.5	21
Switzerland	-0.2	22	1.7	5	13.5	15
United Kingdom	1.6	11	3.0	18	14.5	18
United States	1.8	8	1.9	10	9.0	6

- (1). Annual growth rate in GNP per capita 1990-1998
 Source: Human Development Report 2000, UNDP
 (2). Inflation rate 1990-1998
 Source: Human Development Report 2000, UNDP

Tab. A1.7 Decent work and economic performance overall ranking (Ghai, 2002)

Country	Decent work ranking	Economic performance ranking	Average ranking	Overall ranking
Australia	14	2	8.0	4
Austria	5	17	11.0	11
Belgium	8	13	10.5	9
Canada	7	12	9.5	6
Denmark	2	1	1.5	1
Finland	4	8	6.0	3
France	20	8	14.0	19
Germany	6	18	12.0	14
Greece	21	20	20.5	22
Ireland	19	4	11.5	13
Italy	15	22	18.5	20
Japan	15	5	10.0	7
Luxembourg	10	10	10.0	7
Netherlands	12	6	9.0	5
New Zealand	15	11	13.0	15
Norway	3	3	3.0	2
Portugal	13	14	13.5	17
Spain	22	15	18.5	20
Sweden	1	21	11.0	11
Switzerland	11	15	13.0	15
United Kingdom	9	18	13.5	17
United States	15	6	10.5	9

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Tab.A1.8 selected *decent work* indicators for the EU 2000, following the suggestions of Anker et al. 2002, Ritter, 2005.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I
Training, previous 12 months	32.0	49.2	31.7	13.9	19.8	25.6	37.2	23.0
Female	32.1	51.7	30.6	15.0	21.5	24.0	36.3	25.1
Male	32.0	47.0	32.6	13.2	18.8	26.9	38.0	21.6
60 or more hours	5.2	1.5	2.8	10.4	3.2	2.9	5.4	2.1
Female	2.9	0.5	1.0	7.8	1.8	2.4	1.1	0.3
Male	6.7	2.4	4.1	12.0	3.9	3.2	8.2	3.1
60 or more hours – employee	1.3	0.6	1.1	2.6	1.4	0.4	1.8	0.7
60 or more hours – self-empl.	26.3	16.0	14.5	20.8	8.7	19.3	20.2	6.2
55 or more hours	8.9	3.1	5.3	15.1	8.6	5.7	11.4	6.6
50 or more hours	9.7	4.0	6.6	16.3	9.8	6.8	13.3	8.1
Tenure of 1 year or less	10.8	16.5	9.9	7.4	14.0	13.8	12.2	9.3
Female	11.7	16.5	11.8	10.1	17.2	13.1	15.8	10.9
Male	10.1	16.5	8.6	5.9	12.2	14.4	9.9	8.3
Temporary employment	2.6	0.9	0.6	4.5	2.4	3.3	5.5	5.0
Female	1.9	1.2	0.7	6.5	2.2	2.5	6.5	7.0
Male	3.1	0.6	0.5	3.2	2.5	4.0	4.6	3.8
Temp. or fixed-term ≤ 1 year	6.4	4.6	3.9	13.0	20.2	9.4	8.6	8.4
Female	7.9	5.5	5.2	19.4	29.4	9.1	10.5	13.7
Male	5.3	3.9	2.9	9.0	15.5	9.6	7.0	5.0
	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU
Training, previous 12 months	31.6	46.0	32.6	12.4	55.0	44.2	52.6	33.5
Female	30.3	43.6	29.5	12.7	54.1	46.7	50.1	33.4
Male	32.3	47.7	35.1	12.1	55.8	41.8	54.7	33.6
60 or more hours	3.0	0.8	3.5	4.8	4.2	1.4	3.4	3.1
Female	4.2	0.3	3.3	3.5	4.4	0.8	0.8	1.5
Male	2.3	1.1	3.7	5.8	4.1	2.0	5.5	4.2
60 or more hours – employee	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.6	2.7	0.3	2.5	1.2
60 or more hours – self-empl.	22.0	4.9	21.3	14.9	12.3	11.6	9.5	12.5
55 or more hours	5.9	2.7	8.0	8.6	7.4	3.0	6.9	6.5
50 or more hours	6.7	3.7	8.6	9.9	9.5	4.4	8.9	7.9
Tenure of 1 year or less	8.6	13.5	7.5	8.6	15.4	14.9	13.2	11.7
Female	14.7	15.9	9.0	8.9	16.4	12.9	15.7	13.2
Male	4.9	11.8	6.5	8.4	14.5	16.8	11.2	10.6
Temporary employment	0.7	2.5	1.7	0.5	0.3	0.5	2.3	2.3
Female	1.4	2.9	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.7	3.1	2.5
Male	0.3	2.2	2.2	0.4	0.0	0.3	1.6	2.1
Temp. or fixed-term ≤ 1 year	2.4	12.6	5.1	11.9	12.4	8.7	6.4	8.2
Female	3.5	14.6	4.9	15.3	16.1	10.6	6.8	10.0
Male	1.8	11.2	5.2	9.0	8.8	6.9	6.0	6.9

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Tab.A1.9 International comparisons of seven *decent work* indicators: an illustration of methodology
(Bescond et.al., 2003)

Country	1 Non- enrolment rate	2 Low pay	3 Excessive hours of work	4 Unemploy- ment	5 Youth unemploy- ment	6 Male- female gap in LFPR	7 Old-age without pension	Trimmed mean
Sweden	0.0	...	7.8	4.1	8.3	3.5	...	5.1
Denmark	5.5	...	12.0	4.8	...	8.2	0.6	6.2
Iceland	6.5	...	30.8	2.8	6.0	9.5	...	7.3
Switzerland	12.7	5.6	...	2.5	5.7	18.6	...	8.0
France	4.2	...	8.9	8.9	20.2	13.4	0.0	8.9
Russian Federation	4.3	9.8	18.9	11.7	...	10.8
Finland	3.9	...	11.3	13.1	25.1	8.6	...	11.0
United Kingdom	7.2	9.3	21.8	5.2	12.2	15.8	...	11.1
Belgium	7.8	...	10.9	8.6	21.1	18.1	3.7	11.4
Germany	11.6	...	11.1	9.2	...	14.1	...	11.4
United States	8.2	...	18.2	6.0	12.4	15.1	...	11.9
Korea, Republic of	4.7	...	51.5	2.9	6.1	25.1	...	12.0
Canada	7.4	...	12.9	9.4	15.2	14.4	...	12.2
Macau, China	...	10.9	44.0	6.2	10.0	16.0	...	12.3
Portugal	11.4	...	16.5	4.1	9.9	16.9	...	12.6
Japan	0.0	13.7	30.3	5.0	9.6	26.5	...	13.7
Tanzania, United Rep. of	48.2	3.4	7.2	4.6	29.4	13.7
Lithuania	12.4	14.1	26.5	13.6	...	13.9
Australia	8.7	...	20.5	6.0	12.4	16.2	48.4	14.5
Estonia	14.7	...	12.5	9.4	17.4	14.3	19.7	14.7
Thailand	54.3	5.0	13.5	17.8	13.0	14.8
Romania	22.4	...	12.2	6.4	18.4	14.0	...	14.9
Slovakia	10.6	19.5	38.5	15.6	...	17.6
Nepal	68.8	...	41.6	1.8	3.0	8.3	...	17.6
Ireland	11.8	...	11.8	11.8	18.6	30.0	48.6	18.1
Jamaica	23.6	...	18.4	15.7	33.6	16.3	...	19.4
Indonesia	24.9	...	30.0	4.9	14.6	27.7	...	22.4
Italy	19.4	11.3	32.4	28.5	20.6	22.8
Poland	5.1	...	29.7	17.9	40.1	14.0	31.3	23.2
Greece	12.0	...	35.6	10.3	32.2	26.7	...	23.6
Yemen, Rep. of	29.3	8.4	18.7	45.4	...	24.0
Hong Kong, China	42.2	6.9	27.2	20.9	...	24.1
Mauritius	23.8	9.8	46.8	38.6	0.0	24.1
Mexico	28.7	17.0	27.9	1.7	3.4	43.9	80.7	24.2
Spain	15.2	19.6	37.2	25.9	32.0	25.8
Costa Rica	39.5	11.5	62.1	5.2	10.9	39.7	59.9	32.3
Jordan	27.3	15.4	41.3	14.9	30.0	53.5	67.0	33.5
Sri Lanka	39.7	...	40.0	8.7	24.6	36.6	...	33.6
Turkey	39.1	...	42.1	7.9	13.6	46.7	77.1	35.4
Bangladesh	72.8	...	43.9	3.4	...	58.9	...	51.4

¹ The international comparisons presented in this table are given for illustrative purposes only. The limited number of indicators used in calculating the trimmed mean and the large number of missing values in certain cases preclude definitive conclusions as to the relative positions of countries. A more complete set of data with a larger number of indicators may give different rankings of countries.

Source: Compiled from national labour force surveys.

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

Tab.A1,13. Main and additional indicators of decent work and MDG target 1B and 3A indicators
(ILO, 2008)

MDG targets 1.B and 3.A	Main decent work indicators (candidates for consideration)	Additional decent work indicators (candidates for consideration)
Employment opportunities		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Employment-to-population ratio (MDG indicator 1.5) ■ Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment (MDG indicator 1.7) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Employment-to-population ratio (S) (2) ■ Unemployment rate (total) (S) (3) ■ Youth unemployment rate (S) (4) ■ Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment (S) (5b) ■ Informal employment (S) (6) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Unemployment by level of education (S) (3a) ■ Youth not in education and not in employment (S) (4b) ■ Employment by status in employment (S) (5) ■ Share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment (S) (5a) ■ Number and wages of casual/daily workers (S) (6b)
Work that should be abolished		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Children in wage employment or self-employment (S) (8) 		
Adequate earnings and productive work		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Proportion of employed people living below US\$1 (PPP) per day [working poor] (MDG indicator 1.6) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Working poor (S) (9) ■ Low pay rate (S) (10) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Average earnings in selected occupations (S) (12a) ■ Number and wages of casual/daily workers (S) (12b) ■ Manufacturing wage index (12c)
Decent hours		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Excessive hours (S) (14) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Usual hours worked (standardized hour bands) (S) (14a) ■ Annual hours worked per person (S) (14b) ■ Time-related underemployment rate (S) (15)
Stability and security of work		
	[No statistical indicators suggested]	
Combining work and family life		
	[No statistical indicators suggested]	
Equal opportunity and treatment in employment		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (MDG indicator 3.2) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Occupational segregation by sex (19) ■ Female share of employment in managerial and administrative occupations (19a) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Measure of dispersion for sectoral distribution of migrant workers (20)

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

Tab.A1,13 continue

MDG targets 1.B and 3.A	Main decent work indicators (candidates for consideration)	Additional decent work indicators (candidates for consideration)
Safe work environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Occupational injury rate, fatal (21) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Occupational injury rate, non-fatal (21a)
Social security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Public social security expenditure (24) ■ Share of population aged 65 and above benefiting from a pension (S) (25) ■ Health-care expenditures not financed out of pocket by private households (n.a.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Social security coverage (pension and/or health (S) (25a)
Social dialogue and workers' representation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Union density rate (S) (26) ■ Number of enterprises belonging to employer organization (27) ■ Collective wage bargaining coverage rate (S) (28) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Strikes and lockouts/rates of days not worked (29)
Economic and social context for decent work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Children not in school (% by age) (S) (7) ■ Estimated % of working-age population who are HIV positive (31) ■ Labour productivity (GDP per employed person, level and growth rate) (E1) ■ Income inequality (ratio top 10% to bottom 10%, income or consumption) (E3) ■ Inflation rate (CPI) (E4) ■ Employment by branch of economic activity/industry (agriculture, industry, services/ISIC tabulation category) (E5) ■ Education of adult population (adult literacy rate, adult secondary-school graduation rate) (S) (E6) ■ Labour share in GDP (E7) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Real per capita "earnings" [GNI] (from national accounts) (E2) ■ Female share of employment by industry (ISIC tabulation category) (E5a)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Growth rate of GDP per person employed [labour productivity] (MDG indicator 1.4) 		

Notes: S indicates usefulness of separate female and male values expressed as female-to-male ratio and/or female-male difference as appropriate. Limited data availability for separate female and male rates is likely to be a problem for several core indicators. Numbers in brackets refer to reference numbers used in appendix tables 1 and 2. Please see appendix table 2 for a full discussion of all indicators that have been suggested in the past.

Source: ILO compilation.

Annex section 4

Decent work: basic-relations-fairness profile, National level.

DW	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
BASIC											
WH	19,4	19,4	17,3	17,4	25,3	24,1	24,7	24,7	23,9	21,2	21,2
PR	4,7	4,7	4,5	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,1	4,0	3,9	3,6	3,6
LJ	13,3	13,8	12,7	11,6	11,7	12,0	12,0	11,9	11,9	12,2	--
UR	10,0	9,0	8,5	8,4	8,0	7,7	6,8	6,1	6,7	7,8	8,4
RELATIONS											
ME	--	--	--	--	--	41,4	44,6	48,9	52,7	56,9	59,8
EE	--	--	--	--	6,4	5,6	6,1	6,2	6,5	5,9	--
FV	1,1	1,9	5,6	2,5	3,2	2,4	1,1	1,9	1,8	1,8	1,3
FAIRNESS											
EC	--	--	--	--	--	--	10,7	11,3	12,0	12,6	13,1
HW	--	--	--	--	10,0	10,9	8,2	8,2	10,8	39,8	32,8

WHD composition. Italy, years 2004 to 2010 (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

WHD-year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
1-10 h	9,5%	9,0%	8,8%	8,7%	9,5%	10,5%	10,1%
41+ h	90,5%	91,0%	91,2%	91,3%	90,5%	89,5%	89,9%

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Percentage of managers by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	1,1%	0,8%	0,7%	1,0%	0,7%	0,9%	0,3%
	41+ h	43,2%	44,8%	44,8%	44,9%	48,0%	43,5%	44,8%
F	1-10 h	1,1%	1,5%	1,3%	1,1%	0,8%	0,6%	0,6%
	41+ h	27,6%	26,2%	26,2%	28,7%	31,7%	29,3%	28,5%

Percentage of labourers by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	0,9%	0,9%	0,9%	0,8%	0,9%	0,9%	0,8%
	41+ h	18,9%	17,4%	19,0%	18,2%	17,2%	13,4%	13,2%
F	1-10 h	4,7%	4,2%	4,7%	4,7%	5,1%	5,3%	5,2%
	41+ h	8,6%	7,7%	9,1%	8,0%	7,8%	6,8%	7,0%

Percentage of employees by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	1,0%	0,9%	0,9%	0,8%	0,9%	0,9%	0,8%
	41+ h	20,1%	18,4%	20,0%	19,7%	19,0%	15,2%	15,1%
F	1-10 h	3,0%	2,8%	2,9%	2,9%	3,0%	3,1%	3,0%
	41+ h	8,2%	7,3%	8,3%	7,4%	7,7%	6,3%	6,3%

Percentage of entrepreneurs by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	0,7%	0,8%	0,6%	0,8%	0,9%	0,5%	0,5%
	41+ h	62,8%	64,1%	66,0%	69,9%	64,8%	62,5%	66,5%
F	1-10 h	4,1%	2,1%	3,4%	2,7%	3,0%	2,6%	4,4%
	41+ h	38,6%	41,6%	38,5%	42,1%	34,6%	32,5%	34,2%

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

Percentage of professionals by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	3,4%	3,1%	2,7%	3,0%	2,7%	2,9%	2,8%
	41+ h	43,1%	43,5%	42,0%	45,0%	41,9%	41,9%	43,2%
F	1-10 h	6,3%	5,8%	5,7%	5,7%	5,9%	6,8%	6,4%
	41+ h	22,6%	24,0%	23,5%	24,1%	22,0%	21,4%	20,4%

Percentage of self-employed by sex working more than 40 hours and from 1 to 10, Italy, years 2004-2010. (Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

sex	actual weekly worked hours	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
M	1-10 h	2,5%	2,2%	2,0%	2,2%	2,3%	2,1%	2,1%
	41+ h	48,7%	49,9%	49,5%	51,5%	49,3%	47,2%	48,2%
F	1-10 h	7,0%	6,1%	6,2%	5,9%	6,7%	6,3%	6,2%
	41+ h	30,7%	31,7%	30,5%	31,9%	30,4%	29,6%	28,7%

**Contribution of macroareas to national WHD (percentage).Italy, years 2004-2010.
(Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)**

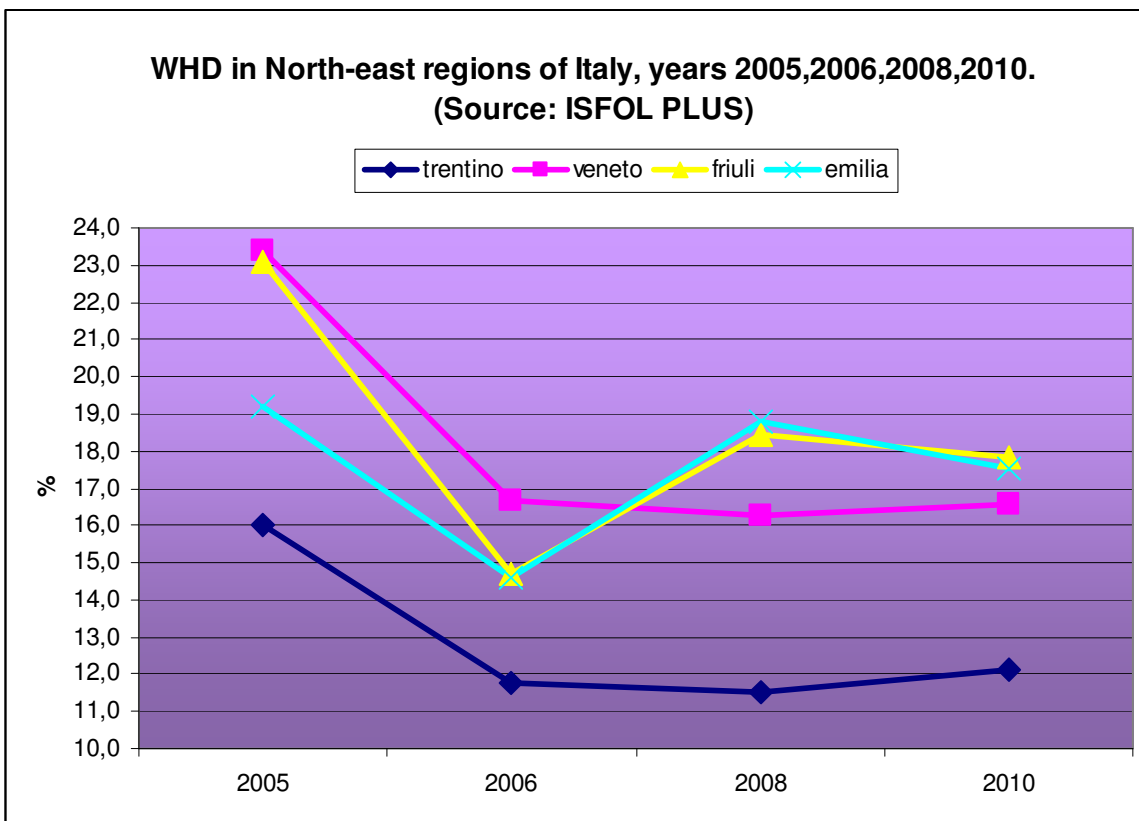
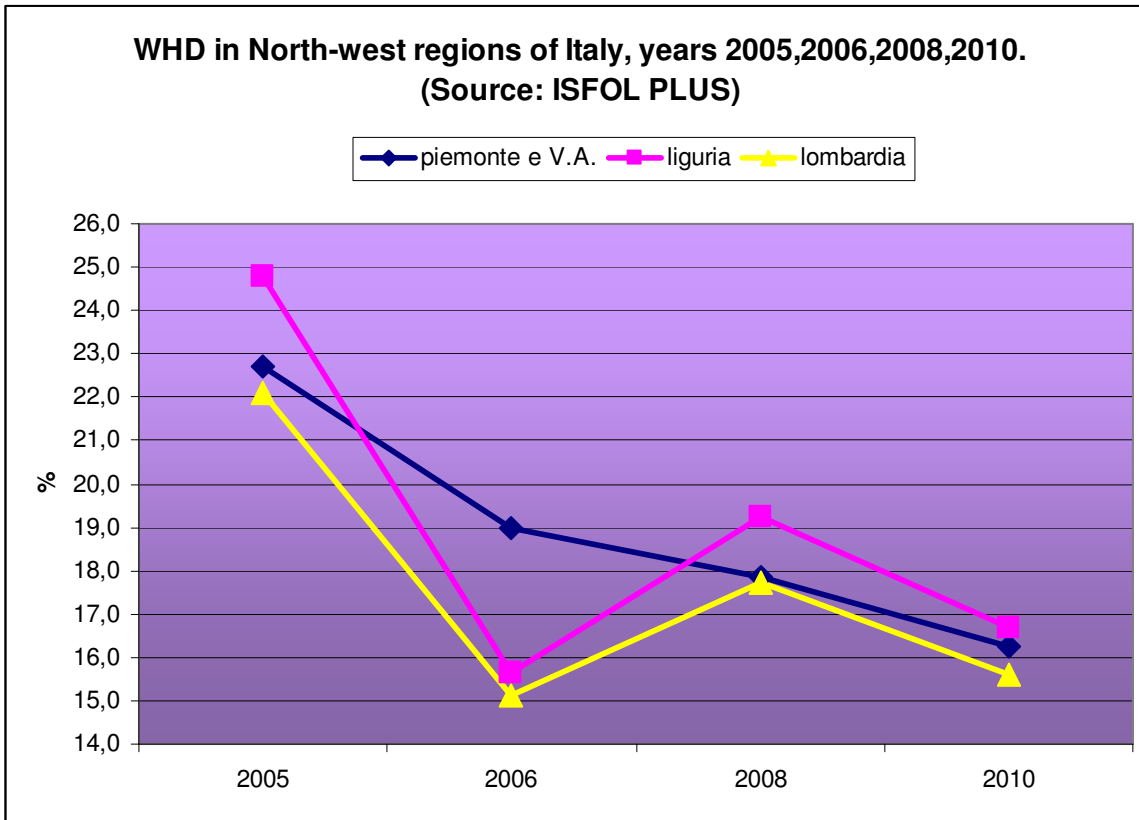
macroareas	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
North-West	29,3	29,3	29,6	29,8	30,2	29,5	29,3	29,6
North-East	21,7	21,8	21,7	22,3	21,9	20,9	21,2	20,4
Centre	19,6	19,4	19,7	20,0	19,8	20,4	20,7	20,8
South	29,5	29,5	29,0	28,0	28,1	29,2	28,9	29,2

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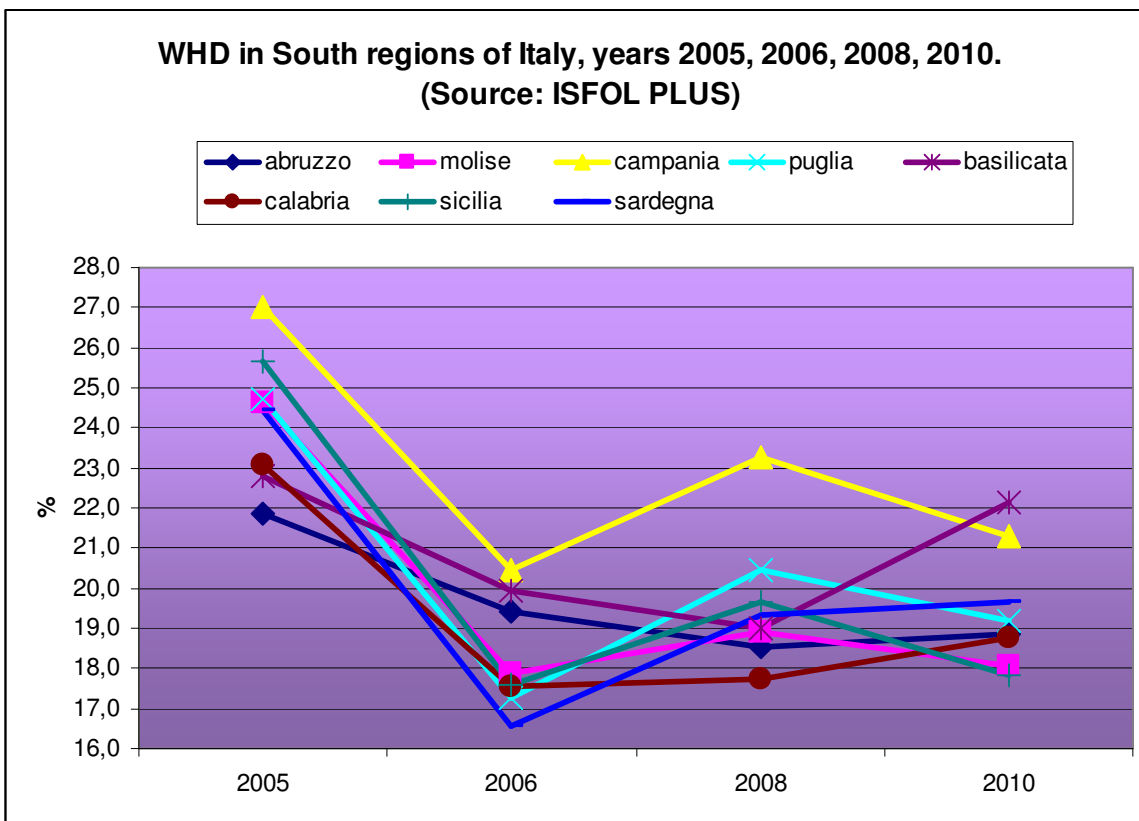
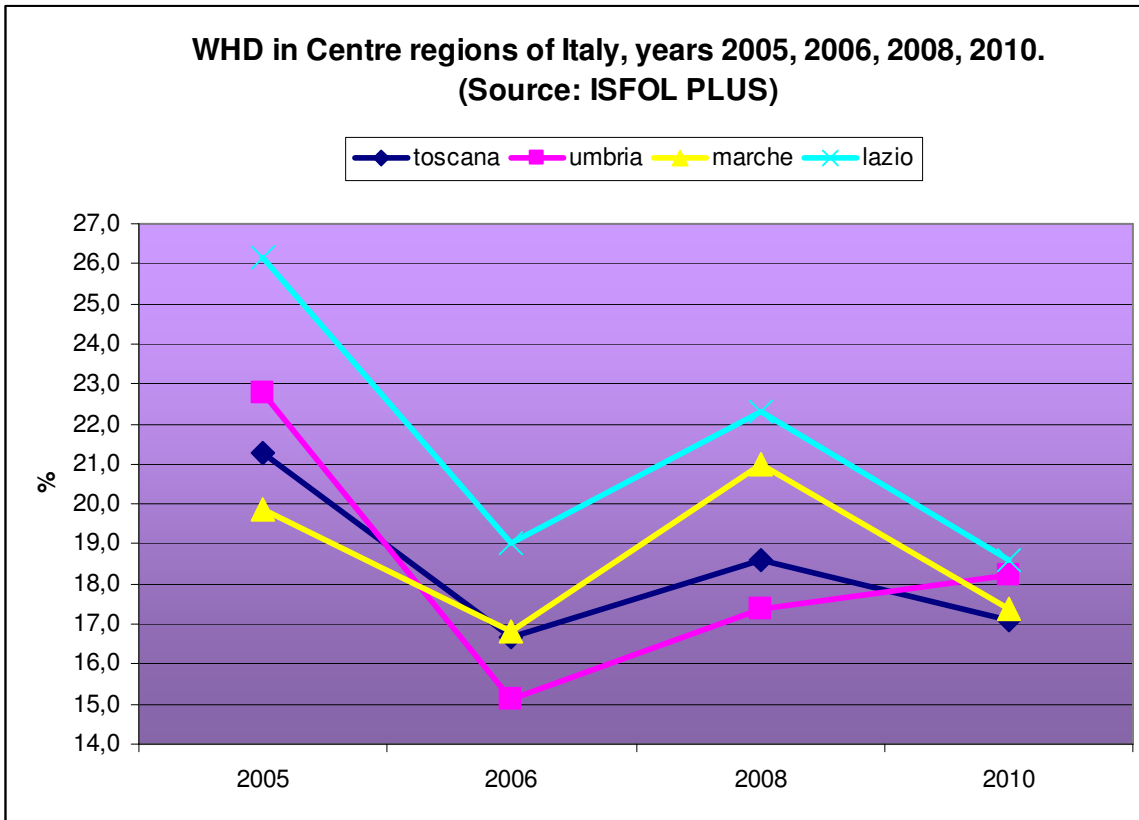
working hours defect (WHD). Italy, macroareas and regions in years 2004-2011
 (Source: own elaborations on data ISTAT and ISFOL PLUS)

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
north	25,3	24,0	24,7	25,0	24,1	20,7	20,7	18,7
north/west	25,1	23,7	24,7	24,8	24,3	21,0	20,9	19,3
north/east	25,5	24,3	24,7	25,3	23,9	20,3	20,4	17,9
centre	24,5	23,1	24,0	24,0	22,8	20,6	20,8	19,2
south	26,0	25,0	25,3	24,6	24,3	22,7	22,6	20,9
ITALY	25,3	24,1	24,7	24,7	23,9	21,2	21,2	19,4
piemonte	--	22,7	19,0	--	17,9	--	16,3	--
valle d'aosta	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
liguria	--	24,8	15,7	--	19,2	--	16,7	--
lombardia	--	22,1	15,1	--	17,7	--	15,6	--
trentino	--	16,0	11,8	--	11,5	--	12,1	--
veneto	--	23,4	16,7	--	16,3	--	16,6	--
friuli	--	23,1	14,7	--	18,4	--	17,8	--
emilia	--	19,2	14,6	--	18,8	--	17,5	--
toscana	--	21,3	16,7	--	18,6	--	17,1	--
umbria	--	22,8	15,1	--	17,4	--	18,2	--
marche	--	19,9	16,8	--	21,0	--	17,4	--
lazio	--	26,1	19,0	--	22,3	--	18,6	--
abruzzo	--	21,9	19,4	--	18,5	--	18,9	--
molise	--	24,6	17,9	--	18,9	--	18,1	--
campania	--	27,0	20,5	--	23,3	--	21,3	--
puglia	--	24,7	17,2	--	20,4	--	19,2	--
basilicata	--	22,8	19,9	--	19,0	--	22,1	--
calabria	--	23,1	17,5	--	17,7	--	18,8	--
sicilia	--	25,7	17,6	--	19,7	--	17,8	--
sardegna	--	24,4	16,6	--	19,3	--	19,6	--

PROVISIONAL DRAFT



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physical safety defect (PSD). Italy, macroareas and regions in years 2000-2010

(Source: own elaborations on data INAIL)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
north	5,7	5,7	5,4	5,3	5,2	5,0	4,9	4,8	4,5	4,1	4,1
north/west	4,5	4,6	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,0	4,0	3,9	3,7	3,4	3,4
north/east	7,2	7,1	6,8	6,7	6,7	6,3	6,3	6,1	5,7	5,1	5,0
centre	4,6	4,6	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,0	4,0	3,9	3,7	3,5	3,5
south	3,1	3,0	2,8	2,8	2,8	2,8	2,8	2,8	2,7	2,7	2,7
ITALY	4,7	4,7	4,5	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,1	4,0	3,9	3,6	3,6
piemonte	4,8	4,8	4,6	4,5	4,3	4,1	4,1	4,0	3,8	3,5	3,4
valle d'aosta	4,5	4,9	4,9	4,9	5,4	5,0	4,8	4,3	4,4	4,2	4,1
liguria	5,2	5,4	5,4	5,5	5,3	4,9	4,9	4,7	4,5	4,5	4,6
lombardia	4,3	4,3	4,1	4,0	3,9	3,8	3,8	3,7	3,5	3,2	3,2
trentino	7,2	7,3	6,7	7,0	7,0	6,9	6,9	6,7	6,4	6,0	6,1
veneto	6,9	6,8	6,4	6,1	5,9	5,5	5,5	5,3	4,9	4,3	4,2
friuli	6,4	6,5	6,3	6,2	6,0	5,6	5,7	5,6	5,2	4,6	4,5
emilia	7,9	7,7	7,5	7,4	7,6	7,3	7,1	6,9	6,5	5,8	5,8
toscana	5,4	5,4	5,3	5,2	5,1	4,9	4,8	4,8	4,6	4,3	4,3
umbria	6,4	6,5	6,4	6,3	6,1	5,8	5,6	5,2	4,8	4,5	4,4
marche	6,7	6,7	6,4	6,1	5,7	5,6	5,4	5,2	4,9	4,3	4,2
lazio	2,9	3,0	2,8	2,8	2,7	2,7	2,8	2,7	2,6	2,5	2,5
abruzzo	5,4	5,3	5,2	5,3	5,3	5,2	5,2	4,9	4,6	4,8	5,1
molise	4,9	4,6	4,1	4,3	4,0	4,0	3,9	3,5	3,2	3,1	3,0
campania	2,3	2,1	1,9	1,9	1,9	1,8	1,9	1,8	1,8	1,7	1,6
puglia	3,9	3,9	3,7	3,6	3,6	3,5	3,4	3,3	3,2	3,1	3,0
basilicata	4,6	4,5	3,9	3,7	3,6	3,5	3,6	3,5	3,3	3,3	3,2
calabria	2,5	2,4	2,4	2,3	2,2	2,4	2,4	2,5	2,5	2,5	2,5
sicilia	2,5	2,4	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,2	2,3	2,4	2,5	2,4	2,5
sardegna	3,1	3,1	3,0	3,1	3,2	3,2	3,2	3,1	3,1	3,1	3,2

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

physical safety defect (PSD). Italian provinces, years 2006-2010
(Source: own elaborations on data INAIL)

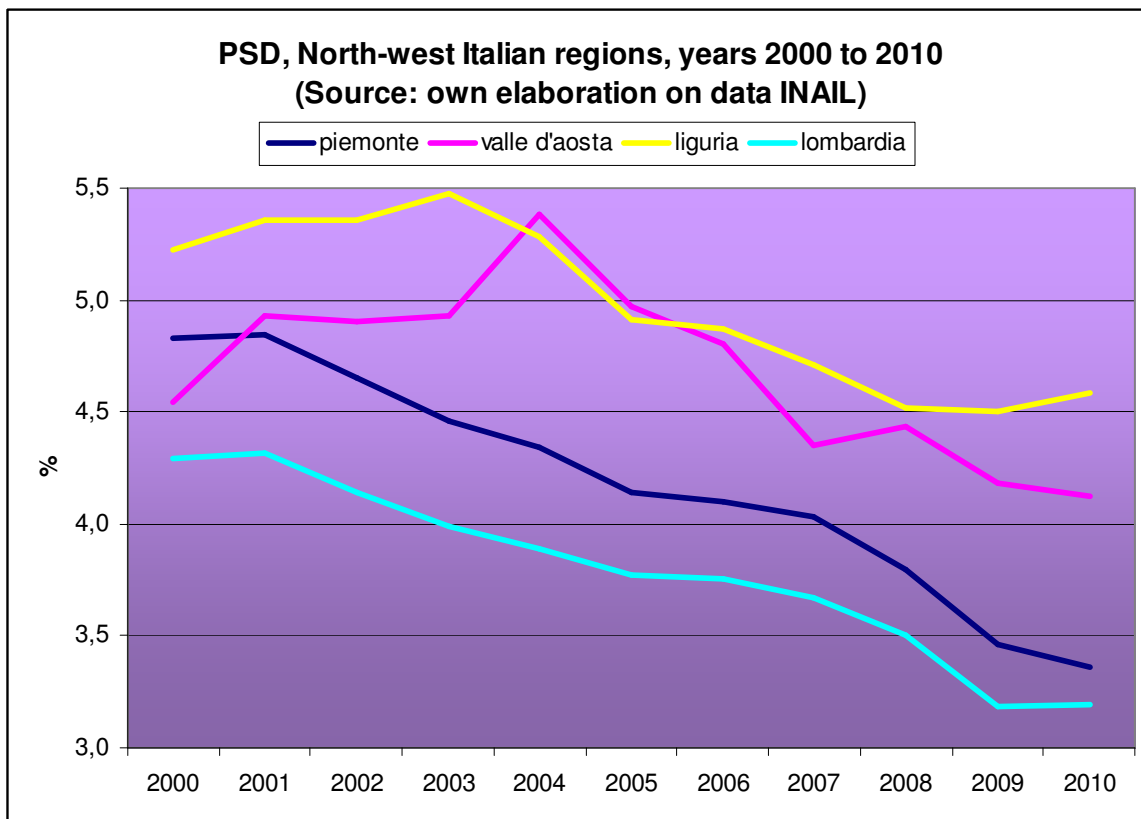
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
ALESSANDRIA	5,0	4,9	4,7	4,3	3,9
ASTI	4,4	4,2	3,9	3,6	3,5
BIELLA	2,7	2,5	2,4	2,1	2,1
CUNEO	5,0	4,7	4,5	4,2	4,1
NOVARA	3,8	3,6	3,4	3,1	2,9
TORINO	3,8	3,8	3,6	3,3	3,2
VERBANIA	3,7	3,4	3,2	2,8	2,6
VERCELLI	5,0	5,2	4,7	3,5	3,6
AOSTA	4,8	4,3	4,4	4,2	4,1
BERGAMO	4,4	4,3	4,2	3,6	3,6
BRESCIA	4,9	4,8	4,3	3,5	3,6
COMO	3,9	3,5	3,3	2,9	2,8
CREMONA	5,3	4,8	4,5	4,2	4,1
LECCO	3,8	3,7	3,4	3,1	3,2
LODI	3,4	3,4	3,3	2,6	2,7
MANTOVA	5,1	5,0	4,3	3,9	3,8
MILANO	3,0	3,0	3,0	2,9	2,4
PAVIA	3,3	3,2	2,9	2,5	2,6
SONDRIO	4,4	4,1	3,7	3,3	3,5
VARESE	3,8	3,7	3,8	3,4	3,3
GENOVA	4,7	4,6	4,5	4,6	4,5
IMPERIA	5,1	4,7	4,3	4,1	4,1
LA SPEZIA	4,7	4,9	4,7	4,9	5,6
SAVONA	5,3	5,0	4,6	4,2	4,3
BOLZANO	7,8	7,8	7,6	7,4	7,5
TRENTO	5,8	5,6	5,1	4,5	4,7
BELLUNO	5,2	5,2	4,6	4,1	3,9
PADOVA	5,1	4,7	4,4	4,0	3,9
ROVIGO	4,0	4,1	3,7	3,4	3,3
TREVISO	5,6	5,5	5,0	4,5	4,5
VENEZIA	5,5	5,2	4,8	4,3	4,0
VERONA	5,9	5,6	5,4	4,7	4,5
VICENZA	5,8	5,8	5,5	4,5	4,6
GORIZIA	7,3	7,1	6,7	6,1	5,9
PORDENONE	5,8	5,8	5,2	4,2	4,0
TRIESTE	5,7	5,7	5,6	5,5	5,4
UDINE	5,1	5,0	4,7	4,1	4,0
BOLOGNA	6,6	6,4	6,1	5,4	5,4
FERRARA	5,5	5,2	4,8	4,2	4,2
FORLI CESENA	7,4	7,2	7,4	6,3	6,4
MODENA	7,9	7,8	7,1	5,9	6,0
PARMA	7,1	6,6	6,2	5,8	5,7
PIACENZA	6,2	5,8	5,4	4,8	4,8

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

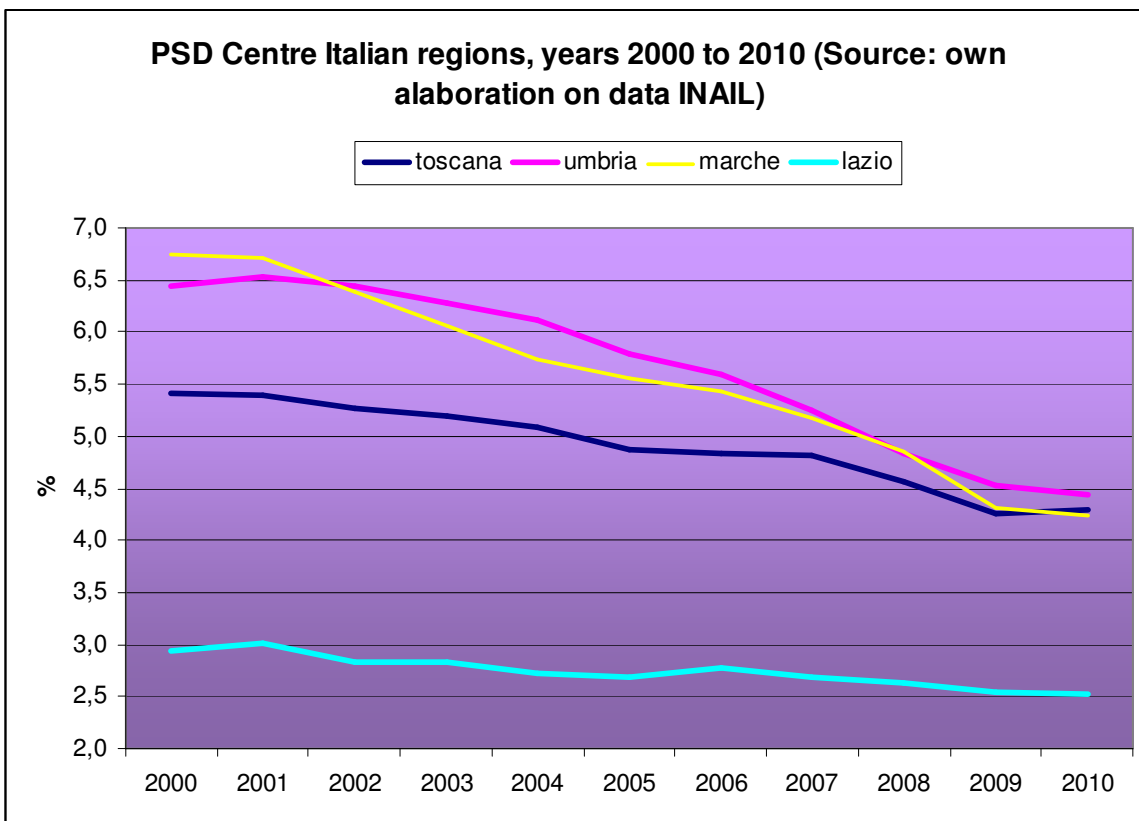
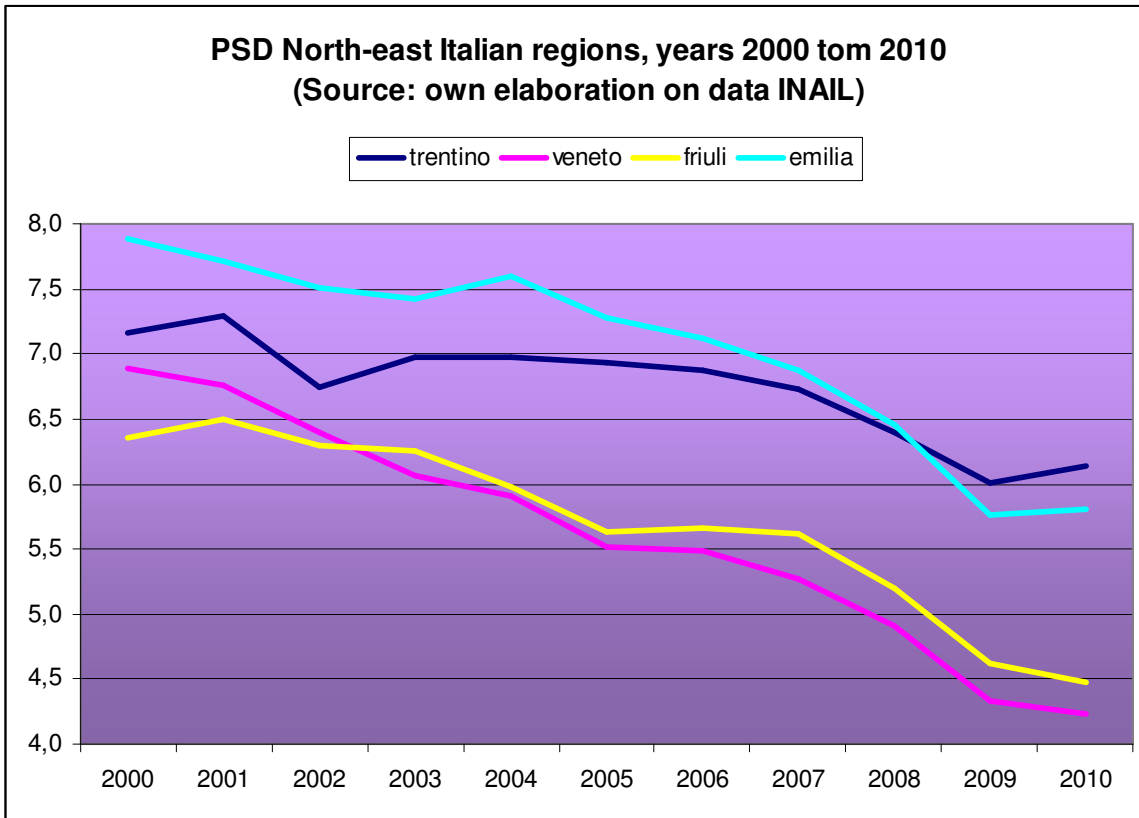
RAVENNA	7,4	7,0	6,7	6,4	6,2
REGGIO EMILIA	7,7	7,5	7,0	6,4	6,5
RIMINI	8,1	7,8	6,9	6,1	6,6
AREZZO	4,7	4,6	4,3	3,9	3,8
FIRENZE	4,1	4,1	3,8	3,7	3,8
GROSSETO	4,2	4,2	4,0	3,7	3,6
LIVORNO	6,4	6,5	5,9	5,3	5,4
LUCCA	6,1	6,2	6,2	5,9	6,1
MASSA C.	6,2	6,6	6,3	5,4	5,2
PISA	4,6	4,5	4,2	4,1	4,3
PISTOIA	4,4	4,3	4,4	4,1	3,7
PRATO	3,7	3,7	3,4	2,6	2,8
SIENA	5,5	5,3	4,8	4,6	4,6
PERUGIA	6,0	5,6	5,1	4,7	4,6
TERNI	4,3	4,1	3,9	3,7	3,6
ANCONA	6,1	5,8	5,6	4,8	4,7
ASCOLI P.	4,5	4,0	3,9	3,8	2,3
MACERATA	5,2	4,9	4,3	4,1	3,9
PESARO URBINO	5,7	5,8	5,4	4,2	4,2
FROSINONE	3,4	3,4	3,2	3,0	2,8
LATINA	2,6	2,6	2,7	2,5	2,2
RIETI	3,4	3,2	3,1	2,9	2,9
ROMA	2,7	2,6	2,6	2,5	2,5
VITERBO	2,6	2,5	2,3	2,1	2,1
CHIETI	5,7	5,6	5,6	5,6	5,7
L'AQUILA	4,1	3,8	3,7	3,9	3,9
PESCARA	5,3	5,0	4,3	4,2	4,5
TERAMO	5,5	5,1	4,7	4,3	4,2
CAMPOBASSO	4,0	3,5	3,2	3,2	3,0
ISERNIA	3,7	3,5	3,2	2,8	2,8
AVELLINO	2,2	2,0	1,9	1,7	1,6
BENEVENTO	2,4	2,2	2,1	2,0	2,0
CASERTA	1,9	1,8	1,8	1,6	1,5
NAPOLI	1,7	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,5
SALERNO	2,2	2,1	2,0	2,0	1,9
BARI	3,4	3,2	3,0	3,0	2,4
BRINDISI	3,7	3,8	3,7	3,8	3,9
FOGGIA	3,3	3,3	3,1	3,2	2,9
LECCE	2,5	2,6	2,6	2,5	2,5
TARANTO	4,8	4,5	4,2	3,6	3,7
MATERA	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,3	3,3
POTENZA	3,6	3,5	3,2	3,3	3,2
CATANZARO	3,2	3,5	3,2	3,2	2,9
COSENZA	2,4	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3
CROTONE	2,3	2,3	2,5	2,6	2,4

PROVISIONAL DRAFT

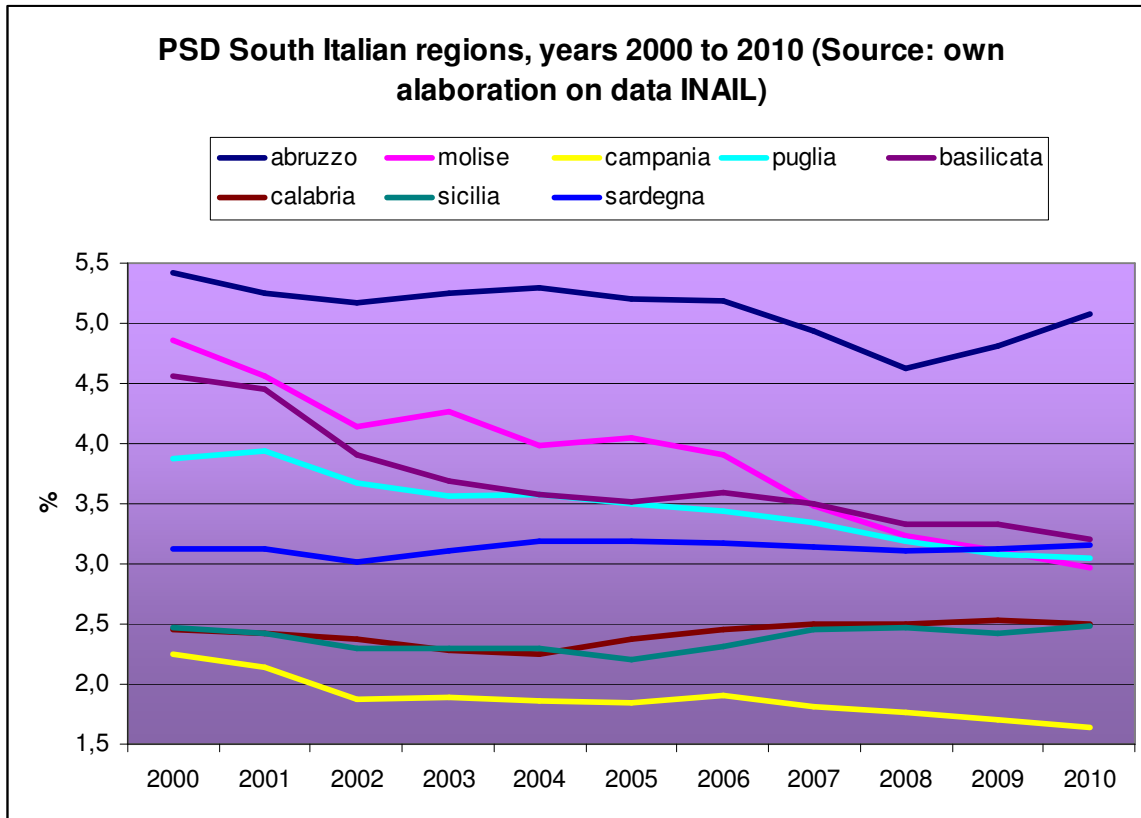
REGGIO C.	1,9	2,0	2,2	2,2	2,2
VIBO VALENTIA	3,0	3,2	2,9	2,7	2,6
AGRIGENTO	1,9	2,1	2,2	2,2	2,5
CALTANISSETTA	2,1	2,2	2,1	2,4	2,3
CATANIA	2,2	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,5
ENNA	2,7	2,8	2,8	2,7	2,6
MESSINA	2,6	2,8	2,8	2,7	2,6
PALERMO	2,0	2,0	2,1	2,0	2,1
RAGUSA	3,7	3,8	3,7	3,6	3,6
SIRACUSA	2,3	2,7	2,6	2,4	2,3
TRAPANI	2,3	2,3	2,5	2,5	2,5
CAGLIARI	3,1	3,0	4,0	3,0	3,1
NUORO	3,2	3,3	4,9	2,9	2,7
ORISTANO	3,4	3,3	2,9	3,2	4,0
SASSARI	3,2	3,2	5,3	3,0	2,6
OLBIA-TEMPIO				3,4	3,0
OGLIASTRA				3,4	3,3
MEDIO-CAMP.				2,9	2,7
CARBONIA-IGL.				2,8	3,5



PROVISIONAL DRAFT



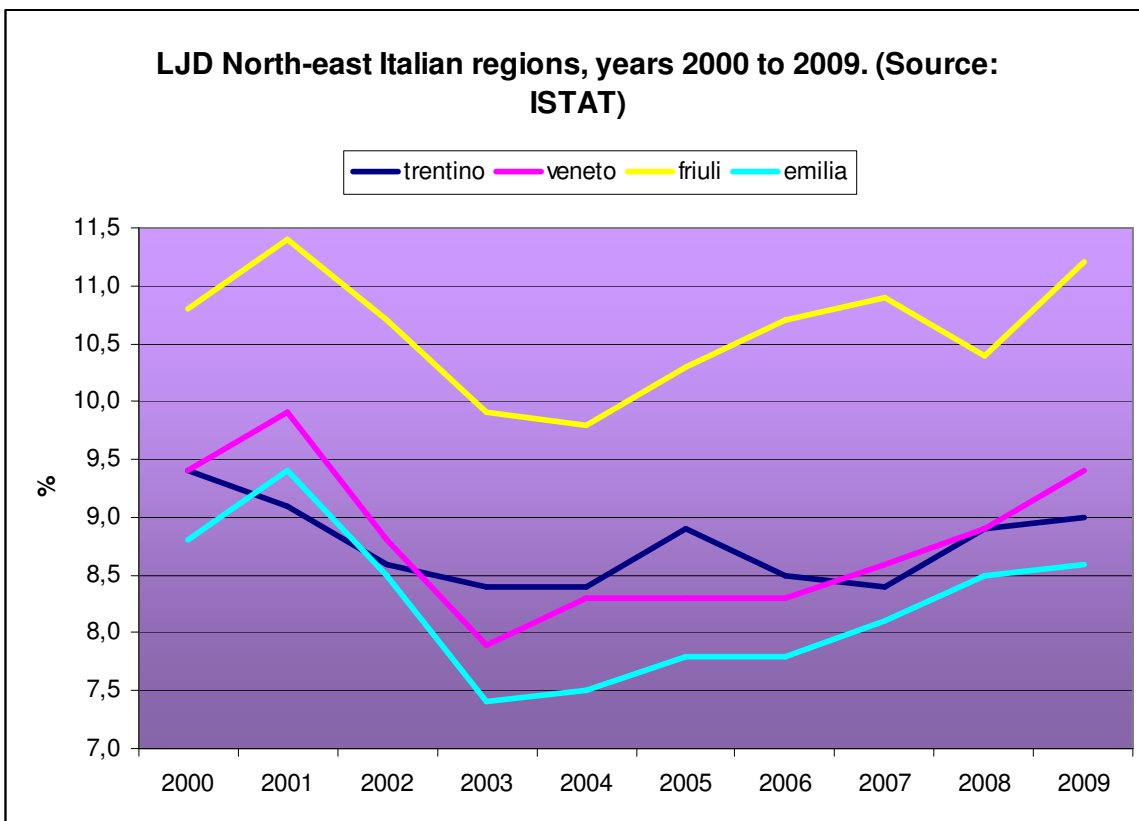
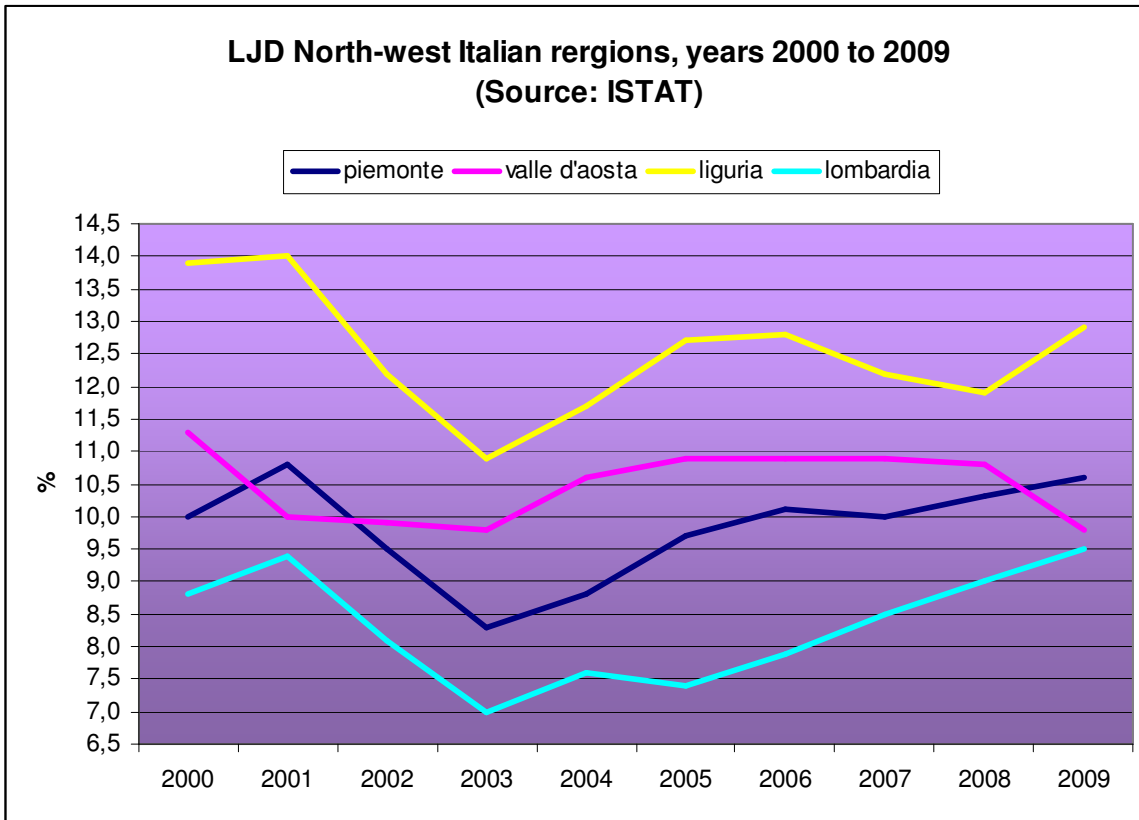
PROVISIONAL DRAFT



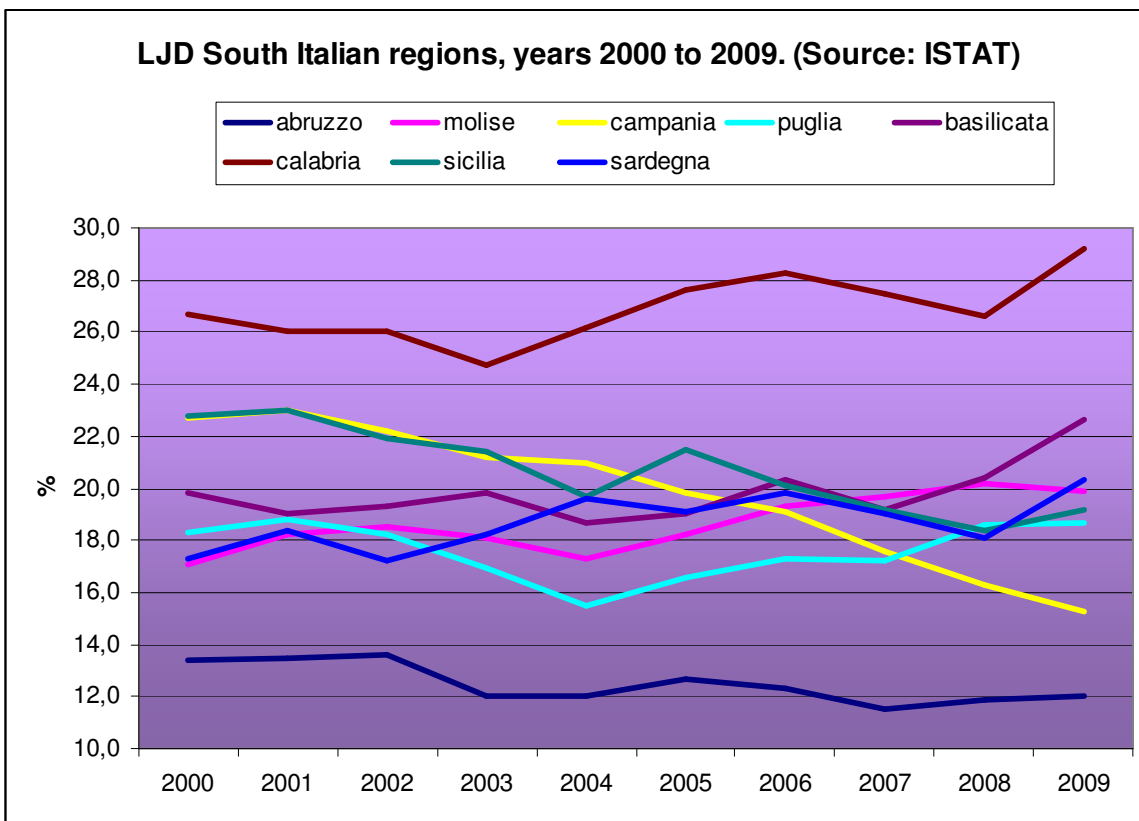
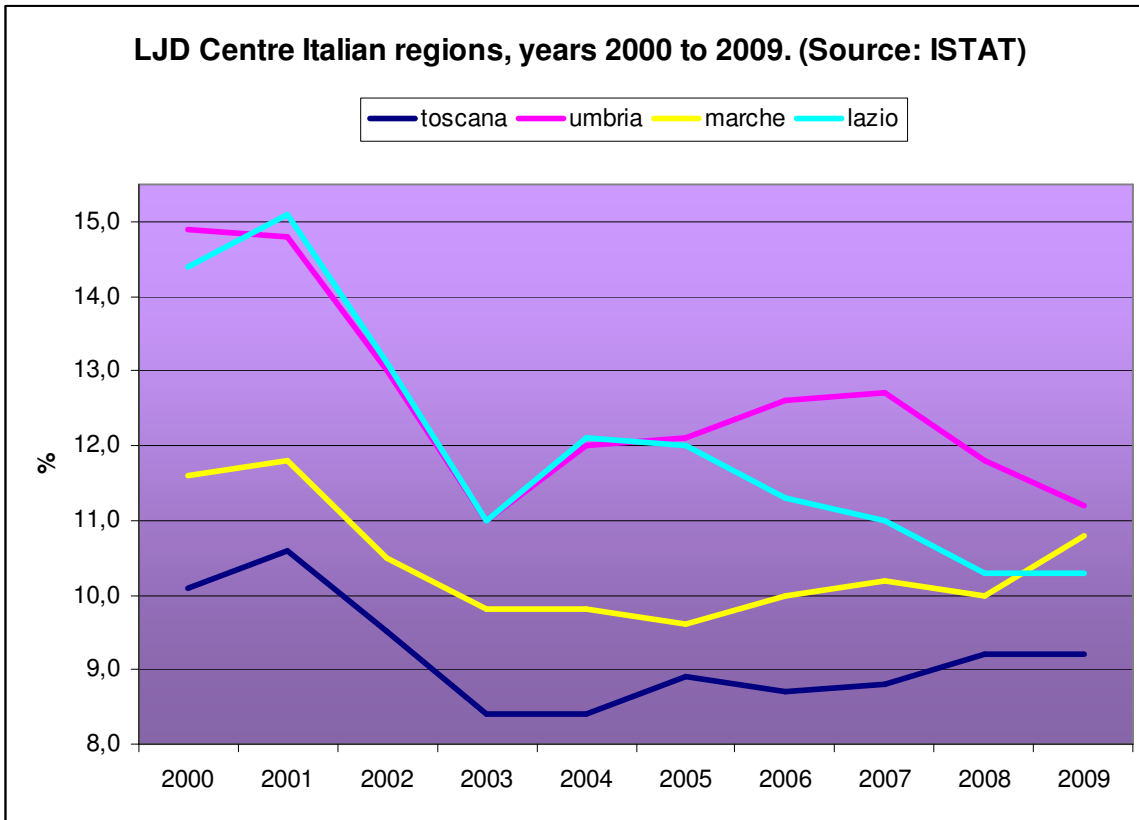
legality of jobs defect (LJD). Italy, macroareas and regions in years 2000-2009 (Source: ISTAT)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
north	9,5	10,0	8,9	7,9	8,3	8,5	8,7	8,9	9,3	9,7
north/west	9,7	10,2	8,9	7,7	8,3	8,5	9,0	9,2	9,6	10,1
north/east	9,3	9,8	8,9	8,0	8,2	8,4	8,4	8,6	8,9	9,2
centre	12,6	13,1	11,5	10,0	10,5	10,7	10,3	10,3	10,0	10,1
south	20,8	21,1	20,4	19,7	19,2	19,7	19,5	18,6	18,3	18,8
ITALY	13,3	13,8	12,7	11,6	11,7	12,0	12,0	11,9	11,9	12,2
piemonte	10,0	10,8	9,5	8,3	8,8	9,7	10,1	10,0	10,3	10,6
valle d'aosta	11,3	10,0	9,9	9,8	10,6	10,9	10,9	10,9	10,8	9,8
liguria	13,9	14,0	12,2	10,9	11,7	12,7	12,8	12,2	11,9	12,9
lombardia	8,8	9,4	8,1	7,0	7,6	7,4	7,9	8,5	9,0	9,5
trentino	9,4	9,1	8,6	8,4	8,4	8,9	8,5	8,4	8,9	9,0
veneto	9,4	9,9	8,8	7,9	8,3	8,3	8,3	8,6	8,9	9,4
friuli	10,8	11,4	10,7	9,9	9,8	10,3	10,7	10,9	10,4	11,2
emilia	8,8	9,4	8,5	7,4	7,5	7,8	7,8	8,1	8,5	8,6
toscana	10,1	10,6	9,5	8,4	8,4	8,9	8,7	8,8	9,2	9,2
umbria	14,9	14,8	13,0	11,0	12,0	12,1	12,6	12,7	11,8	11,2
marche	11,6	11,8	10,5	9,8	9,8	9,6	10,0	10,2	10,0	10,8
lazio	14,4	15,1	13,1	11,0	12,1	12,0	11,3	11,0	10,3	10,3
abruzzo	13,4	13,5	13,6	12,0	12,0	12,7	12,3	11,5	11,9	12,0
molise	17,1	18,2	18,5	18,1	17,3	18,2	19,3	19,7	20,2	19,9
campania	22,7	23,0	22,2	21,2	21,0	19,8	19,1	17,6	16,3	15,3
puglia	18,3	18,8	18,2	16,9	15,5	16,6	17,3	17,2	18,6	18,7
basilicata	19,8	19,0	19,3	19,8	18,7	19,0	20,3	19,2	20,4	22,6
calabria	26,7	26,0	26,0	24,7	26,2	27,6	28,3	27,5	26,6	29,2
sicilia	22,8	23,0	21,9	21,4	19,7	21,5	20,1	19,2	18,4	19,2
sardegna	17,3	18,4	17,2	18,2	19,6	19,1	19,8	19,0	18,1	20,3

PROVISIONAL DRAFT



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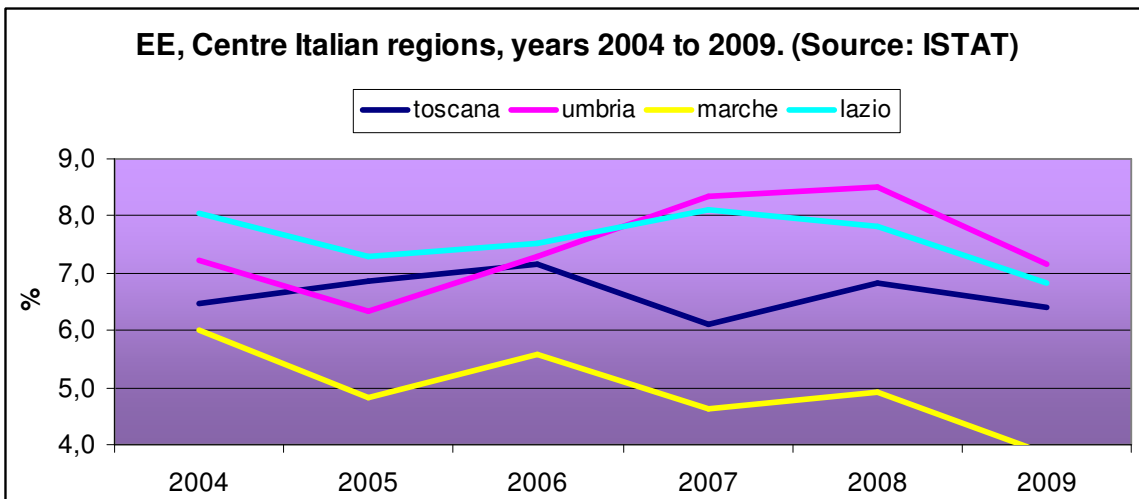
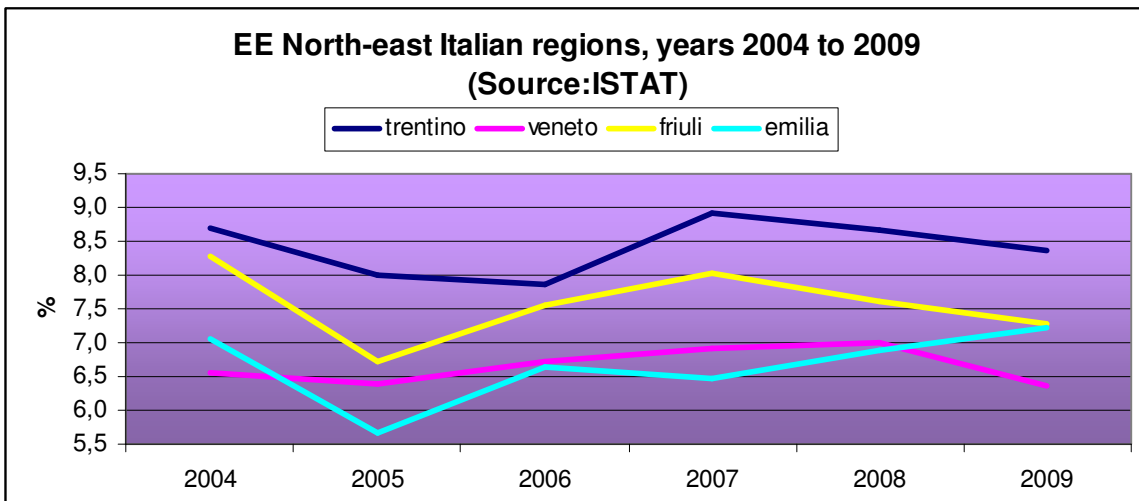
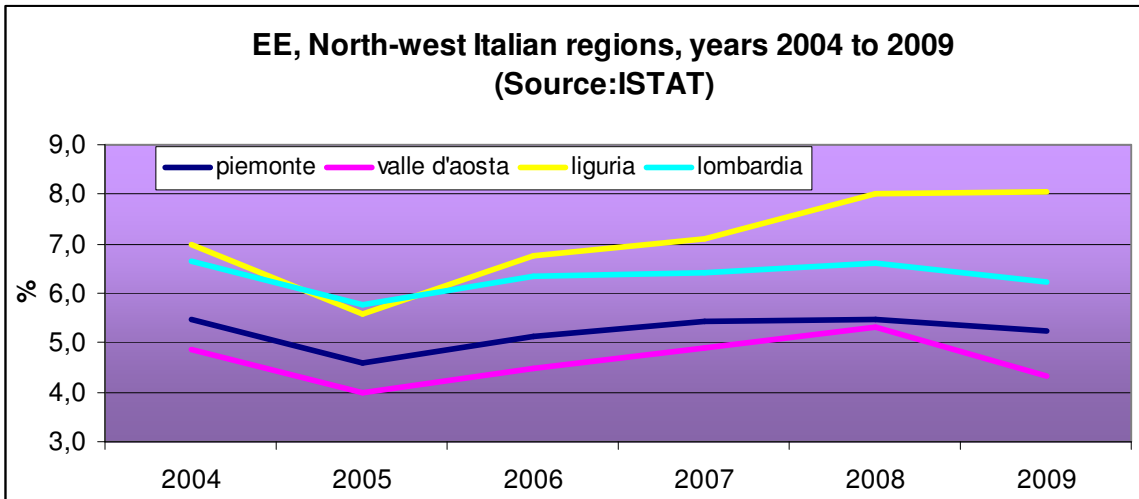
unemployment rate pressure (URP). Italy and macroareas, years 2004-2011
(Source: own elaborations on data ISTAT)

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
north	5,5	5,7	5,4	5,0	5,4	7,1	8,0	7,9
north/west	6,0	6,0	5,5	5,4	5,9	7,6	8,4	8,5
north/east	4,9	5,2	5,1	4,4	4,7	6,3	7,4	7,0
centre	8,8	8,9	8,8	7,9	8,5	9,9	10,5	10,8
south	22,8	23,3	21,6	21,6	22,7	23,3	25,0	25,0
ITALY	11,8	12,1	11,3	10,9	11,6	12,7	13,8	13,8

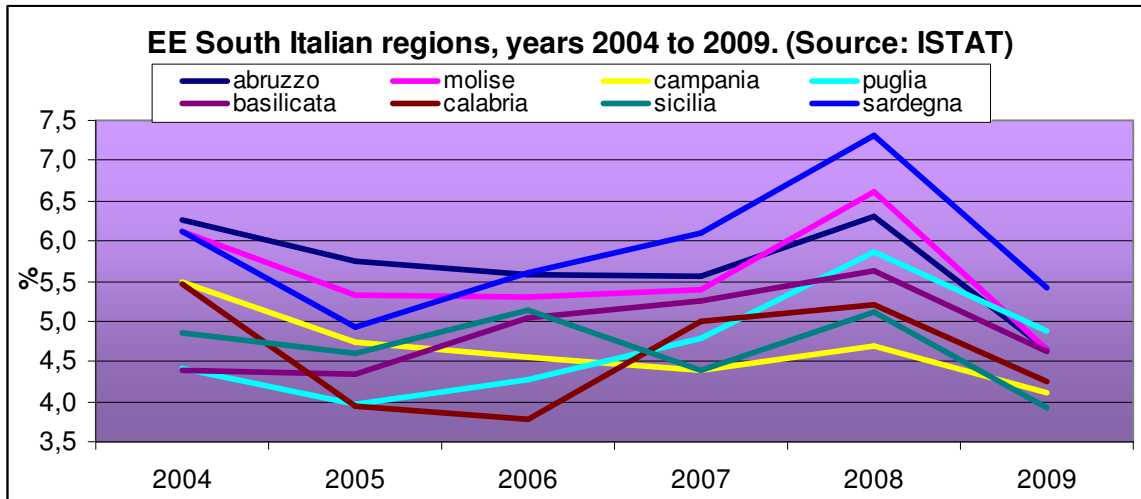
educational enrichment (EE). Italy, macroareas and regions in years 2004-2009 (Source: ISTAT)

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
north	6,7	5,8	6,4	6,6	6,7	6,5
north/west	6,3	5,4	6,0	6,2	6,4	6,1
north/east	7,1	6,3	6,9	7,0	7,2	7,0
centre	7,2	6,7	7,1	7,0	7,2	6,3
south	5,2	4,6	4,8	4,8	5,5	4,4
ITALY	6,4	5,6	6,1	6,2	6,5	5,9
piemonte	5,5	4,6	5,1	5,4	5,5	5,2
valle d'aosta	4,9	4,0	4,5	4,9	5,3	4,3
liguria	7,0	5,6	6,8	7,1	8,0	8,1
lombardia	6,6	5,8	6,3	6,4	6,6	6,2
trentino	8,7	8,0	7,9	8,9	8,7	8,4
veneto	6,6	6,4	6,7	6,9	7,0	6,4
friuli	8,3	6,7	7,6	8,0	7,6	7,3
emilia	7,0	5,7	6,6	6,5	6,9	7,2
toscana	6,5	6,9	7,2	6,1	6,8	6,4
umbria	7,2	6,3	7,3	8,3	8,5	7,1
marche	6,0	4,8	5,6	4,6	4,9	3,8
lazio	8,0	7,3	7,5	8,1	7,8	6,8
abruzzo	6,3	5,7	5,6	5,6	6,3	4,6
molise	6,1	5,3	5,3	5,4	6,6	4,6
campania	5,5	4,7	4,6	4,4	4,7	4,1
puglia	4,4	4,0	4,3	4,8	5,9	4,9
basilicata	4,4	4,3	5,0	5,2	5,6	4,6
calabria	5,5	4,0	3,8	5,0	5,2	4,3
sicilia	4,9	4,6	5,1	4,4	5,1	3,9
sardegna	6,1	4,9	5,6	6,1	7,3	5,4

PROVISIONAL DRAFT



PROVISIONAL DRAFT



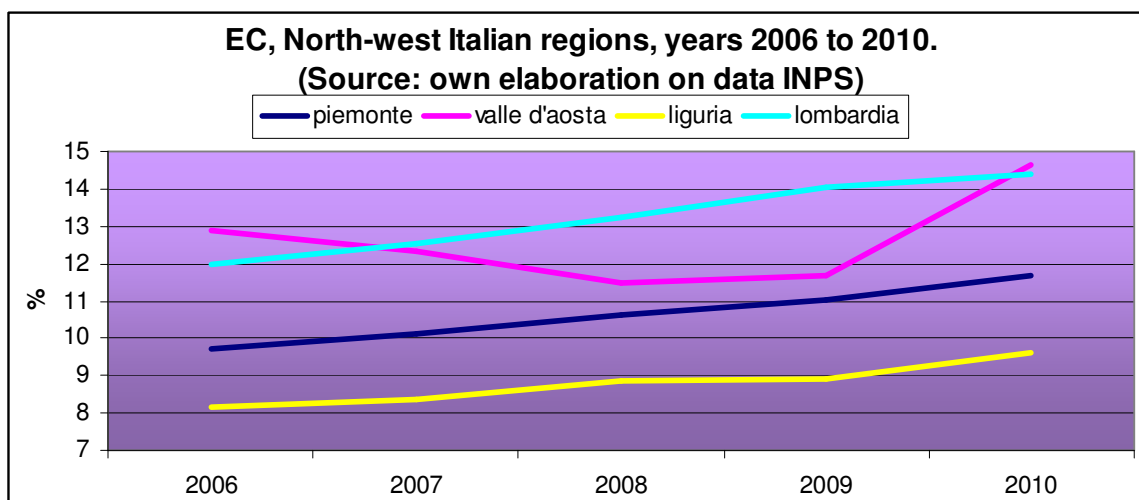
Comparison between N°strikes and workers participat ing. Italy, years 200 to 2008.
(Source: own elaboration on data ILO)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
workers on strike (millions)	687	1.125	5.442	2.561	709	961	467	906	669
N. strikes	966	746	616	710	745	654	587	667	621

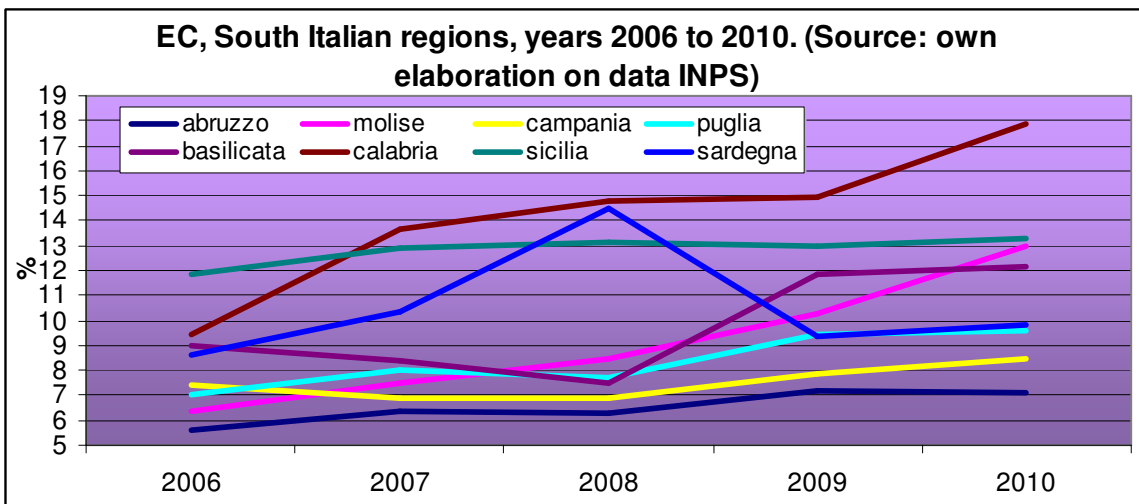
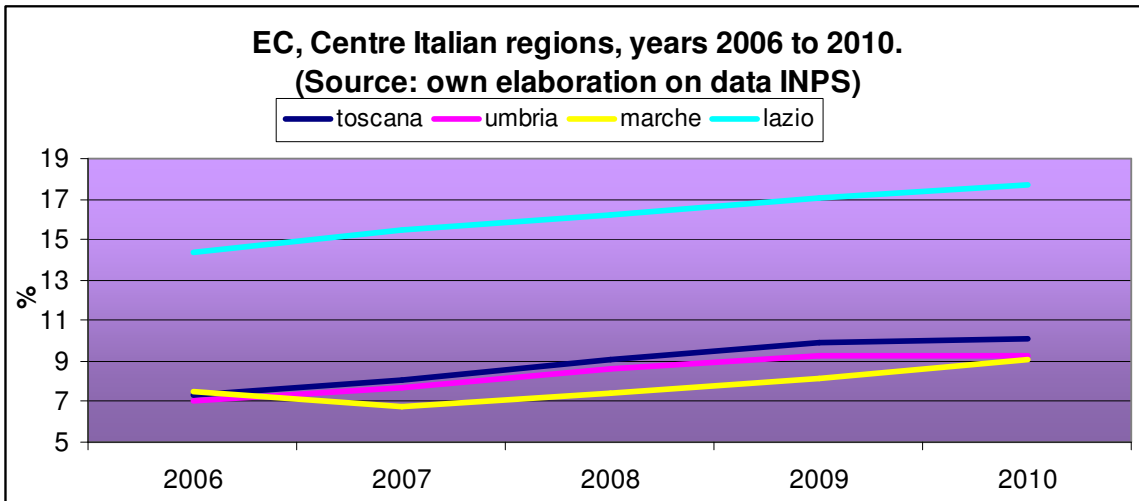
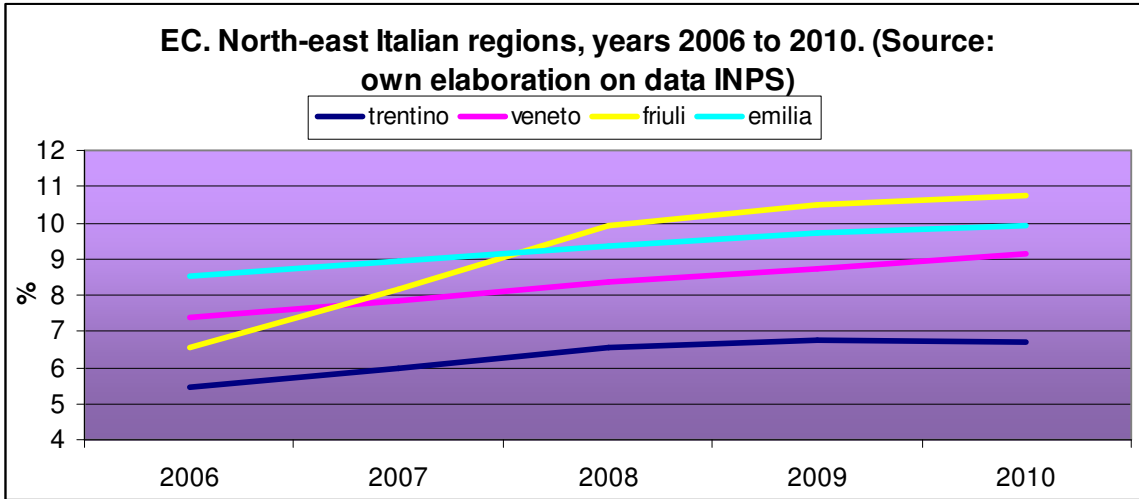
PROVISIONAL DRAFT

equal chance (EC). Italy, macroareas and regions in years 2006-2010 (Source: own elaboration on data INPS)

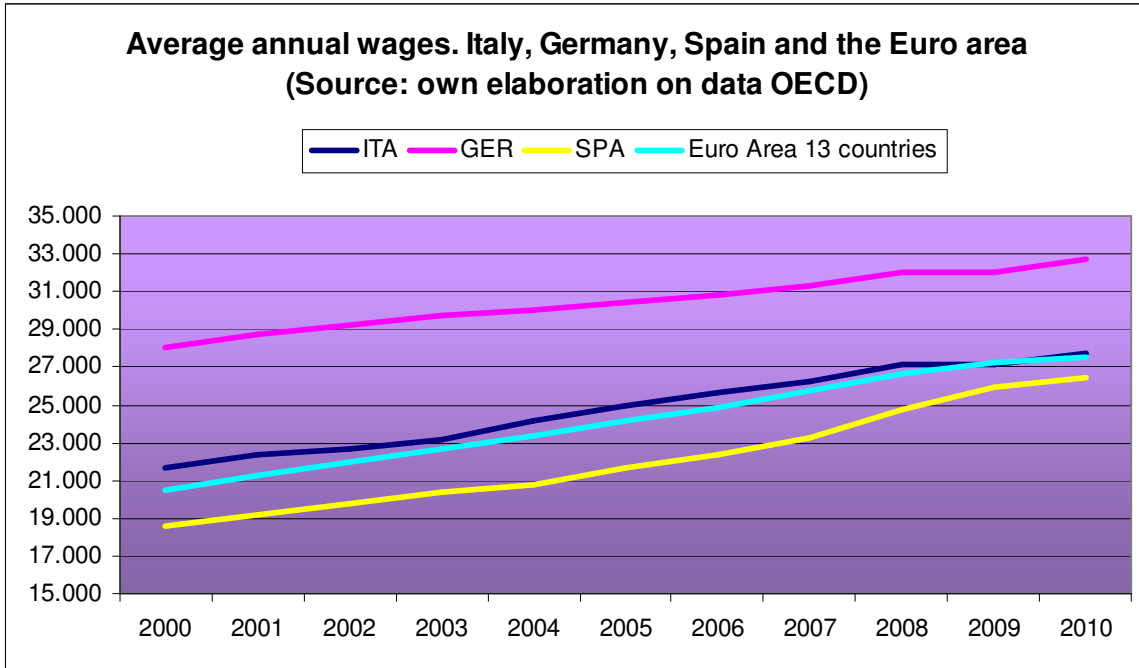
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
north	10,4	10,9	11,6	12,2	12,6
north/west	11,4	11,9	12,6	13,3	13,7
north/east	7,7	8,3	8,8	9,2	9,5
centre	12,5	13,5	14,2	15,0	15,6
south	8,3	8,9	9,4	9,7	10,3
ITALY	10,7	11,3	12,0	12,6	13,1
piemonte	9,7	10,1	10,6	11,0	11,7
valle d'aosta	12,9	12,3	11,5	11,7	14,6
liguria	8,2	8,4	8,8	8,9	9,6
lombardia	12,0	12,5	13,3	14,0	14,4
trentino	5,4	6,0	6,5	6,8	6,7
veneto	7,4	7,9	8,4	8,7	9,2
friuli	6,5	8,2	9,9	10,5	10,7
emilia	8,5	9,0	9,3	9,7	9,9
toscana	7,3	8,1	9,1	9,9	10,1
umbria	7,0	7,7	8,6	9,3	9,3
marche	7,5	6,7	7,4	8,2	9,1
lazio	14,4	15,5	16,2	17,0	17,7
abruzzo	5,6	6,3	6,3	7,2	7,1
molise	6,4	7,5	8,5	10,3	13,0
campania	7,4	6,9	6,9	7,9	8,5
puglia	7,0	8,0	7,7	9,4	9,6
basilicata	9,0	8,4	7,4	11,9	12,2
calabria	9,5	13,7	14,8	15,0	17,9
sicilia	11,9	12,9	13,1	13,0	13,3
sardegna	8,6	10,4	14,5	9,3	9,8



PROVISIONAL DRAFT

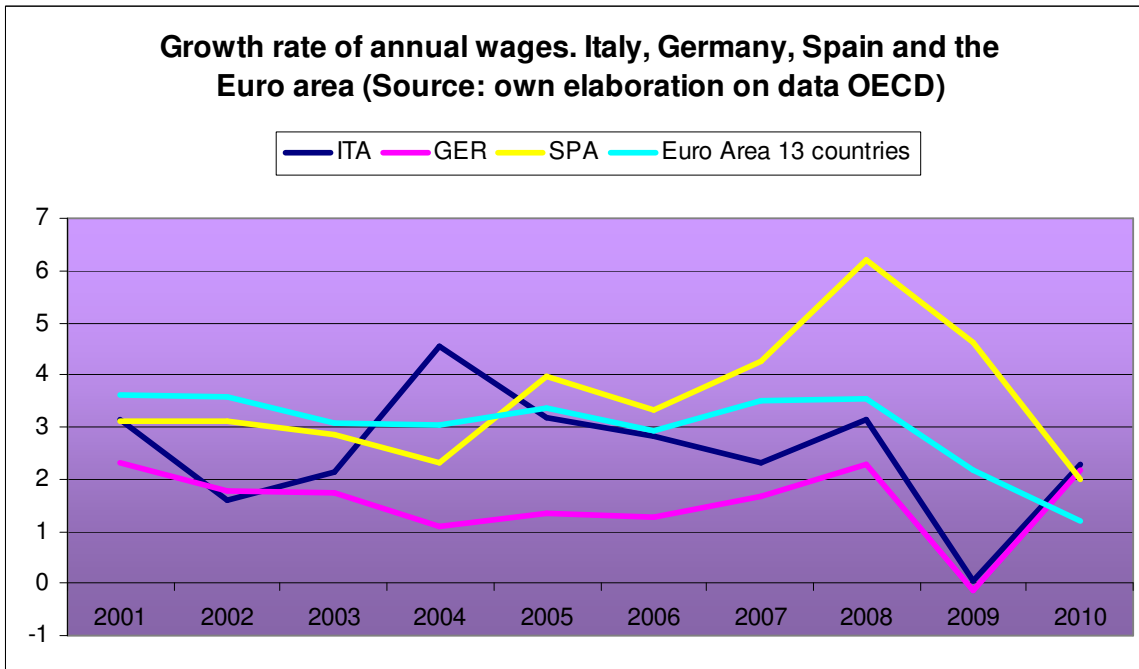


PROVISIONAL DRAFT



Average annual wages, Italy, Germany, Spain and Euro area (13 countries). (Source: OECD)

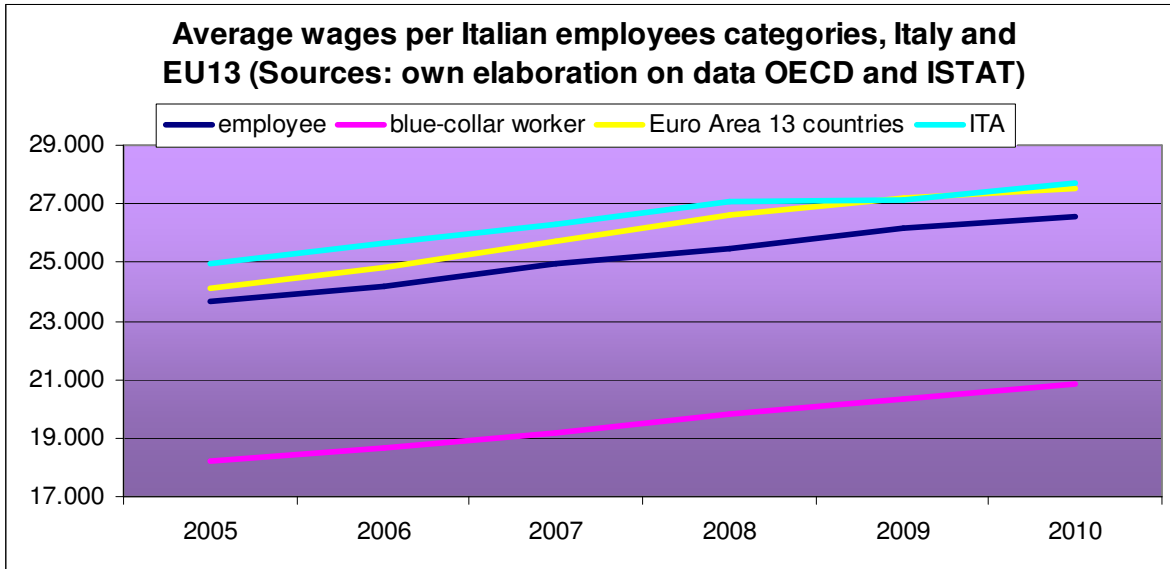
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
ITA	21.638	22.317	22.670	23.150	24.203	24.975	25.681	26.277	27.104	27.113	27.732
GER	28.038	28.687	29.197	29.700	30.029	30.430	30.820	31.334	32.049	32.003	32.693
SPA	18.593	19.173	19.771	20.336	20.806	21.633	22.351	23.302	24.751	25.899	26.418
Euro Area 13 countries	20.502	21.243	21.999	22.675	23.363	24.145	24.854	25.723	26.632	27.213	27.539



PROVISIONAL DRAFT

Growth rate of average wages, Italy, Germany, Spain and the Euro area (13 countries).
 (Sources: own elaboration on data OECD)

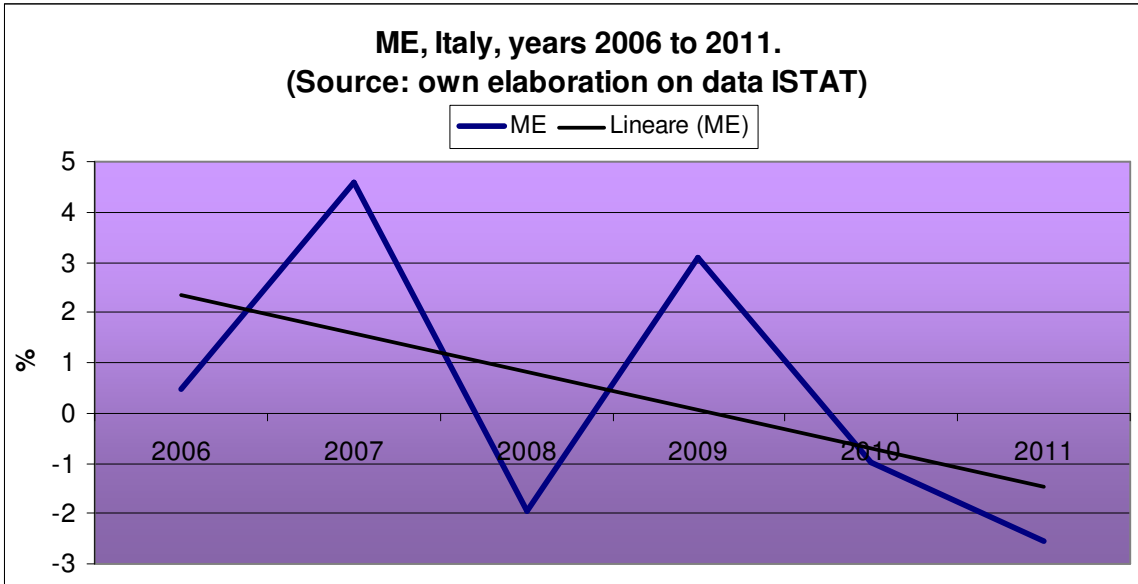
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
ITA	3,1	1,6	2,1	4,5	3,2	2,8	2,3	3,1	0,0	2,3
GER	2,3	1,8	1,7	1,1	1,3	1,3	1,7	2,3	-0,1	2,2
SPA	3,1	3,1	2,9	2,3	4,0	3,3	4,3	6,2	4,6	2,0
Euro Area 13 countries	3,6	3,6	3,1	3,0	3,3	2,9	3,5	3,5	2,2	1,2



Average wages per Italian employee categories, Italy and EU13
 (Sources: own elaboration on data OECD and ISTAT)

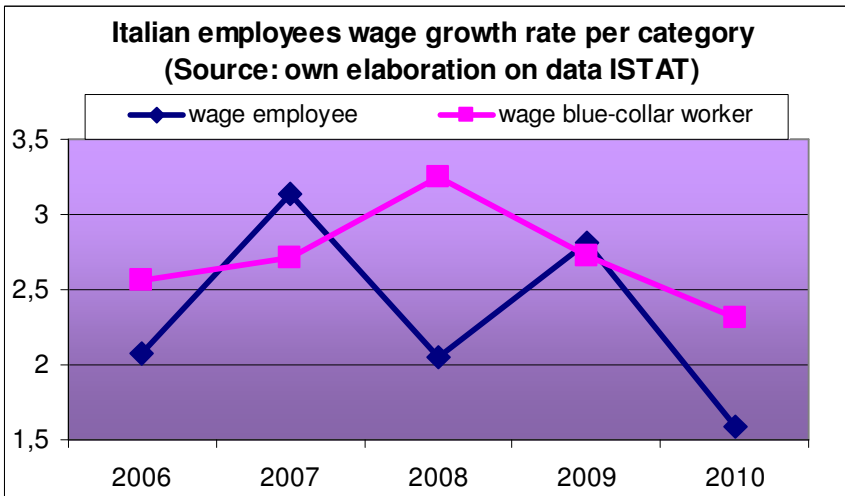
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Italian employee	23.679	24.171	24.930	25.442	26.156	26.570
Italian blue-collar worker	18.225	18.691	19.199	19.824	20.364	20.834
Euro Area 13 countries	24.145	24.854	25.723	26.632	27.213	27.539
ITA	24.975	25.681	26.277	27.104	27.113	27.732

PROVISIONAL DRAFT



ME: growth rate of the difference between the average wage of the Italian employee and the average wage of the Italian blue-collar.
(Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
0,48	4,58	-1,97	3,10	-0,97	-2,55



Italian employees wage rate per category.
(Source: own elaboration on data ISTAT)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
wage employee	2,1	3,1	2,1	2,8	1,6
wage blue-collar worker	2,6	2,7	3,3	2,7	2,3

PROVISIONAL DRAFT