



ASSOCIAÇÃO DE POLITÉCNICOS DO NORTE (APNOR)
INSTITUTO POLITÉCNICO DE BRAGANÇA

**Socioeconomic and female labour participation in Ukraine and
Portugal through human development indicators**

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Final Dissertation submitted to *Instituto Politécnico de Bragança*

To obtain the Master Degree in Management, Specialisation in Business
Management

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Ana Sofia Cardim Barata

Bragança, February, 2019.



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Abstract

Nowadays the labour market is one of the important and key objects in the internal policy of all countries in the world. In the labour market, creativity, innovation, risk-taking, planning and management are inseparable parts of business and entrepreneurship. Nowadays, there are a vast number of women, who are a valuable part of the labour market and are becoming essential participants in business and organizational activities.

However, despite the abundance of various scientific publications, female paid labour market is a poorly understood phenomenon, which needs to be studied. The general purpose of this study is to describe and make female labour market in general, and in Portugal and Ukraine, in particular. At the same time, one of the purposes is to determine the factors that affect women labour market in both countries.

The findings are supported by literature, gathered from different scientific researches and updated statistical data. The data used in the empirical part was collected from “The World Bank” and “Global Economy” international websites, which present statistical data for labour market all over the world. With the help of comparative analysis of some factor that have an impact on female labour market, it was possible to understand the female labour market activities and the differences in both countries. The results of the study show that Portugal and Ukraine both have developed level of female labour. Often Portugal has better results, which includes the higher level of female participation in labour market.

Keywords: Female labour-market, comparative analysis, Portugal, Ukraine

Resumo

Presentemente, o mercado de trabalho é um dos principais e importantes objetivos da política interna de todos os países do mundo. No mercado de trabalho, a criatividade, a inovação, a gestão de risco, o planeamento e a gestão são partes indissociáveis do negócio e do empreendedorismo. Hoje em dia, existe um grande número de mulheres que são uma parte essencial do mercado de trabalho, cada vez mais ativas nos negócios e nas organizações.

No entanto, apesar de existirem algumas publicações científicas, o mercado de trabalho remunerado feminino ainda é um fenómeno pouco estudado, pelo que a sua análise é pertinente. O objetivo geral deste trabalho é descrever e analisar o mercado de trabalho feminino, em geral, e em Portugal e na Ucrânia, em particular. Simultaneamente, pretende-se determinar os fatores que afetam o mercado de trabalho feminino nos dois países.

Os resultados são apoiados em revisão bibliográfica, recolhida a partir de diferentes estudos científicos e dados estatísticos reais. Os dados utilizados na parte empírica foram recolhidos no World Bank e Global Economy, recursos digitais que apresentam dados estatísticos para o mercado de trabalho em todo o mundo. Através da análise comparativa de fatores de impacto do mercado de trabalho feminino foi possível compreender as diferenças que existem nas atividades do mercado de trabalho feminino na Ucrânia e em Portugal. Os resultados do estudo mostram que Portugal e Ucrânia em ambos tem alto o nível do trabalho feminino. Muitas vezes Portugal tem melhores resultados, o que inclui o maior nível de participação feminina no mercado de trabalho.

Palavras-chave: Mercado de trabalho feminino, análise comparativa, Portugal, Ucrânia

To my mom, my dad and my sister.

I would like to dedicate this work to my family who always picked up me on the time and encouraged me to go on every adventure, always support me and help in all my ideas and beginnings

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Acronyms

EU - European Union

GDP - Gross Domestic Product

ILO - International Labour Organization

IMF - The International Monetary Fund

IT - Information Technology

NEET - Not in Education, Employment, or Training

OECD - Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

PPP - Purchasing Power Parity

SO - Specific Objectives

UN - United Nations

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Introduction

Nowadays many women are breaking free from the traditional gender-specific roles and going into the paid labour market in different countries in the world. Because of that, female paid labour market became a growing trend in business activities in many countries. The development of women's paid labour market is, thus, a key indicator and an effective tool to overcome the issues of female unemployment and poverty. Nevertheless, the improvement of female paid labour market needs to overcome many of the obstacles and challenges which formed the gap between women's attitudes towards labour market and the actual situation.

There are a big group of women that are becoming specialist, with high qualifications in different areas, that often face a set of challenges, that are not typical for their male counterparts: combining job and family life, building a support network, coping with a fear of failure, among others. All these barriers are unique from country to country depending on gender situation, preconceived opinions and prejudices about women in the job market, and traditionally constructed gender roles.

At the same time, today, women took an active position in society and, more often, are involved in all public spheres that lead to the development of gender equality in many countries with high level of women labour market quality. It is an undeniable fact that gender parity is important generally, but also a problem of human rights and social justice in the society that can promote the achievement of other social and economic objectives. For these reasons, the female labour market is becoming an important concept that requires attention.

One of the most meaningful social changes of the last years is the increase in female labour force participation. Since World War II the involvement of women in formal employment has risen. The epochal rise in female labour force participation is one of the most profound and comprehensive labour market transformations of the twentieth century (Acamoglu, Autor & Lyle, 2004).

The main development reason of labour market was the engagement of married women and mothers. In women's labour market integration, it is possible to point out some differences between countries. Looking at the situation globally, not all countries demonstrate a trend of increasing female labour force participation. Mainly, there are two types of countries:

1. Countries without any changes in female's labour market;
2. Countries where female labour participation declined over last decades (Heyne, 2017).

It is important not only the participation of female labour, but also it is necessary to pay attention to the quality of employment for women (Verick, 2014). Thus, official employment is more profitable for women.

According to the theory of human capital, the increase in female labour force participation is a result of rising education, declining in birth rate and changes in the paid labour market. The reasons of female labour force participation have not only a theoretical prospect, but also have a high practical expectation for the economy of a country. The first reason of female labour participation is notable of female empowerment as the political representation. The second reason of importance of female labour force is not only in the sense of gender equality but also as an impact on economic growth in the country (Heyne, 2017).

The objectives of this work are to determine positions of female labour in the structure of a modern society and to reveal specifics, especially the development of female labour market in Portugal and Ukraine. Another important thing is to identify the motivation and reasons of the female labour development, to highlight significance of this concept in organizational in the country, to consider the relationship of female labour market with the state, partners, traditional thinking and to reveal the issues that women face being an employee of any company, perspectives in future and modern tendencies in this sphere.

This work is divided into three main sections. The first theoretical part is divided into three subgroups. The first subgroup contains information about the status and the level of development of the female labour market in different countries and regions of the world. The second subgroup concerns the features of women's participation in labour market. The third subgroup represents socioeconomic impact and human development. The second section presents the research methodology, recent data collection and data analysis for labour markets of Portugal and Ukraine. The last part of the study illustrates the analysis and empirical results of the given study. All the results are summarized in the conclusion part of master thesis, which presents the most important findings of this work, limitations and future researcher lines.

1. Literature Review

1.1 The concept of labour

A simple definition of the labour market is given by Serena (2017), who mentions that the labour market is an environment, where supply and demand meet, working to determine the price and quantity of the work performed. It is a perfect place for communication, through which sellers and buyers will present each other their opportunities, their needs and the prices that they suggest or propose, before closing the transaction. The definition above is very useful for labour market (Serena, 2017).

Generally, for all types of markets, a market exists whenever there are goods or services, also if there are both buyers (demanders) and sellers (suppliers) for goods and services. In case of the labour market, labour services are exchanged, and those negotiations taking place between buyers and sellers partially decide the placement of employees in jobs with specified wages, benefits, and working conditions (The Ministry of Training, Colleges & Universities, 2005).

The following diagram Figure 1 shows curves for labour market supply (S) and demand (D), also the equilibrium condition for labour market. The Y axis presents the amount of money and X axis presents the employment.

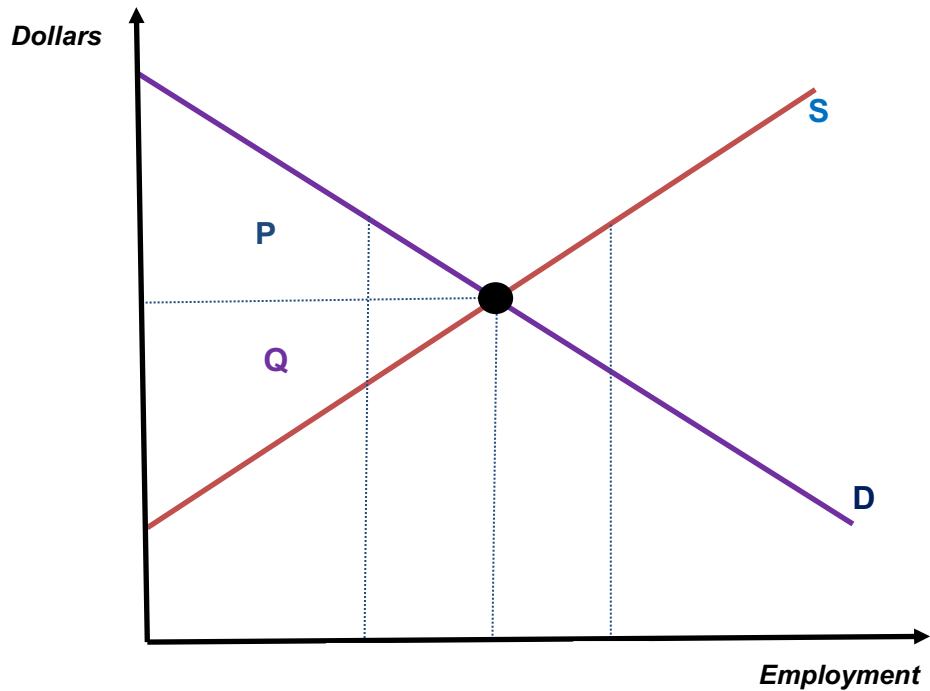


Figure 1. The equilibrium condition for labour market.

Source: Labour Economics, (2010, p.4).

The indicator w^* presents the equilibrium point for labour market. In this case labour market has optimal values for labour supply and demand. It is possible to present the equilibrium condition with the following formula (Labour Economics, 2010):

$$ES^*w^*=ED^*w^* \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Usually, the labour market is presented in conditions of demand and supply components, but there are a lot of special features of the labour market that restrict or limit the applicability of this theoretical framework. For example, from the basic economic supply and demand theory it is possible to find that if the amount of something demanded is less than the amount of something supplied, then its price should fall. Besides that, the price will continue to fall until the surplus (i.e., excess supply) is removed (The Ministry of Training, Colleges & Universities, 2005).

The experience of developed countries shows that the necessary condition for the progress of science and technology is the development and maximum disclosure of the creative potential of scientists. The activation of the human factor and the acceleration of scientific and technological progress are interdependent problems for the balance and dynamic development of the factors of production. In conditions of accelerated innovation development of countries in the world rapidly change demand for professions, competences, practical skills. Labour potential needs are constantly in development, and

knowledge and skills need to be updated in line with changes in demand in the labour market (Andrushkiv & Sinjuk, 2018).

The theory does not work for the labour market, however, excess supply does not as a rule result in price reduction (i.e., drop in the salary rate). With the same logic, the price will not always rise after excess of demand. The following major reasons present these deviations from straightforward supply and demand economics:

1. **Institutional forces**, which are the effects from corporations, governments, and unions have on the labour market. These forces often are codified as formal rules, but there are informal practices too.
2. **Long-term nature of the employment contract**. In this case, the economic transactions are of a short-term nature in comparison to the developing relationship between a worker and an organization.
3. **Unique workers and unique jobs**, which means that workers have different numerous dimensions, such as skills, abilities, work experience, education, job approaches and motivations.
4. **Multiplicity of markets**. The labour market has different individual sub-markets. The labour market can be subdivided within two most important ways, which are geographic location and occupation (The Ministry of Training, Colleges & Universities, 2005).

To understand the main concept of labour market, it is necessary to identify characteristics of two main points, such as “work” and “labour”. Normally, all work which happen at home: cooking, cleaning, washing – unpaid work. Besides that, there is also one more unpaid work, it is a voluntary work. Usually, labour is called paid work. Labour is a work which is exchanged for salary or wage (Lucassen, 2013).

After the presentation of the labour’s meaning, the important next step is the find out the concept of global labour history. Global labour history is a type of field of study that will never remain without attention. Professors and students accept the fact that understanding, and the explanation of the research may be different. History is always intellectually stimulating, developing and providing the serious discussion of different views.

Labour history can be included in various areas of objectives study. The history of labour can help you to understand the concepts and the meanings of the labour market, labour mobility, labour relations, employability and labour productivity. Labour history, first, teaches about labour relations and mobility, which have progressed together with the development of the world labour market (Van der Linden, 2002).

The European Union workers have the right to move and live in another country inside of EU. This labour mobility influences the economic and social structures in all EU countries. Every year, the

number of workers who has moved is increasing to obtain better living norms. In the labour market, which includes firms like employers, workers and governments, labour mobility is one of the most major factors of balance in the market.

The aim of the labour market is to reach higher productivity between employers and workers. The mobility of workers may bring better productivity, success, employment and social security. Labour mobility can solve underemployment problems in the EU by sustaining labour market regulations too. One of the helpful elements to raise EU's competitiveness as well is labour mobility (Dudu, 2018).

Employability represents the goals of the economic strategies by national institutions and labour market policies at national, regional and local levels. Employability depends on the qualities and competencies of the individual, which are necessary to get a job. Likewise, to develop skills, knowledge, technology and adaptability to be able to find a job to reach better living standards (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005).

Labour market institutions characterize a system of laws, norms or agreement resulting from a collective choice and creating limitations or stimulations which change individual choices over labour or pay. The most part of labour market institutions serves to protect the more weakness participations in the market, normally warranting definite rights and serving workers with some basic protections. Generally, labour market institutions are just part of the larger institutional setting which determines what happened in the labour market. Formal and informal rules, practices and policies impacting how the labour market works and a subset of these - all these factors have a weighty influence on the quality and quantity of young people's work (O'Higgins & Moscariello, 2017).

Gross domestic product per capita is one of the measures of the social productivity of labour. The productivity of labour shows the wealth of a country. Also, labour productivity presents the effectiveness and fruitfulness of the work which was used in the process of manufacturing; and is one of the substantive indicators of the profitability of the economic activity of the companies. Different factors can help to increase labour productivity in the company. More specifically, the level of rewards, the working conditions and climate, the level of technical equipment and managerial factors influence productivity. As a result, a company will obtain a larger quantity of products in the same time period. There are several articles and studies which refer to the natural, technical, economic, and psychological factors that influence labour productivity (Alunica, 2017).

Looking at economies of EU countries, we see that Portugal has a slowdown in productivity growth. This slowdown is associated with a slower improvement in living standards. General productivity growth is the principal source of per capita income growth. A few reasons, which can explain the productivity slowdown (Alves, 2017), are mentioned below:

- 1) An insufficient amount of innovations firm, which can cooperate and solve harder complexity deals;

- 2) Not enough investment in technical equipment, infrastructure, media and communication technology;
- 3) Wrong distribution of capital and uncompetitive product markets;
- 4) The populations getting old very fast that brings to labour and person's skills discrepancy;
- 5) Poor human capital accumulations and knowledge-based.

To increase labour productivity in the country, its national income, or gross national product must increase faster than its expenses. Decreasing productivity contributes to rising inflation, provides a passive trade balance, slowing down growth or decline in production and increasing unemployment. The described situation is also very similar to modern Ukraine situation. The level of labour productivity in the national economy and industry in the country (Ukraine) is very low.

As increasing productivity is a priority task of any enterprise that seeks to improve the competitiveness of the enterprise, it is expedient to develop a program at each enterprise. Managers and employees of all levels should be involved in its development and implementation at all stages of the production process. The overall goal of the productivity improvement program is to provide a connection between the creation of an effective system for measuring productivity and human performance in order to improve the performance of the organization by making changes to all or some of the elements of the organization - the person, structure, culture and technology. The general objectives of developing a program for managing labour productivity at the enterprise are:

- Effective use of human resources;
- Minimization of production losses;
- Creation of an effective system of measuring labour productivity, that is, determining the limits and indicators of the goals of this system (Mukha, 2015).

Organizational factors are aimed at improving the structure and organization of production. These include: improving the organization of production (the organization of the production system in time), improving the accounting of the actual use of material resources, improving the quality control of products, systems of material resources.

Economic factors determine the creation of conditions conducive to rationalising the processes of using material resources in the enterprise and include: the system of economic incentives for employees, the system of economic responsibility for the inappropriate use of material resources, and the economic situation of the enterprise (Kolmakova & Briukhovetska, 2018).

In general, the management of labour productivity at the enterprise is, in fact, part of the overall enterprise management process, including planning, organization, motivation, management, control and regulation. This work is based on continuous analysis of the ratio of the usefulness of a particular work, on the one hand, and the cost of this activity, on the other. Management of productivity at the

company is a very serious and heavy task, which is fundamentally major for any entity that wants to reach for economic growth and effective development (Mukha, 2015).

1.2 The concept of female labour

The gender inequality in the labour market exists for a long period and makes an obvious impact. The first and most visible impact is in the salary levels. In professions where the group of working women is more concentrated, usually, this is characterized for lower salaries when compared with professions with a higher concentration of men.

One of the major factors of development is the increasing female education. However, the impact of education is still uncertain. Some researchers presented a negative relationship between professional feminization and earnings for the highly qualified. For sure, this does not occur in all countries, and researchers can face to different results for each country. Whereas there is a significant difference in wages between women and men, this leads to an increase in women's professional skills.

With improvement of women's education, this gives women opportunity to work in "professions" previously dominated by men only. Nonetheless, it is also possible that changes in the professional structure created for women new high-professional "female" workplaces. There has been a long-run decrease in 'male-typed' jobs which has been accompanied by the apparition of new female professions, which are nowadays highly professionalized. Plenty of jobs in which women dominate aren't usually feminine. Also, payment of "female" work is different and not so bad across countries (Brynin & Perales, 2016).

Successful regulation of gender relations in society involves promoting the value of gender equality, preventing gender-based discrimination, ensuring equal participation of women and men in making socially important decisions, and ensuring equal opportunities for women and men to combine professional and family responsibilities (Golichenkova & Skinder, 2017).

Discrimination in social and labour relations not only adversely affects employment and regulation, blocking the employment of women, young people, retired people and other socially vulnerable groups of the population, but also discredits public institutions and undermines their trust in them. Generally, discrimination in the workplace is defined as unequal opportunities for workers with equal productivity or the unequal treatment of employers, society, and state (Gulevych, 2018).

To pay attention to the discrimination of women and men, the gender pay gap occurs in all sectors of the economy and the increased risk of poverty among women. Discrimination can be conventionally divided into formal and informal, as it follows:

- Formal discrimination - firing from a job, refusal to accept a job, refusal to move on, lower wages;
- Informal discrimination - insults and threats from management, ostracism or harassment by colleagues at work.

Despite the presence of "male" and "female" areas of labour in the modern labour market, it should be noted that at present, in a modernization and transition to a postmodern society, we observe the phenomenon of gradual androgenisation of various spheres of public life. Eliminating inequalities for one gender is impossible without studying the other problems, and gender development is changing the situation of both women and men in the historical context of their roles. An important part of the state employment policy should be the equal participation of women and men in the functioning of the labour market and the achievement of gender equality in access to decent work (Golichenkova & Skinder, 2017).

The unequal power relations which blocked women's capability to participate in and to enter new profession help to influence, growth proceeding and highlighted the character of the changes that might serve to promote this capacity at both individual and collective level.

In the last years, three tendencies have promoted female labour participation, which will be developed below. One of the factors is birth rate. For example, in the developing countries, it was possible to observe lower birth rate. Figure 2 shows that in all areas except Sub-Saharan Africa birth rate decreased to levels below per woman by 2010. This decreasing has liberated women's time spent with being pregnant or taking care of a child and created opportunities for greater labour force participation.

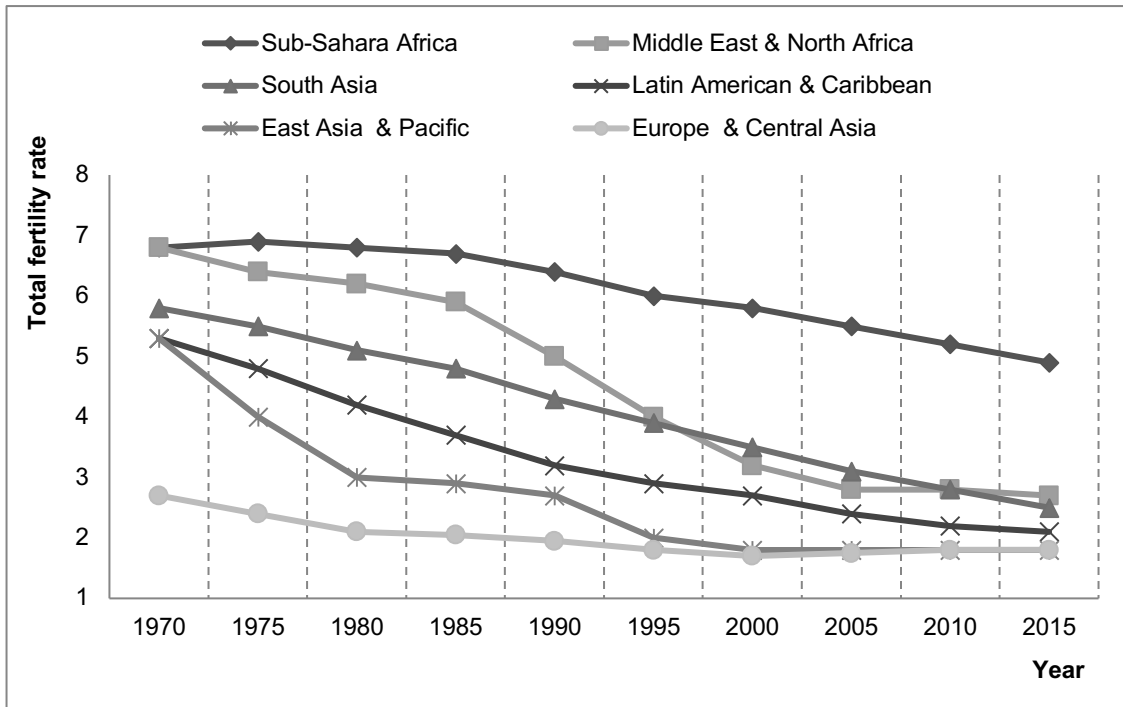


Figure 2. Total fertility rate by region (1970-2015 years).

Source: Klasen (2017, p. 6), World Development Report (2015).

The second tendency was the destruction of gender ruptures in the education in developing countries. The female-male ratio of gross secondary enrolment rates is presented in Figure 3. The total fertility rate by region is presented on Y axis and years are presented on X axis. The ratios have approximated oneness in all countries. This growing of female education certainly eased birth rate and thus enabled greater female participation, but it should also have strongly supported female labour market opportunities.

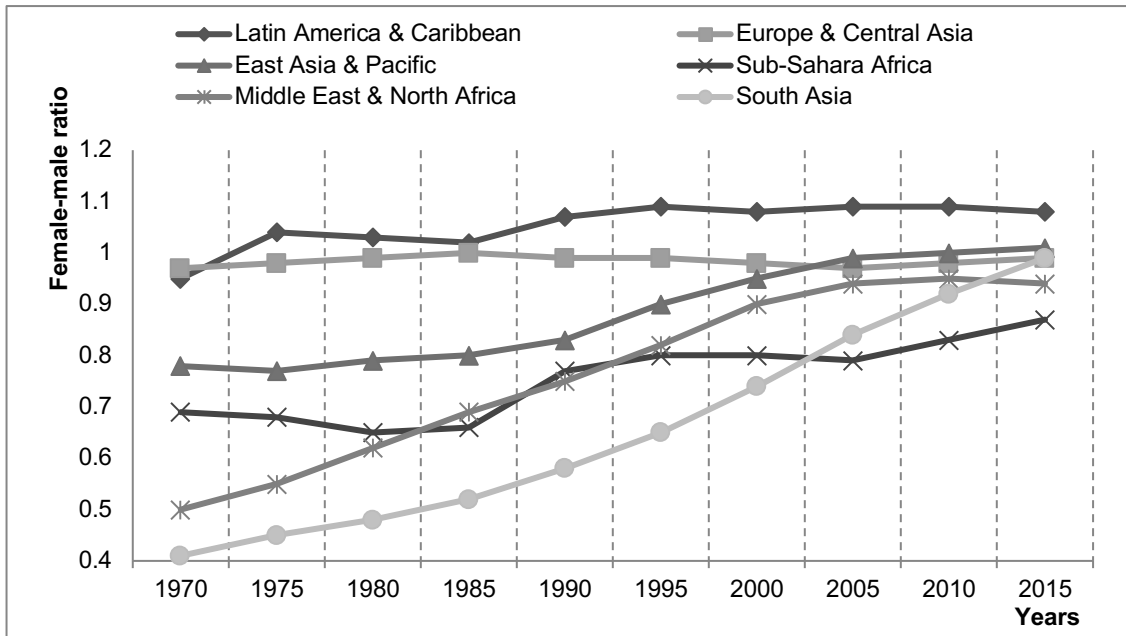


Figure 3. Female-male ratio of gross secondary enrolment rates (1970-2015 years).

Source: Klasen (2017, p. 7), World Development Report (2015).

One more reason was high per-capita growth rates in developing countries. In the last decade, per-capita growth rates were over 2% per year in the developing countries, higher than 3-4% in the most countries and in the most years. As male part rates were already very high, such high growth rates should raise demand on female participation. As we are expecting that female participation should increase, Figure 3 shows that female participation is dissimilar. The female-male ratio of gross secondary enrolment rates is presented on Y axis and years are presented on X axis.

Figure 4 shows working women group 25-54 years old. The Y axis presents the female labour force participation rate X axis presents years.

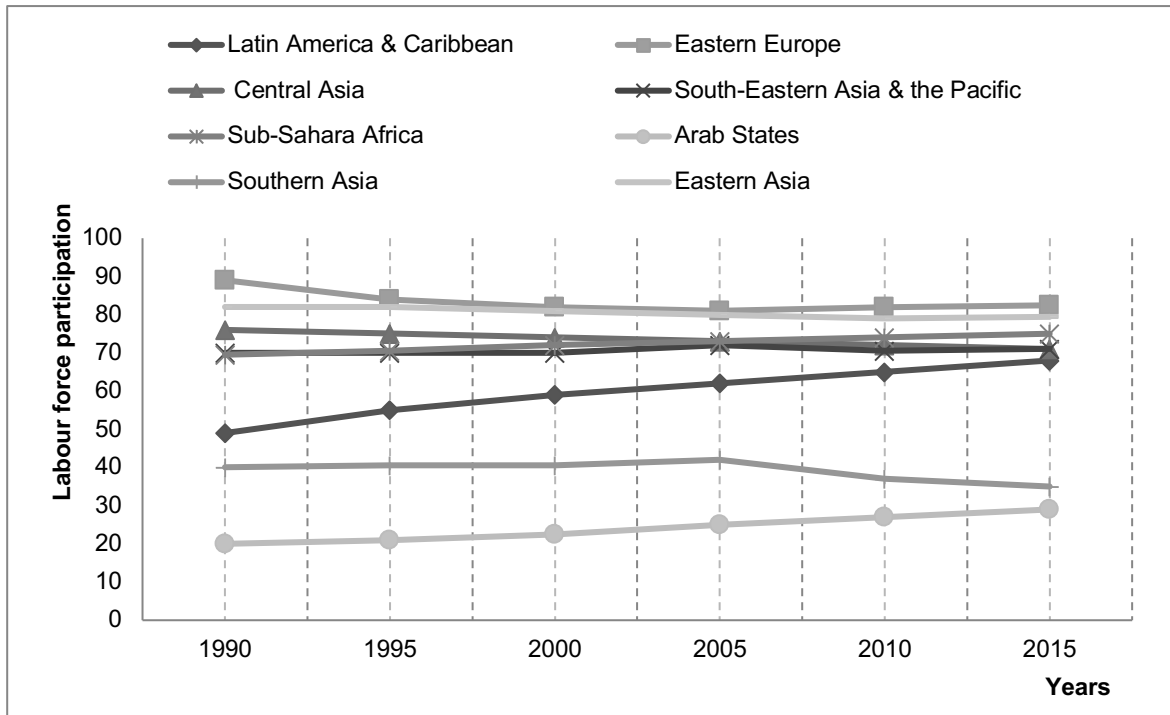


Figure 4. Female labour force participation rate (for 25-54 ages).

Source: Klasen (2017, p. 7), International Labour Organization's (ILO).

The contrast can be observed that in different part of world, the situation is totally different. In Latin America, the Caribbean, Arab States female participation strongly increasing. Opposite situations in East and South East Asia, Eastern Europe, Central Asia, South Asia, geographic areas where this indicator is falling from the high level. This trend of female participation showed that economic growth, declining of birth rate and enlargement of female education should not be in direct proportion to increase women's participation. This trend belongs to the enlargement of the female education, the size of a dependence of female participation on housework and the increasing employability educated women (Klasen, 2017).

1.3 The definition of socioeconomic participation and human development

The expansion of women's empowerment is connected to different types of mobilizations, while feminist scientists helped to advance the gender development. These contributions showed dissimilar power relations that stopped women's participation in work and make an influence in the process of development. These changes might help to advance this capacity at the individual level and collective. These early contributions had some difference depend on their features:

- 'The power within' - as a decisive aspect of the process change was a focus point on women's personality and consciousness;
- 'The power to' - they accentuated the weightiness of social, material and human resources to women's ability to take control over main aspects of their lives and to take a part in the developing society;
- 'The power with' - these differences had a significant influence on the need for women to come together collectively as women. To obtain a shared comprehension of the nature of the injustices they had and collectively solve those problems. Processes of empowerment had a powerful collective magnitude (Kabeer, 2017).

Ensuring women's and girls' equal access to education, health care, decent work and representation in political and economic decision-making processes will contribute to the achievement of sustainability of the economy, bring benefits to society and to humanity. Women should use equal access to quality education, economic resources and opportunities to participate in political life, and to have equal opportunities as men and boys in terms of employment, leadership in leadership, decision-making at all levels (Romanova, 2018).

Eventually, these contributions showed that gender inequalities crossed with other forms of socio-economic inequality: class, race, caste, location, etc. The high dissimilarity between women's practical gender needs and strategic interests partly helped to determine some of the differences and commonalities between women in each context. The responsibilities and the roles of women demonstrated women's practical gender needs that relate to their position within the socio-economic hierarchy. On the other hand, strategic gender interests were established on a detailed analysis of the structures of women's subordination (Kabeer, 2017).

There is an important and increasing argument that women's economic empowerment is a mean to obtain economic growth, especially in low- and middle-income countries. On the one side, gender equality in economic resources and paid work depend on the rhythm of economic growth. Paradoxically, economic growth is more likely to transform into wide-ranging social development when it goes together with increasing of women's access to reasonably well-paid and safe employment.

The analysis of the models and trends in the women's work in the last years shows that gender has been a form of disadvantage. During the time when female labour participation rates have raised worldwide, while women set out of the agriculture into services and producing. Most women than men stay outside of the labour market, a lot of them are unemployed, and, among those who have work are working in the lower ranks of their professions.

Special significance to these inequalities in the labour market is the main difference outside it: more involvement of women in the paid work has not led to the change in the gender distribution of unpaid work at home. A phenomenon of "time poverty" appeared, as a result of working women inclined to work longer than men (Policy in Focus, 2018).

In the labour market, women have made essential growth during the past half-century. The most visible female participation was between 1962 and 2000. This period characterized as the percentage, which raised from 37 percent to 61 of women ages 16 and older working or actively find a job. Actively women labour participation was enough to compensate the decreasing labour participation rate of men.

In 2000, the increment of female participation slowed and even changed. The rate of women's labour participation declined from 60 percent in 2000 to 57 percent in 2016. One reason of the decline can be explained, women's in the age 16 to 24 getting educational degree, that's why they are finding part-time work and are less attached to the labour market (Black, Schanzenbach & Breitwieser, 2017).

Economic development tends to raise women's labour force participation, but the relationship is not simple or reliable at the country level. Across developing countries labour force participation has considerably more variation by women than by men. This difference is provided by many diversity economic and social factors: economic growth, education and social norms.

Improving women's education after secondary school allows better access to quality employment. To achieve the high-level quality of women's employment is very important to understand the quality of women's employment. Policies need to focus on labour demand and supply dimensions. Also, it is especially appropriate to spread access to secondary and higher education (Verick, 2014).

In purely economic terms, a person is a means of production, and gender equality allows for the development of more effective competition in the labour market. When women and men have equal rights (not formally or actually), this increases the number of educated and professional workers in the country's economy and increases competition for managerial positions. Competition in the labour market, in turn, means better value and quality of work, and thus gives the employer the opportunity to invest, create new jobs, which will lead to economic growth (Dzhonmurodova & Olvinskaya, 2018).

Female labour participation is a driver and an outcome of development. As more women start working, an economy of countries can grow faster with more high labour inputs. Along with the development of countries, women's capabilities improve, while social compulsions weaken. Female labour force participation is the outcome of not only supply-side reasons, but also of the demand for labour. Women participation in the world of work and the developing relationship between socio-economic and demographic factors is many-sided.

On one side, a woman working may be driven by poverty, as apparent in countries with the low economy. On another side, women's work is increasing educational achievement and more opportunities to get a good job, which is more possible in a modern economy. Also, women are often preferred to take up informal employment during periods of crisis and economic shocks. Usually, women's work has a tendency to be paid less and to be hired in low-productivity jobs. Educational

progress is an important driver of better employment outcomes for women in both type economies in the countries (Verick, 2014).

Although there have been achievements in women's labour force participation, women still earn less than men (Olah, 2015).

Women could not leave traditional responsibilities inside of family, as a result of that they prefer to arrange part-time jobs (Golichenkova & Skinder, 2017).

The female minus is relevant to their delicate position in labour market, as women have continued to care a disproportionately huge part of family responsibilities, though involvement in paid work is increasing. Women are preferred to employ part-time than men, because of homework and responsibilities inside of family (Olah, 2015).

In 2016, one third of employed women in the EU worked on a part-time, a much higher ratio than the analogical share of men. The men worked more than six hours a week more in paid work than women (on average across the EU). Also, special attention needs to be given to the labour market participation of defenceless categories of women:

- Older women;
- Women with a disability;
- Single parents;
- Women with a migrant background;
- Women from ethnic minorities (European Commission, 2018).

In all countries of the world, the part of part-time belongs to employed men is less ten percent. There does not seem to be a direct connection between birth rate levels and female part-time employment, as some countries with the small birth rate show high levels of such work. In effect, female employment is less illuminating in relation to women's potential to combine paid work and family responsibilities (Olah, 2015).

Especially for recent years when gender educational gap has essentially disappeared, it is also weighty to consider the maternal employment rates. In countries with higher rates of mothers' labour force participation, maternal employment also matters for child poverty. Mother's paid work involvement is greatly influenced by balancing measures provided in a country (Olah, 2015).

The percentage of an occupation that was female was negatively related with salary earned in that occupation. Determinations of knowledge, skill in the workplace, were usually established on the identity of the person carrying out the job. Normally women's work was nominated as "inferior", not because their work was considered as lower, but they always were estimated as inferior bearer of labour (Kabeer, 2017).

The main reasons of gender inequalities underlie in diversity types of limitations correspond to women. On one side, it determines essential limitations: standards, beliefs and values that stipulate and

represent social life and family relationships, and gives clear understanding of men and female models in society. For these reasons, society ascribes certain roles and responsibilities to women, girls, men and boys' ground on distribution of homework and gender position in the labour market, correspond to preconceptions relating gender with specific abilities and knowledge.

On the other side, markets are regulated by formal and informal rules, process and practices that demonstrate and propagate essential ideas about men and women models in the labour market. These limitations are imitated in employer's preferences, legal regulations and cultural standards giving access to the control of resources. Different types of limitation note differences between peoples found on their capability development own business strategy and make diversity decisions about family, social situations and their own life. To get out of such limitations and decrease gender inequalities by raising female labour participation and earn earnings with a quality paid job that provides access to social protection and a sufficient income level (Policy in Focus, 2018).

The expansion of women's economic empowerment has economic influence on objective indicators of economy - productivity and incomes. Realizing that bigger access to the labour market for women obtains in self-confidence or raised control over earning, may be weighty but would be hard to measure and quantify (Buvinic, 2017).

The analysis of EU companies with a higher representation of women in the top positions represented rate of return on equity with a 10% higher. Country-specific and academic research certifies that rising up women's leadership notably increasing firm profit, perhaps because it produces benefits in terms of social and cultural diversity in the company. Researches propose that higher levels of gender diversity are certainly matched with a firm's performance.

Analysing the activity of the companies, it has been demonstrated that women top managers positively improve a firm's financial performance (as measured by profits, value-added and revenues), however just when the strategy of the firm is concentrated on innovation. They deal with indigeneity issues by inserting firm fixed effects in their estimations and by using an external instrumental variable approach. Even if monitoring for some potentially confounding factors (firm size, industry and several corporate governance measures), display that gender-diversity boards are positively associated with a notably higher firm value.

Concentrated on the 500 largest EU firms during several years, the percentage of women in the firm is in a positive way connected with firm financial performance (measured by the rate of return on assets and the rate of return on equity). Usually, this result receives after monitoring for size, country, and some firm-level financial measures (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017).

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Objective of the study

The objective of this study is to identify positions of female labour in the structure of a modern society and to reveal specific features of it. The main emphases will be placed on a few key points of the development of female labour market in Portugal and Ukraine. It is important to determine the motivation and reasons of the female labour development, to highlight significance of this concept in organizational in the country, to consider the relationship of female labour market with the state, partners, traditional thinking, to reveal the issues that women face being an employee of any company, perspectives in future and modern tendencies in this sphere.

Based on current research and to answer the main objective of the study, the following specific objectives (SO) were established:

SO₁: The unemployment rate of Ukraine has decreased during last ten years;

SO₂: The employment rate of Portugal has increased during last ten years;

SO₃: The female labour force participation rate for Portugal is higher than in Ukraine;

SO₄: The employment rate in the industry and services for female labour in Portugal is higher than in Ukraine in 2016;

SO₅: The percentage of female participation in different business areas in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal;

SO₆: The output per worker is higher in Portugal than in Ukraine;

SO₇: Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.

2.2 Description of Data Collection

To do research it is very important to have statistical data with high quality. The using of good-quality statistical data continues to increase. Timely and reliable statistics are key inputs to the broad development strategy. As it was already presented, the following sites are used to achieve goal of the study and to collected data:

1. The World Data;
2. The Global Economy.

At the World Bank, the Development Data Group synchronizes statistical and data work and maintains a number of macro, financial and sector databases. The development group works closely with the Bank's regions and Global Practices. The World Bank is guided by professional standards in the collection, compilation and dissemination of data to ensure that all data users can have confidence in the quality and integrity of the data produced. Much of the data comes from the statistical systems of member countries, and the quality of data depends on how well these national systems perform. The World Bank has cooperation with the international statistical community including the agencies:

1. United Nations (UN);
2. The Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD);
3. The International Monetary Fund (IMF);
4. The regional development banks and donors.

The Global Economy represents all economic data of foreign countries. The data is taken since 2000 to understand the development level of female labour market in Portugal and Ukraine. The websites for research are used from September to November and data did not change during that period. They provide up-to-date numbers for employment rates, unemployment rates, labour force participation rates, labour force participation rates by sex and labour force participation rates in different business areas across Portugal and Ukraine. The main purpose to show data in different way is to present information more detail and user-friendly, compact and visible. By using the information of this website, it was possible to gather all necessary statistical data, compare both countries and track their development over time.

2.3 Description of Data Analysis

There are different types of data analysis techniques. It is possible to do data analysis by using statistical and mathematical formulas, program solutions, among others. One of very simple and effective method is to do analyses by using figures and tables, which can present comparison and compact data. Thus, in this study it is used the last method to answer to seven specific objectives

related with female labour market in Portugal and Ukraine. In order to answer the specific objectives, it will be used frequency analysis and mean and standard deviation.

Table 1. Data Analysis Techniques.

Label	Specific Objectives (SO)	Data analysis technique
SO₁	The unemployment rate of Ukraine has decreased during last ten years.	Graphs with the relative frequencies
SO₂	The employment rate of Portugal has increased during last ten years.	Graphs with the relative frequencies
SO₃	The female labour force participation rate for Portugal is higher than in Ukraine.	Graphs with the relative frequencies
SO₄	The employment rate in the industry and services for female labour in Portugal is higher than in Ukraine in 2016.	Frequency tables
SO₅	The percentage of female participation in different business areas in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.	Frequency tables
SO₆	The output per worker is higher in Portugal than in Ukraine.	Graphs with the relative frequencies
SO₇	Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.	Graphs with the relative frequencies

Source: Author's own elaboration.

3. Characterization of the labour market of each country

3.1 Characterizations of the labour market in Ukraine

From 1991 Ukraine became independent from the former Soviet Union. During the last 27 years the Ukraine has been trying to provide sufficient employment, which is one of the most important factors to improve the living conditions of Ukrainian citizens. In recent years the employment indicators for youth, women, and for those residing in rural areas did not have good results.

It is not possible to present the situation clearly by using one of traditional labour market indicators like unemployment rates, which equal about 10% for Ukraine, also it cannot cover a high percentage of not formal employment and under declared work. The unemployment rate has artificial low level by a high proportion of NEET (not in education, employment, or training) amidst school leavers (about 30%). From the results of ILO survey in 2013 the high percentage of young workers (almost 57%) are informally employed.

There is a high level of the skill mismatch in Ukraine. From the results of ILO, School to Work Transition Survey, about 37 % of young workers in Ukraine work in occupations that do not match their education and qualification. It is a real challenge, which shows the lack of skilled labour in some migrants and old society. By the opinion of Ukrainian employers, this development is becoming a constraint for doing business in manufacturing and similar sectors (ILO, 2018a).

The professors from Ukrainian university present some problems in labour market of Ukraine, that have negative influence on the country developing process. The main problems are the following:

1. The migration level grows year by year;
2. The employees, that have high qualification, can find different suggestions in abroad;

3. The annexation of the Crimea and military operations in some regions (Luhansk and Donetsk) had a negative influence on Ukrainian labour market;
4. The high percentage of hidden unemployment, emigration and huge number of aging populations. Recent three factors reduce the Ukrainian working population.

The same researchers mention some positive trends for Ukrainian labour market:

1. Ukraine has Association Agreement with European Union;
2. Some sectors have dynamic growing level, such as pharmaceuticals, service and information technology industries;
3. During the current political power many managers are able to invest their knowledge and experience for public administration (Grygorenko & Rieznik, 2015).

The researcher from National University «Odessa Academy of Law» introduce the most demanded professions in Ukraine by using statistical data from Center of Employment:

1. Director of procurement;
2. Software developer and programmer;
3. Technical assistants;
4. Marketing manager;
5. Sales and regional representatives;
6. Accounting executive.

The specialists with these professions have the highest salary in Ukrainian labour market and they most demanded professions in Ukraine (Soloviova, 2013).

It is a fact that the size of salary is one of the most important things for unemployment rate. Often, countries have a lot of jobs, but people do not want to work because of small amount of salary. So, it is important to speak about the unemployment rate in the countries. The statistic portal presents the unemployment rate for Ukraine from 2007 to 2017. The following figure shows the changes of the unemployment rate for last eleven years.

The results of the Figure 5 show that Ukraine had rising unemployment rate until 2008 year and it started to go down from 2009 to 2013. From 2014 until our days Ukraine had rising unemployment rate. This is the answer to first specific objective: “*The unemployment rate of Ukraine has decreased during last ten years*”, by using information of Figure 5 the following table presents (The Statistics Portal, 2019a).

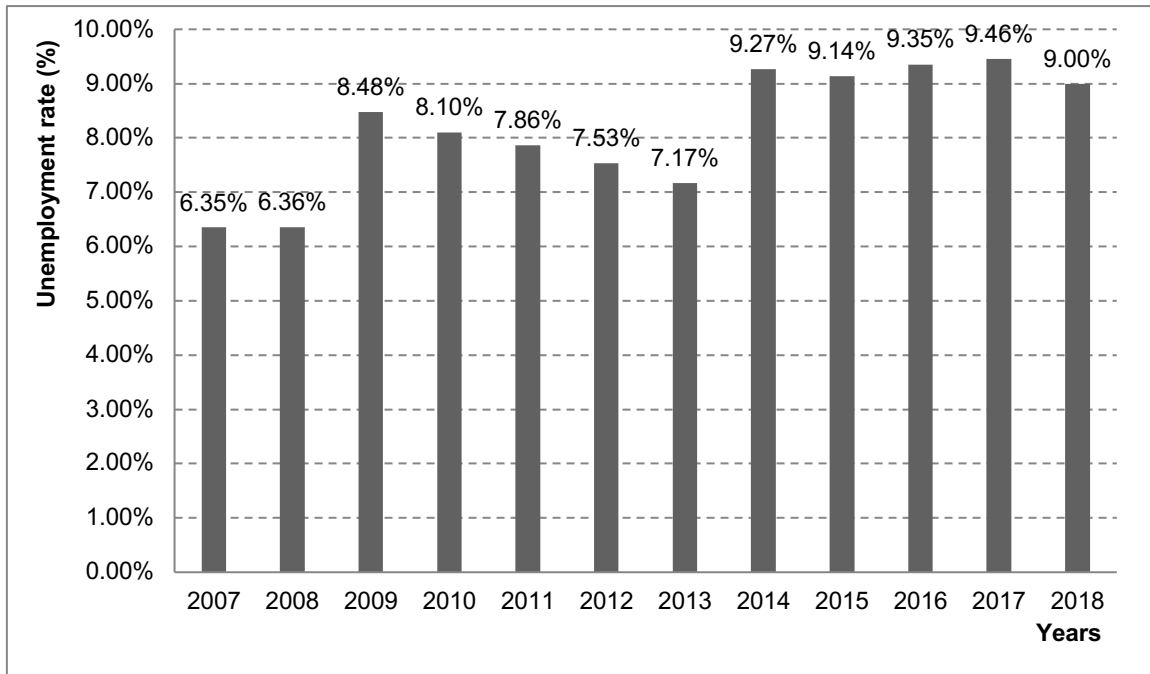


Figure 5. The unemployment rate for Ukraine (2007-2018 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://tradingeconomics.com/ukraine/employment-rate> website.

Another statistic portal (Trading Economics) presents the semi-annual employment rate for Ukraine from second half of 2015 to first half of 2018. The following figure shows the employment rate for last four years. The dark bar presents the first half of each year and the light bar presents the second half.

Figure 6 shows that during the last four years Ukraine had higher employment rate for second half of year than for first half, which is good factor for labour market. In 2018 the rate for Ukraine is higher at the end of the year, which means that the economy of the country is growing, and the labour market increase is going to be more developed and bigger (Trading Economics, 2018).

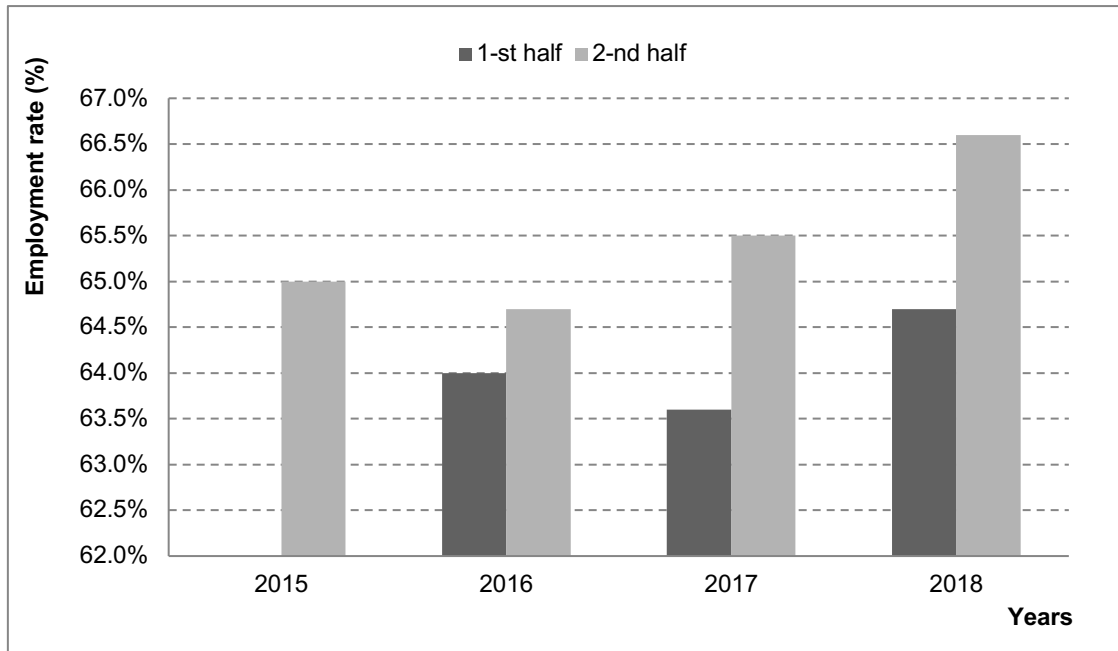


Figure 6. The employment rate for Ukraine (2015-2018 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://tradingeconomics.com/ukraine/employment-rate> website.

3.2 Characterization of the labour market in Portugal

The Portuguese labour market is in some way a virtual terrain in which the companies and organizations present the demand, and families and workers present the supply. It is possible to separate three most important types of organizations operate in the labour market:

1. The government, which includes the public authorities at national, regional or local level;
2. The private sector, which includes the profit-seeking companies;
3. Third sector, which includes non-profit-seeking organizations, for example unions, universities, church related organizations, among others (Tomé, 2008).

In recent years in the scope of the far-reaching reform programme, Portugal has a purpose to increase labour market flexibility in order to actuate employment, lower labour costs and intensify competition. In Portugal, strict employment protection legislation favoured permanent job contracts, suggesting that employers were reluctant to hire new staff on a permanent basis. Therefore, short-term contracts had huge quantity, which was making the labour market highly segmented (Prandeka, 2013).

In present days, it has been questioned the role played by the growth of "atypical" jobs, as a rule part-time and temporary occupations. Part-time work presents an opportunity for flexible hours of work and

for combining wage work with family commitments, as a result in the market normally firms are used short-term contracts (Cipollone, Patacchini & Vallanti, 2012).

A few years ago, there was an issue related with protection legislation between open-ended and temporary contracts. It was making the latter more attractive to the employers and, hereby, interfering the creation of continual jobs (Prandeka, 2013).

From another side, part-time work can be reviewed as a form of unemployment, when lower wages are jointed with low job security and weak occupational skills. Alike, short-term contracts can ensure firms with a useful means of evaluation workers, and then worker can get permanent contract. But usually, the short-term contracts have been often used as a cheaper option to proper firm-level employment, specifically in countries where regular worker are overprotected (Cipollone et al., 2012).

Specifically, when a firm wanted to lay off staff during a downturn, for permanent workers it was more difficult than for temporary workers whose contracts were coming to an end were made more easily redundant. In recent years, Portugal has made a positive progress, which made the labour market more dynamic and efficient.

As a result of the adoption of a new labour code, important reforms include the revision of unemployment insurance system and employment protection legislation, the mitigation of working time agreements, and the impulsion of labour cost developments discursive with job creation and enhanced competitiveness (Prandeka, 2013).

According to Portugal (2006), it can be found out, that there are two main defined thresholds, which impact on the remuneration of private sector workers in Portugal:

1. National minimum wage, which also specifies taxes for most of the labour force;
2. The salary contract between employers and trades union associations, which also decide the minimum wage for each professional group.

In general, the labour market of Portugal, companies often pay their workers considerably more than the contractual wage negotiated in the collective contract, providing a wage cushion which can help to have an important mechanism for wage flexibility.

It is possible to find different empirical research with controversial opinions on this topic. Some researchers mention, that jobs are lost. Another group of researchers points to small influences on employment or even a small profit (Portugal, 2006).

Portugal has the one of the lowest unemployment rate in 2018 (7.3%) of any European Union country. If we will compare with Greece which has the highest unemployment rate (20.2 %), and with neighbour country Spain (15.2 %), we can take sure that the unemployment rate of Portugal is really low. Superficially, Portugal shares many labour market features: the toughest job security rules in the

OECD, an apparently similar architecture of wage bargaining, and comparable generosity of their unemployment insurance systems, at least since 1989 (The Statistics Portal, 2018b).

From the 2017 edition of the OECD Employment Outlook it is possible to find out an international assessment of latest labour market trends and the evaluation of short-term international prospects. It also possible to collect data about benchmarking labour market performance based on the new OECD Jobs Strategy scoreboard; the stability of the labour market as a result of the global crisis; the influence of technological change and globalisation in transforming labour markets; and key country differences in collective bargaining arrangements.

The following figure shows the employment rates for Portugal in 2000-2018 years. The Y axis shows the employment rate percentage for each year in Portugal and the X axis shows the years.

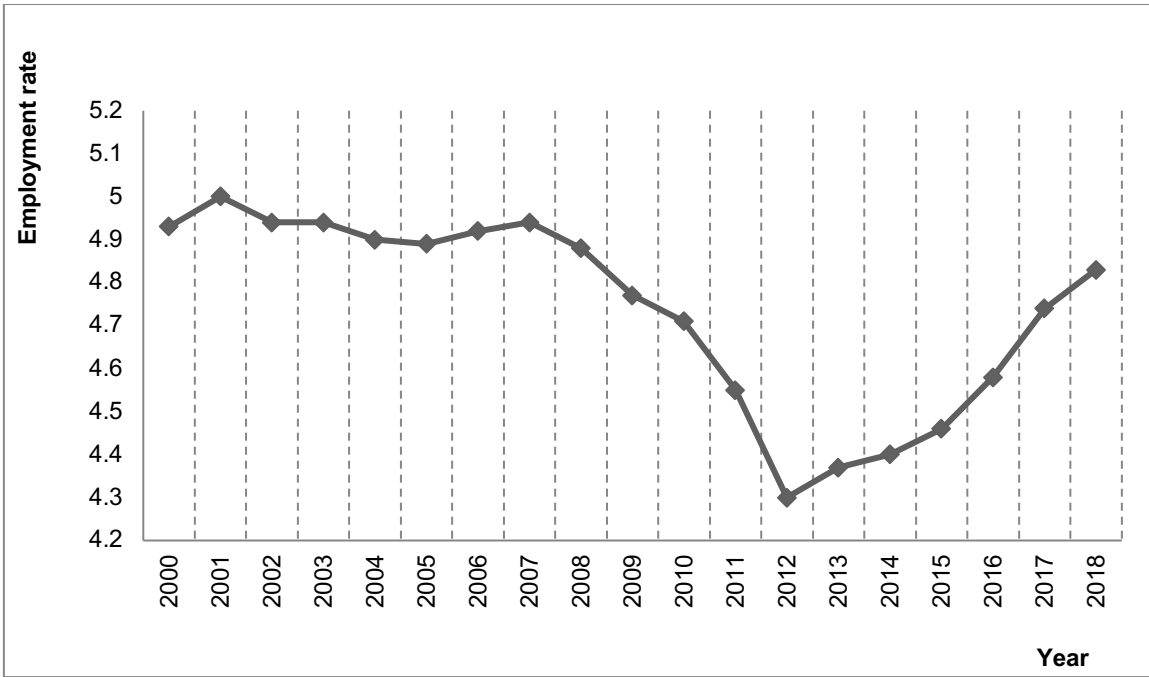


Figure 7. The employment rate for Portugal (2000-2018 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.theglobaleconomy.com> website.

Figure 7 shows that Portugal had digressive employment rate curve for 2000-2012 years. It was the period of word crises and the economy started to develop after 2012. Also, after 2012 the economy fields related to information technology started to develop faster and there were a huge number of technical IT projects. The number of high qualified specialists in this area has grown, which started to decrease the unemployment rate. But from 2013 it started to grow up, which is the answer of SO₂: “The employment rate of Portugal has increased during last ten years”.

The following figure presents the unemployment rates for Portugal for 2000-2018 years. The Y axis shows the unemployment rate percentage for each year in Portugal and the X axis shows the years. The results of the Figure 8 show that Portugal had a rising unemployment rate curve for 2007-2012 years and it started to go down from 2013 onwards. Therefore, it can be concluded that the different factors which are able to change the value of the unemployment rate had a positive effect on the labour market. From the downward curve from 2013, it is expected a lower level of the unemployment rate for Portugal in the few future years too.

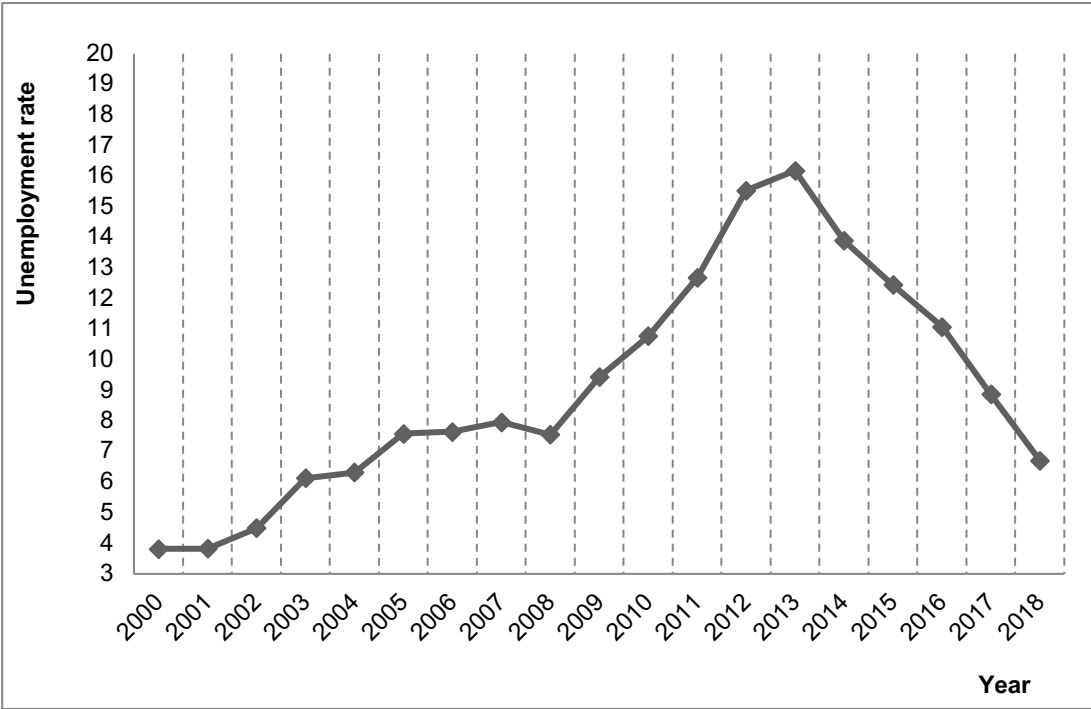


Figure 8. The unemployment rate for Portugal (2000-2018 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.theglobaleconomy.com> website.

The modern researchers present positive and negative factors for female's working probability in Portugal.

According to the modern researcher Eusébio (2015), there are the following positive factors on the female's working probability:

1. Higher education;
2. Growing up with a working mother.

Contrary to before-mentioned, there are several factors that have a negative influence on the female's working probability:

1. Age;
2. Age-squared;
3. Being married;
4. Having children;
5. The negative attitudes towards changing gender roles (Eusébio, 2015).

3.3 Comparison between Portugal and Ukraine

A high-level of female participation rate is important on several grounds. The high level of female participation in the labour market makes both an advance in the relative economic and social position of women. It helps to increase the utilization of human potential for economic growth and development (Ozsoy & Atlama, 2017).

In almost every country in the world, male participation in the labour market is higher than for female. Nevertheless, these gender differences in participation rates have been shrinking substantially in the last decades (Ortiz-Ospina & Tzvetkova, 2017).

The high level of female employment is an important instrument to build capacity for economic growth and poverty reduction. The following three key factors have the highest impact on economic growth:

1. The population,
2. The participation (or labour supply)
3. The productivity (Ozsoy & Atlama, 2017).

The high-level of female employment is able to increase the labour supply, productivity, and standard of living, decrease poverty among women and children. More and better jobs for female labour mean higher incomes and a better life for women, their family and also society as a whole. It is very important to use women's talents and skills in the labour market, which can help to increase women's self-confidence and social respectability (The World Bank, 2009).

Figure 9 shows, that the average value for Ukraine during that period was 48.5 percent with a minimum of 46.94 percent in 2017 and a maximum of 50.78 percent in 2000. In the case of Portugal, the average value for during that period was 54.5 percent with a minimum of 52.63 percent in 2000 and a maximum of 55.87 percent in 2007. So, from this result we can conclude, that Portugal every time

had higher female labour force participation rates than Ukraine, which is the answer to SO₃: “The female labour force participation rate for Portugal is higher than in Ukraine”.

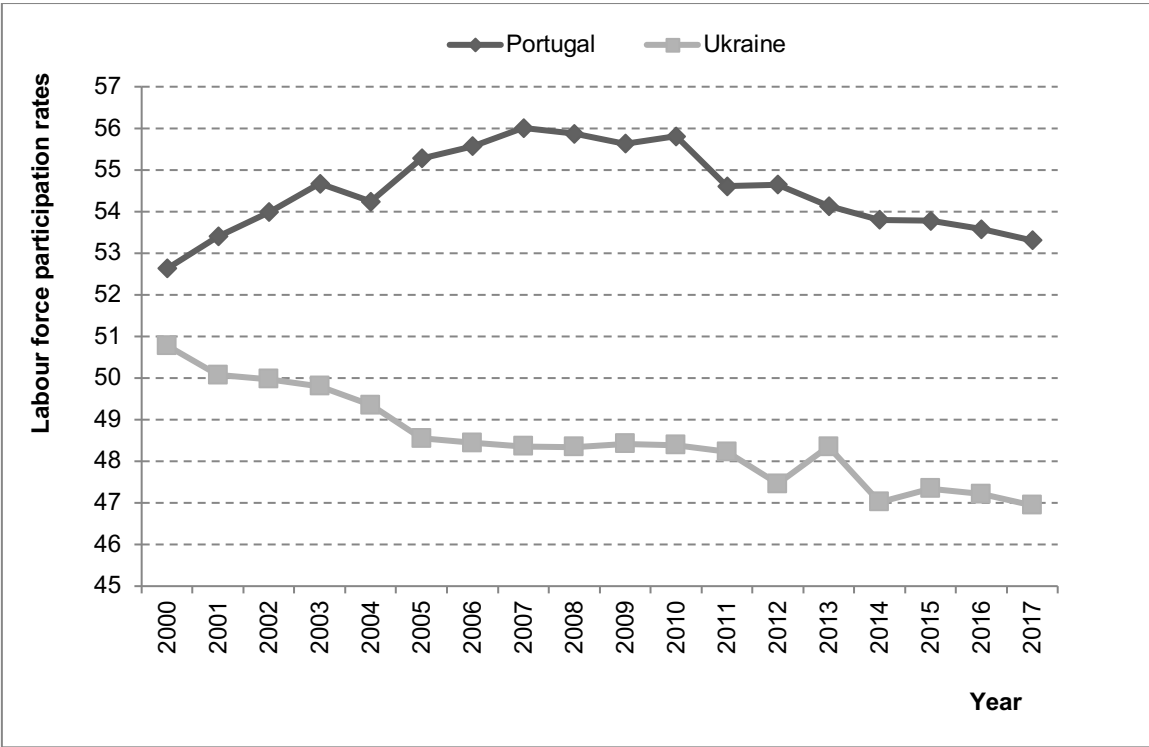


Figure 9. Female labour force participation rates for Portugal and Ukraine (2000-2017 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

It is important to understand the employment distribution by education, sex and age. The following table presents results by percentage from 2013 to 2017 for both countries Portugal and Ukraine. Everything is presented by advanced, basic, intermediate and less than basic aggregate levels.

To understand labour education distribution not only by educational level but also from another sphere, it is important to divide the labour population into 2 parts. The first part will include information about labour with 15-24 ages only, the second part will include ages 25-64. It can help to understand the difference between labour educational participation for the new generation and overall. The results of Table 2 present the relationship between education and employment distribution, which can be called also the segmentation of labour market by educational level of employees. As we can see, the results are not the same for Portugal and Ukraine, which means that the characterization of labour market indicators are different which makes the research more interesting and meaningful. The data about Portugal shows that the huge numbers of employees work with basic and intermediate educational

level. For example, in Portugal during 2016 and 2017 years the rate of employment in the basic level (15-24 age) are 27,9% and 26,4%; in Ukraine during 2016 and 2017 years the rate of employment in the basic level (15-24 age) are 2,3% and 2,7%. For the Ukraine is quite different. Employees with advanced level of education have the highest percentage in labour market. Analyse the Table 2, advanced level of male (25-64 ages) in Portugal are 21% and 20,2% during 2016 and 2017 years, advanced level of male (25-64 ages) in Ukraine are 45,8% and 46,4% during 2016 and 2017 years. So, Portugal has good environment for a labour with mid-level education, which is good for society. In the Ukraine employees need to have high qualification to find a job. The situation is the same for both type of labour (male and female). In the labour market of Ukraine is a major qualitative mismatch between qualifications offered by the education system and labour demand of employers. As one in five Ukrainian firms assumed the skills of available workers as a main disadvantage to their firm's operation and growth. Such skill deficit mostly affects modern and expanding firms (Klaveren, Tijdens, Hughie-Williams & Martin, 2010).

Table 2. Employment distribution by education, sex and age, (%).

		Portugal					Ukraine				
		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
15-24 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	14,7	16,5	17	15,2	16,8	44	50,2	47,6	45,5	46,8
15-24 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	39,3	34,8	28,9	27,9	26,4	6,5	2,2	2,4	2,3	2,7
15-24 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	46	48,7	54	56,6	56,8	49	47,5	49,8	52,2	50,5
15-24 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	0.1	0.1	0,1	0,3	0.1	0,6	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1
25-64 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	0.1	0.1	0,1	0,1	0.1	50	52,8	53	53,3	53,6
25-64 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	52,1	48,6	46,9	45,3	44,6	4,4	1,9	1,9	1,8	21,9
25-64 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	24,1	25,2	26,1	26,9	27,7	45,5	45,3	45,1	44,9	24,5
25-64 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	1,5	1,2	1	1	0,9	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
Male		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
15-24 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	7,7	9,9	10,6	8,6	8,9	37,5	41,9	39,4	36,9	39,5
15-24 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	46,3	42,9	35,7	33,9	31,6	6,5	2,3	2,7	2,7	3,3
15-24 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	45,9	47,2	53,6	56,9	59,5	55,6	55,7	57,7	60,4	57,1
15-24 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	0.1	0.1	0,1	0,5	0.1	0,4	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,2
25-64 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	17,1	19,1	20,1	21	20,2	42,8	44,8	45,1	45,8	46,4
25-64 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	57,9	54,6	52,4	50,6	51,1	4,7	2	2	2	40,7
25-64 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	23,4	24,9	26,3	27,2	27,6	52,4	53,2	52,8	52,1	12,9
25-64 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	1,7	1,4	1,1	1,2	1,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
Female		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
15-24 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	22,7	23,5	24,4	23	26,2	52,7	61,8	58,5	56,5	56,3
15-24 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	31,3	26,2	21,1	20,8	20,3	6,5	2	2,1	1,8	1,9
15-24 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	46	50,3	54,5	56,2	53,5	40,1	36,1	39,3	41,7	41,8
15-24 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0,7	0,1	0,2	0,1	0
25-64 (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	27,8	31	32,1	33	33,5	57,8	61,4	61,5	61,4	61,5
25-64 (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	46	42,3	41,2	39,8	38	4	1,8	1,7	1,5	1,5
25-64 (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	24,9	25,6	25,9	26,5	27,8	38,1	36,8	36,7	37	37
25-64 (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	1,3	1,1	0,9	0,7	0,8	0,2	0	0,1	0	0,1

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

Another important fact from the table is labour market relations with age. For both countries the percentage of labour with high educational level for young generation is less than for old generation. The educational factors are different in Portugal and Ukraine. For example, usually in Ukraine students finish their bachelor's degree with 21-22 years, but in Portugal sometimes students have over than 22 years old. So, the reason can be different for the low percentage of labour with high educational level for a young generation. The similarity for both countries is the growing number of young people that want to have a profession very soon and easy and without a university degree. It means that nowadays people want to take professions not only related with high qualification. They try to get professions that do not require advanced level of education. The percentage of female labour market with advanced level of education is higher than for male labour market. It is logical, because women try to do job, that does not require a lot of physical power. Also, Table 2 clearly shows that percentages of less than basic (aggregate level) for both countries, gender and age groups during the last five years are in the same level. They have very low values every time and the changes in other factors do not have any type of impact on it.

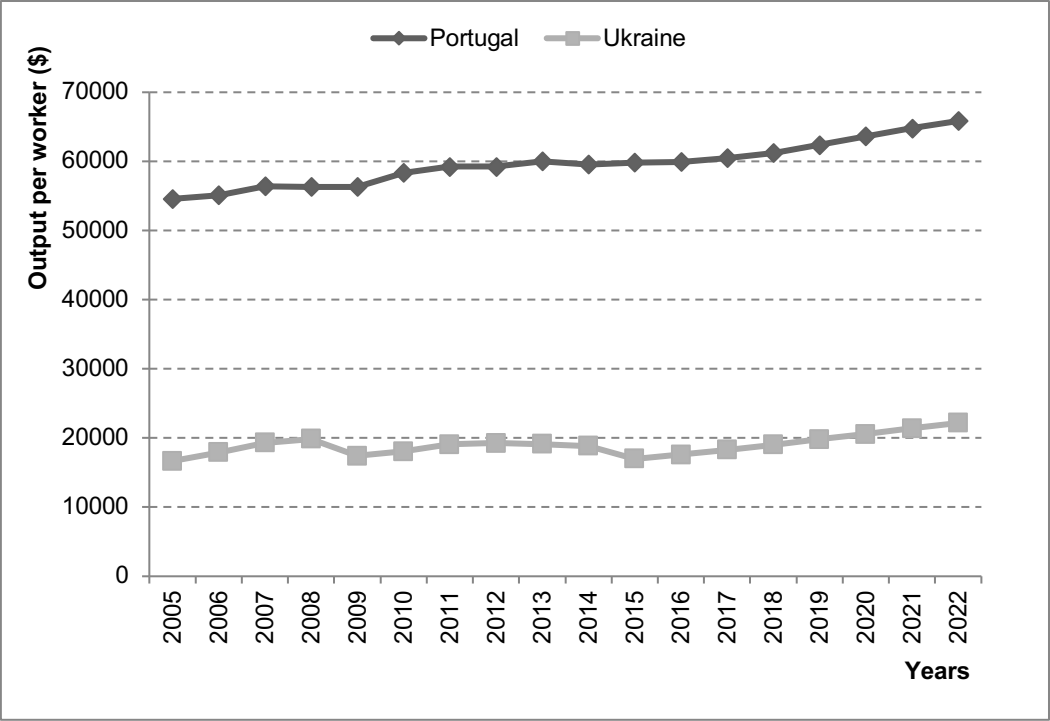


Figure 10. The output per worker (GDP constant 2011 international \$ in PPP) - ILO modelled estimates, May 2018 null.

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

This measure of labour productivity is calculated using data on GDP (in constant 2011 international dollars in PPP) derived from the World Development Indicators database of the World Bank. To compute labour productivity as GDP per worker, ILO estimates for total employment are used. Data for 1991-2016 are estimates while 2017-2021 data are projections. The dataset was updated as of November 2017.

Analysing the data on Figure 10, it is possible to find out that both countries have growing output per worker. Generally, this value for Portugal is higher three times and for both have the maximum values during last years. This is the answer of SO₆: “*The output per worker is higher in Portugal than in Ukraine*”. So, the probability is high, that it will rise during next five years and in 2022 the value is going to be maximum in Portugal and Ukraine.

Generally, the unemployment rate present information for all persons of working age who were:

1. Without work during the reference time period (for example when they were not in paid employment or self-employment;
2. Currently available for a job (for example when they were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference time period;
3. Searching and applying for work (for example when they had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to search and apply for the paid employment or self-employment) (ILO, 2018d).

It is very important for Portugal and Ukraine to understand the relation between unemployment rate, sex, age and education. It can help to understand the future development opportunities and fix some issues related to labour market, especially related with female labour market in both countries. All the necessary information is summarized in the following Figure 11 and Figure 12.

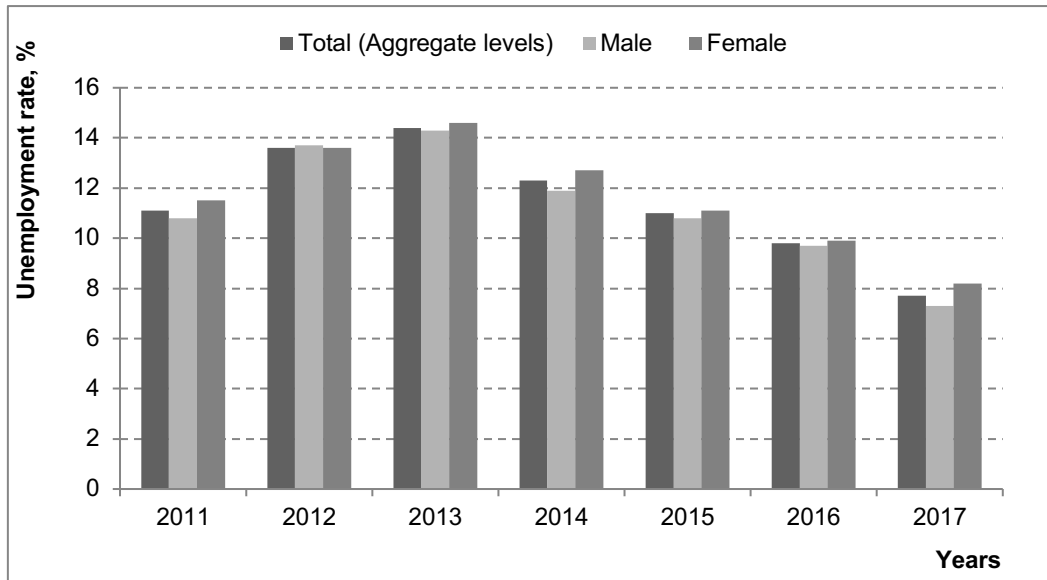


Figure 11. Unemployment rate by sex, age and education of Portugal (%) (25+ (Age); Total, Male and Female).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

The Figure 11 shows that unemployment rate of Portugal has changed, and in 2012-2013 it has raised. From 2013 this rate has decreased, which means that new jobs have been created.

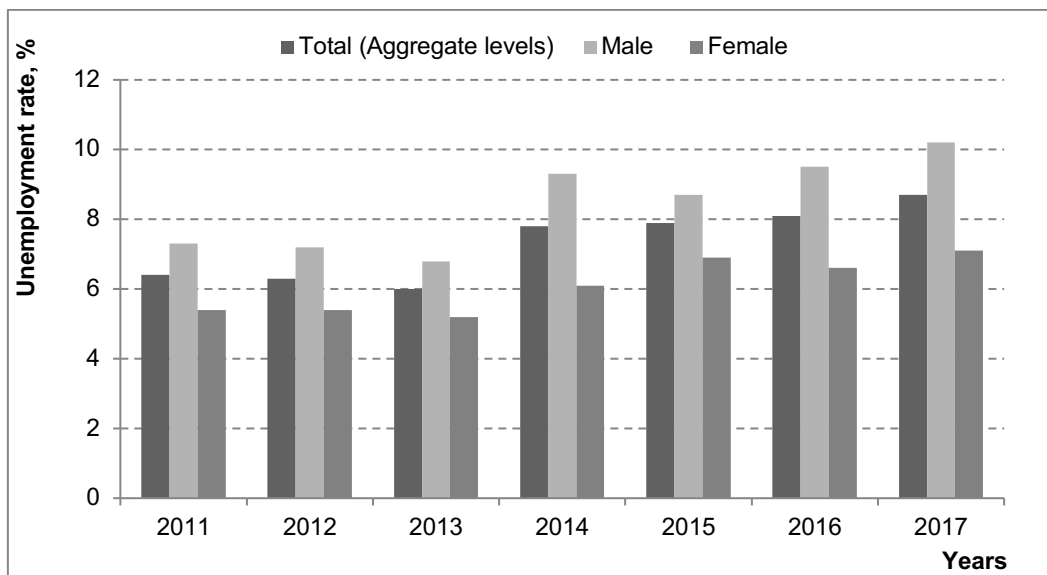


Figure 12. Unemployment rate by sex, age and education of Ukraine (%) (25+ (Age); Total, Male and Female).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

The Figure 12 shows that all factors have changed parallel during last seven years. Figure 12 shows that unemployment rate of Ukraine for males were higher during last year, what is opposite to unemployment rate of Portugal for males (unemployment rate of Portugal for males were high for 2011-2013 years). These results show that the relationship is strong and real, which means that with the understanding of these factors it is possible to fix and solve several issues.

The unemployment rates by educational levels demonstrate meaningful difference: more educated workers are two to three times less likely to be unemployed as compared to their low education counterparts and over the business cycle their relative rates tend to disperse. Almost all European countries tested an increase in the educational levels over the past decades: in this framework the countries with traditionally low levels of education (at the start of the period) are picking up and the number of high-skilled people is growing in absolute (Biagi & Lucifora, 2005).

To support the figure above, it is important to present unemployment rate by sex, age and education more detail. The following Table 3 presents all information deeper for different group of ages, for the last seven years and different group of labour market.

Table 3. Unemployment rate by sex, age and education, (%).

		Portugal							Ukraine						
For total labour		2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
15+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	9	11.7	12.6	10	9.2	8.4	6.5	7.1	6.9	6.8	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.4
15+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	13.7	16.1	17	15	13.2	11.8	9.5	6.6	6.4	6.9	13.6	12.2	8	1.1
15+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	13.4	17.6	17.4	15.3	13.9	12.3	9.9	8.8	8.4	7.6	10.4	10.1	10.7	17.9
15+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	11.6	14.4	17.3	13.9	13.2	13.1	10.9	0	0	3.5	9.4	8.2	19.7	24.1
15+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	12.7	15.5	16.2	13.9	12.4	11.1	8.9	7.9	7.5	7.2	9.3	9.1	9.4	9.5
25+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	7.7	10.1	11.3	8.9	8.2	7.4	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.4
25+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	12.3	14.6	15.6	13.6	12	10.6	8.6	6.5	6.4	6.9	12.9	11.9	8.2	1
25+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	10.9	14.3	14.3	12.6	11.4	10.4	8	7.3	7.2	6.4	8.9	8.9	9.7	17.9
25+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	11.5	14.3	16.8	13.7	13	13.1	10.9	0	0	4.7	11.1	9.5	21.1	26.2
25+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	11.1	13.6	14.4	12.3	11	9.8	7.7	6.4	6.3	6	7.8	7.9	8.1	8.7
Male															
15+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	9.5	11.2	10.6	8.1	8.6	8	6.4	7.9	7.9	7.4	9.8	9	9.5	10.3
15+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	12.9	16.2	17.3	14.9	13.1	11.9	8.5	8.1	8.2	7.7	18.8	15.4	9.8	0.6
15+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	12.2	16.4	15.6	13.7	12.4	11.1	9.3	9.6	9.1	8.6	11.4	10.8	12	34.1
15+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	15	17.9	20.8	17.5	16.6	14.9	12.6	0	0	6.6	9.9	7.5	31.6	34
15+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	12.3	15.6	16	13.5	12.2	11	8.4	8.8	8.5	8	10.9	10.1	10.8	11.1
25+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	8.5	10.2	9.5	7.2	7.7	7	5.7	6.5	6.4	6	8.1	7.4	8.1	9.2
25+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	11.4	14.6	15.8	13.5	11.9	10.7	7.6	8.5	8	7.8	18	15.3	9.8	0.5
25+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	9.9	12.9	12.7	10.8	10.2	9.1	7.5	7.9	7.7	7.3	9.9	9.6	10.8	39.7
25+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	14.9	17.7	20.1	17.3	16.3	15	12.6	0	0	9	12.7	8.9	33.8	37.9
25+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	10.8	13.7	14.3	11.9	10.8	9.7	7.3	7.3	7.2	6.8	9.3	8.7	9.5	10.2
Female															
15+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	8.6	12	13.9	11.2	9.6	8.6	6.5	6.5	6.1	6.4	6.7	7.7	7	6.8
15+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	14.7	16	16.5	15.2	13.4	11.7	10.8	4.8	4.2	6	6.9	8.1	5.6	11.4
15+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	14.5	18.8	19.1	16.8	15.5	13.4	10.5	7.7	7.3	6	8.9	8.8	8.9	9.2
15+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	8.2	11.2	13.8	10.3	9.5	10.9	9.2	0	0	1.3	8.9	8.8	0	0
15+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	13	15.5	16.4	14.3	12.8	11.2	9.4	6.8	6.5	6.2	7.5	8.1	7.7	7.8
25+ (Age)	Advanced (Aggregate levels)	7.1	10.1	12.4	9.9	8.5	7.6	5.6	5	4.9	5.3	5.4	6.4	5.7	6
25+ (Age)	Basic (Aggregate levels)	13.5	14.6	15.2	13.8	12.2	10.5	9.9	4.2	4.5	5.9	6.6	7.5	5.9	12.1
25+ (Age)	Intermediate (Aggregate levels)	11.8	15.6	15.8	14.3	12.6	11.8	8.5	6.3	6.3	5.1	7.4	7.7	8	8.6
25+ (Age)	Less than basic (Aggregate levels)	8	11.2	13.4	10.1	9.4	10.9	9.2	0	0	1.7	9.7	9.9	0	0
25+ (Age)	Total (Aggregate levels)	11.5	13.6	14.6	12.7	11.1	9.9	8.2	5.4	5.4	5.2	6.1	6.9	6.6	7.1

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

Improving women's and male's education after secondary school allow to make better access to quality employment and expand job choices. To achieve the high-level quality of labour employment is very important to understand the quality of labour employment. Policies need to focus on labour demand and supply dimensions. Especially appropriate spread access to secondary and higher education. It is important look unemployment rate across educations, because for a good job needed higher education (Verick, 2014).

Table 3 shows that the unemployment rate is lower for the labour with high education, especially for female labour according to *International Labour Organisation*. It is the same situation for both countries. It means that the growing number of women in educational field will have negative influence on the unemployment level of female labour. The same logic works for male labour market too. Analysing unemployment rate, the advanced level of male (15+ age) in 2013 in Portugal is 10,6%, what is higher that unemployment rates of the advanced level of male (15+ age) in 2013 in Ukraine, which is 7,4%. The unemployment rate of the advanced level of female (25+ age) in 2013 in Portugal is 12,4%, what is higher that unemployment rates of the advanced level of female (25+ age) in 2013 in Ukraine, which is 5,3%. The difference in unemployment rate is 7,1 %, which means that in Portugal female and male have a higher percentage of unemployment. The results of Table 3 show that Portugal and Ukraine have little, but positive tendency during last seven years related to using educational level for decreasing the unemployment rate for labour market. All these factors prove that educational processes in the country have not less importance level than salary and other job-related factors.

The following figure shows the unemployment rate, unemployment rate for female and unemployment rate for males in Ukrainian labour market during period 2000 to 2018 years (ILO, 2019).

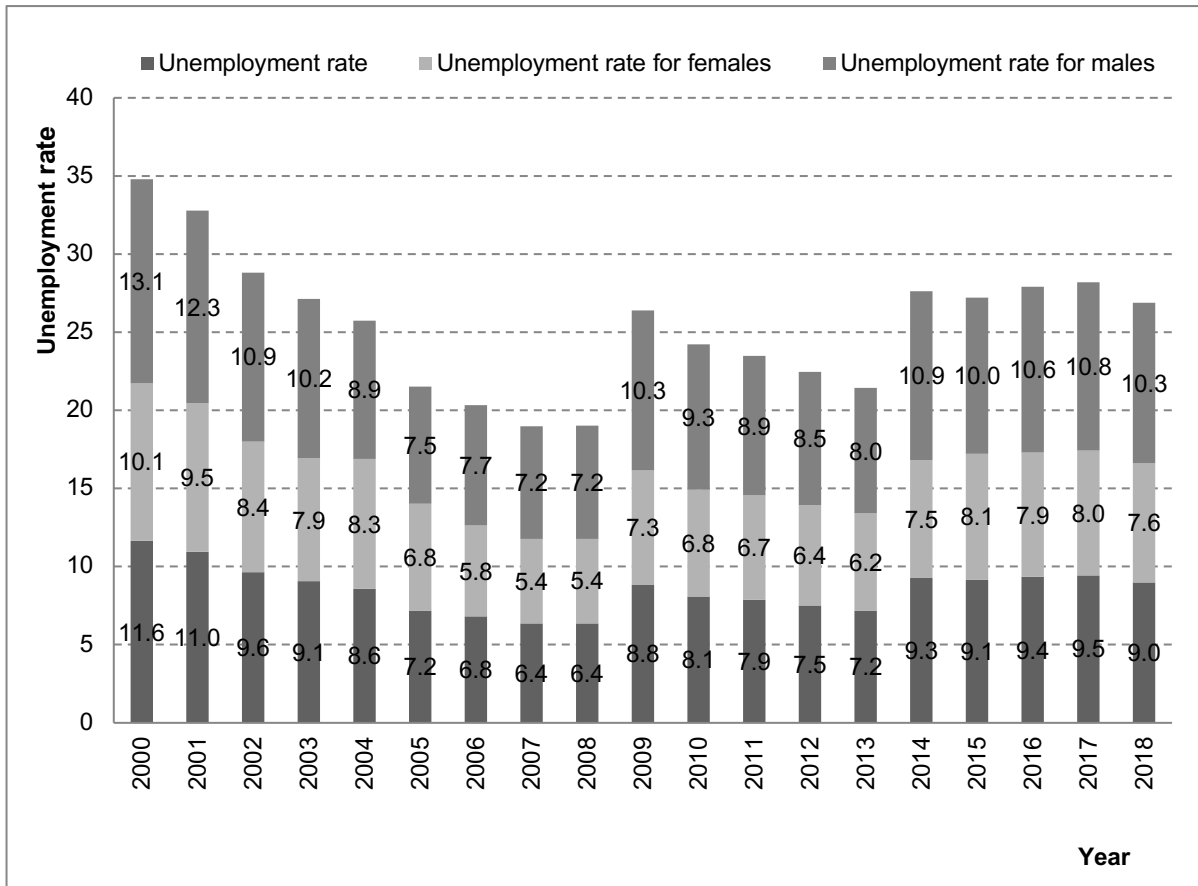


Figure 13. Unemployment rates for Ukraine (male and female labours), (2000-2018 years).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

Figure 13 shows, that since 2000 the female unemployment rate was less than the unemployment rate for males in Ukraine. According to “*Analytical research on women’s participation in the labour force in Ukraine*”, the unemployment rate of Ukraine is noticeably lower than the EU average. In most EU countries, like Ukraine, during the financial and economic crisis period was notified no solid increase in female employment. Generally, in Europe can be observed a narrowing of the gender gaps. The reasons for the narrowing may include various factors. The factors can be prompted by the crisis. First of all, the crisis hit the male-dominated sectors, resulting in a faster raising in the overall unemployment rate for men than for women. Also, the possibility that women might become discouraged following a diminution in their salaries, and withdraw from the labour market (Libanova et al., 2012).

The following table shows the minimum and maximum unemployment rates in Ukrainian labour market. The results in the Table 4 show, that the above statement is true in this case too. In table 4 is chosen the lowest and the highest unemployment rates during 2000-2018 period. As a result, the lowest rates

for all type of labour market were in 2007, and the highest rates were in 2000. The average rate and the standard deviation are calculated again for 2000-2018 time period.

Table 4. Minimum, maximum and average unemployment rates for Ukrainian labour market.

	Labour	Female labour	Male labour
Minimum Rate	6.35 (in 2007)	5.42 (in 2007)	7.21 (in 2007)
Maximum Rate	11.63 (in 2000)	10.11 (in 2000)	13.06 (in 2000)
Average Rate	8.58	7.37	9.68
Standard deviation	1.57	1.38	1.67

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.theglobaleconomy.com> website.

As a logical continue of the research, lets discuss and present the employment rate and other related indicators for female labour market in different areas of the Ukrainian and Portuguese economies and compare those results with female labour market. The all necessary data is presented in the Table 4.

The growing level of part-time employment over the past years represents a fundamental change in the labour market in different countries. It has become an important and inseparable component of the series of work arrangements and represents a very good example of the labour market's response to economic and social developments and changes. The part-time employment has been associated with the growing diversity of the workforce and contributed to changes in workplace culture and attitudes towards work (Abhayaratna, Andrews, Nuch & Podbury, 2008).

To understand clearly female labour market, it is necessary to discover details about part-time employment. Nowadays, there is a lot of people that work part-time, especially students and people with special needs. The reasons are different, but most important part of part-time employment for the research is to understand the percentage of female labour in total labour market for both countries. So, first it is important to present part-time employment for total labour and separately for male and female labours.

The following two figures present the part-time employment values for different segmentation (total, male and female) of labour market in Portugal and Ukraine.

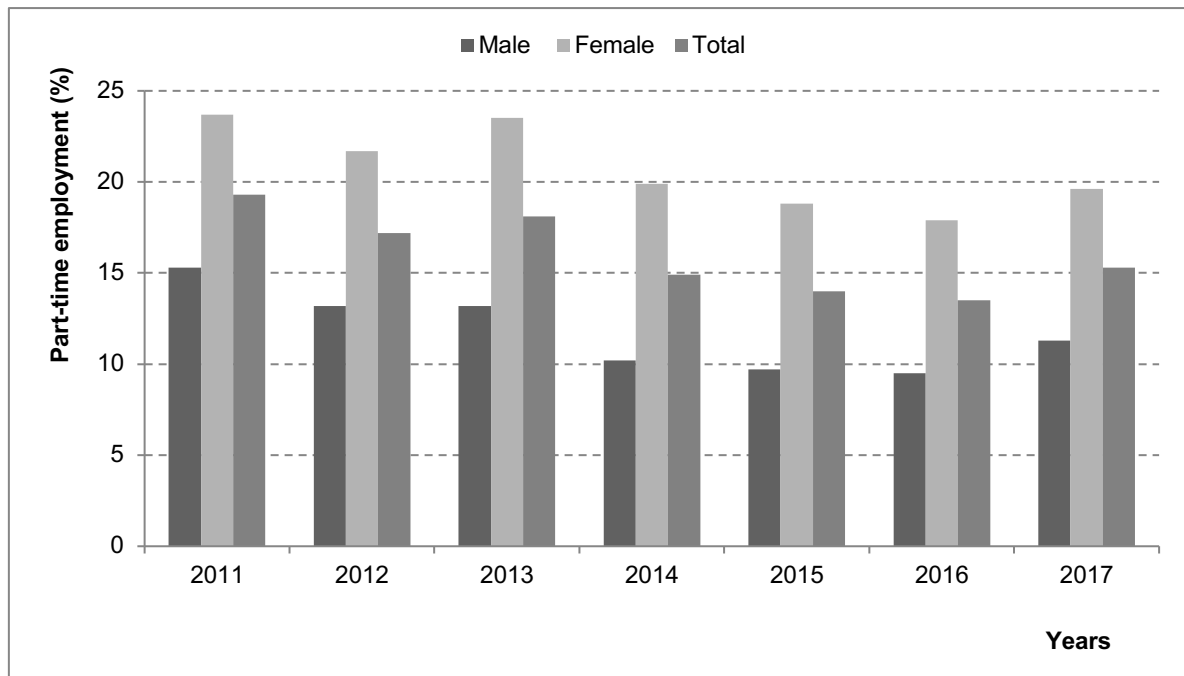


Figure 14. Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Ukraine-Common definition (%).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

Figure 14 shows that the female labour has the highest part-time employment percentage in Ukraine. There are different reasons of this high value, such as family situation, when women need to be at home and care for their children. In this type of situation, they are able to work just part-time. Also, companies choose part-time employees more from female labour, because women are ready to work in part-time, earning a lower salary than men. Another reason is because usually part-time jobs are not long time and employees of male labour try to find long-term jobs.

Generally, it makes a good environment for the social life for women, because in this case, women have more chances and opportunities to find a job and be ready for challenges, which are commonly called "work-family balance" in the literature (Shah & Shah, 2016).

The results of the Figure 15 show that the situation of part-time employment in Portugal is the same as in Ukraine. It means that the reasons presented above are objective and useful for Portugal too. To pay attention to the difference between part-time employment of male and female labours in Ukraine and Portugal, it is possible to conclude, the difference in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal. This is the answer to SO₇: "*Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Ukraine is higher than in Portugal*". The results of part-time employment rates of male and female labour are closed in Portugal, but it does not deny our conclusion above about the reasons.

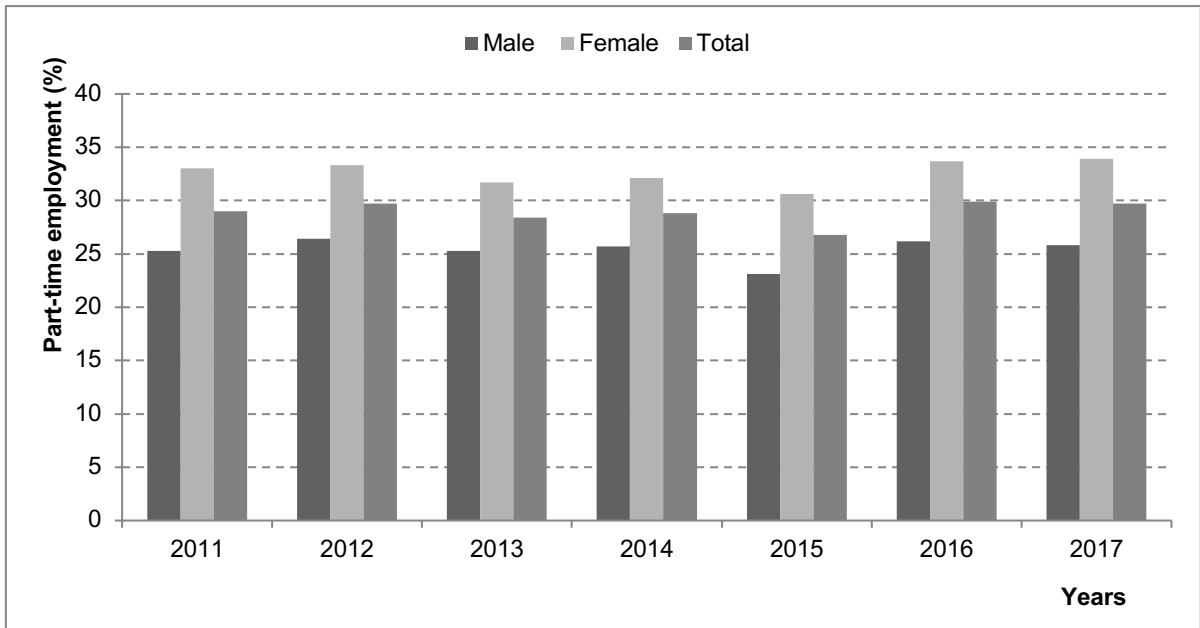


Figure 15. Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Portugal -- Common definition (%).

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

One another important thing is to understand the labour force participation by sex. The following Table 5 presents the employment in agriculture, industry and services, also wage and salaried workers, contribution family workers. All information is presented for Portugal and Ukraine, which can help to make comparison for the countries. The data is presented for male and female labour markets in 2000 and 2016 years.

The labour force participation rate indicator performs a main role in the study of the factors that determine the size and composition of a country's human resources and in making designing of the future supply of labour. This indicator is used:

1. To formulate employment policies;
2. To determine training needs;
3. To calculate the expected working lives of the male and female populations;
4. The rates of accession to economic activity;
5. Retirement from economic activity. (ILO, 2018c).

The labour force participation is utilized for understanding the labour market behaviour of various categories of the population. The level and character of labour force participation depends on employment possibilities and the demand for income, which may diverge from one category of persons

to another. For example, researches have shown that the labour force participation rates of women change systematically, at any given age, with their married status and level of education (ILO, 2018b).

Table 5. Labour force participation by sex (featured indicators).

	Portugal				Ukraine			
	2000		2016		2000		2016	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Employment in agriculture (%)	14.2	11.5	4.8	8.9	22.8	23.4	13.3	16.6
Employment in industry (%)	22.9	44.4	15.1	33.4	18.0	36.5	14.0	35.2
Employment in services (%)	62.9	44.0	80.1	57.7	59.3	40.1	72.7	48.2
Wage and salaried workers (%)	75.3	72.5	86.6	78.1	73.5	79.4	84.6	81.0
Contributing family workers (%)	3.4	1.4	0.7	0.6	1.2	0.7	0.5	0.4

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <http://datatopics.worldbank.org> website.

Table 5 shows that the employment in agriculture, employment in services and contributing family workers in Ukraine was higher than in Portugal for both sexes and years. In case of employment in industry, the results have changed from 2000 to 2016, which is higher in Ukraine for female, but for male it is higher in 2000 and becomes lower in 2016, which is the answer of specific objective 4: “*The employment rate in the industry and services for female labour in Portugal is higher than in Ukraine in 2016*”. The information for 2017 is not complete, which is the reason that last year that includes data in the table in 2016. Rates for wage and salaried workers in Portugal are higher for female and lower for male. Another interesting and important thing to understand female labour market in Portugal and Ukraine is to find out the participation level of female labour in public life and decision-making processes.

Table 6. Comparison of public life and decision making in Portugal and Ukraine for women's segment.

	Portugal		Ukraine	
	2000	2016	2000	2016
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	17.4	34.8	7.8	12.0
Proportion of women in ministerial level positions (%)	-	22.2	-	13.0

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <http://datatopics.worldbank.org> website.

Table 6 shows that the proportion percentage of seats held by women in national parliaments and proportion of women in ministerial level positions was higher in Portugal than in Ukraine in 2000. The

situation did not change in 2016 and Portugal had higher percentage too. From data of Table 4 it is possible to insist that Portugal and Ukraine both have increased the values.

Men and women see risk and opportunity in dissimilar ways, and that they work differently as a result. Discover and seize upon these differences, and companies stand a better chance of seeing the world as it really is and as it could become. Fail to create different teams, and companies become sensitive to "groupthink" – the phenomenon where by engaging only with those who share a similar view of the world. Nevertheless, despite evidence that links variety and made better business performance, the assume on gender variety in senior leadership is changing at a painfully slow rate (Grand Thornton, 2017).

It is a fact, that the participation level of female labour in different areas is one of the most important factors to understand the reason of high or low participation level in general labour market. So, to find out the reasons above, it is necessary to discuss participation indicators and factors such as:

1. Percent of firms with majority female ownership;
2. Percent of firms with female participation in ownership;
3. Percent of firms with a female top manager;
4. Proportion of permanent full-time workers that are female (%);
5. Proportion of permanent full-time production workers that are female (%);
6. Proportion of permanent full-time non-production workers that are female (%).

By using website Enterprise surveys, and the indicators above, it is possible to measure women's participation level in businesses in Portugal and Ukraine, also to gauge gender participation differences across various firm subgroups. The results of the following table are based on surveys of the firms from different areas.

Table 7 shows that fist three indicators have higher values in Portugal and last three indicators have higher values in Ukraine. This is the answer of SO₅: *"The percentage of female participation in different business areas in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal"*. Both countries need to improve this result to become more efficient and have better female labour market and participation level.

Table 7. The female participation in different business areas in Portugal and Ukraine.

	Portugal	Ukraine
Percent of firms with majority female ownership	40.4	31.5
Percent of firms with female participation in ownership	16.9	12.9
Percent of firms with a female top manager	20.6	18.8
Proportion of permanent full-time workers that are female (%)	38.7	41.4
Proportion of permanent full-time production workers that are female (%)	25.2	41.5
Proportion of permanent full-time non-production workers that are female (%)	40.8	46.7

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org> website.

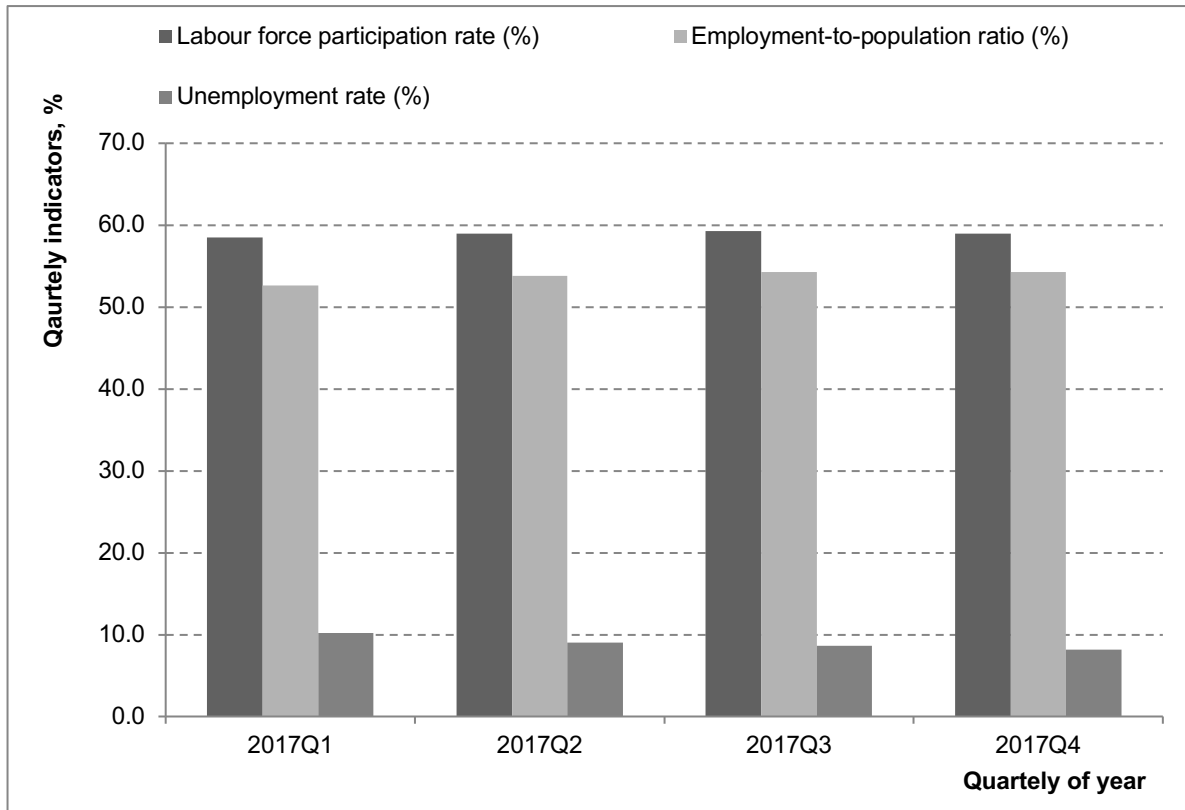


Figure 16. Quarterly indicators of Portugal.

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

Figure 16 and following Figure 17 show, that 2017 was a stabile year. The values of labour force, employment and unemployment have fluctuated just a little. To analyse the unemployment rate for both countries, it can be concluded that Portugal has less unemployment rate at the end of the year than in the beginning. In the case of Ukraine, the situation is a little bit different. In the beginning of the year and in the end the values of the unemployment rate are almost the same, but in the second and third quarters of the year, the unemployment rate is lower. It is a fact, that the correlation and difference between these three factors are the same for both countries, which means that some methodologies can be useful as both Portugal and Ukraine.

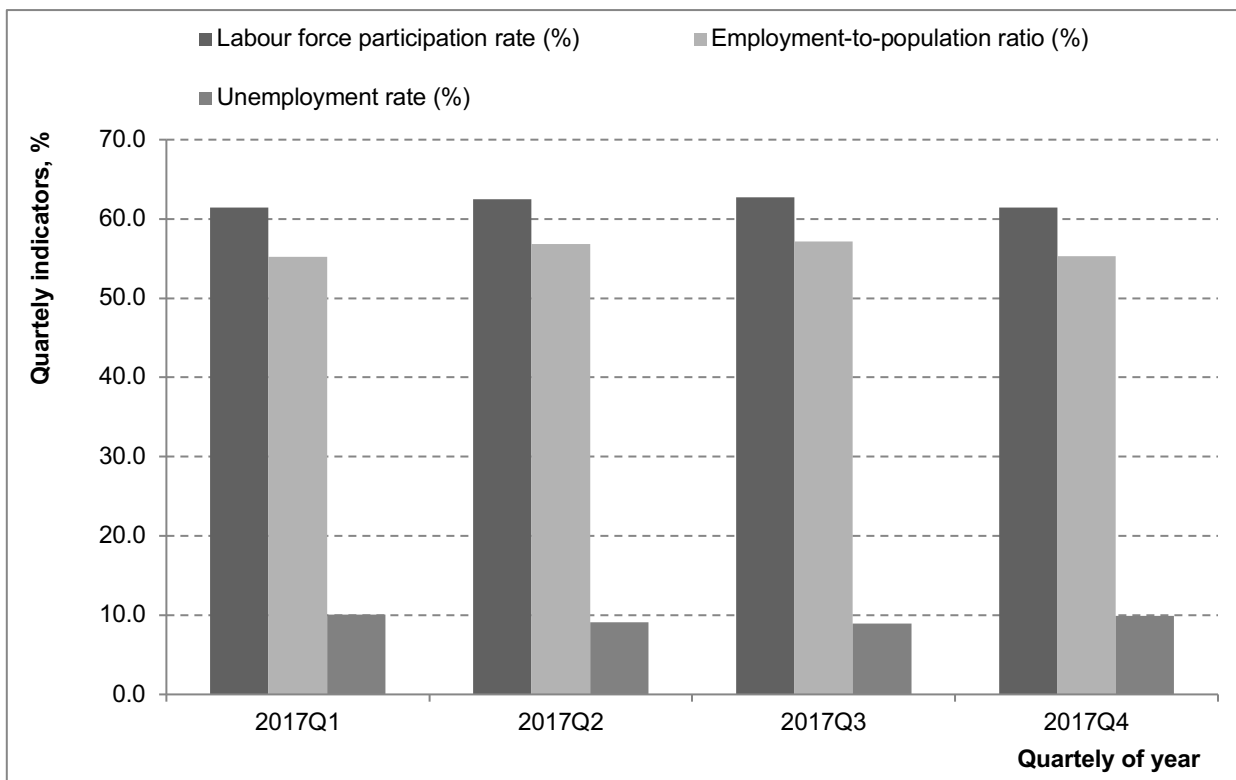


Figure 17. Quarterly indicators of Ukraine.

Source: Author's own elaboration based on <https://www.ilo.org> website.

The following table presents the main results for specific objectives of the research. In the column of main results is summarised most important information and outputs. The main results show that generally the specific objectives have been chosen correctly and mostly correspond to the reality. For only the first and second specific objectives the results are not entirely satisfactory, because the time period has been chosen is a little bit longer and the conclusions were true for short type of time period.

Table 8. Main results.

Label	Specific Objectives (SO)	Main results
SO₁	The unemployment rate of Ukraine has decreased during last ten years.	Ukraine had rising unemployment rate until 2008 year and it started to go down from 2009 to 2013. From 2014 until our days Ukraine had rising unemployment rate.
SO₂	The employment rate of Portugal has increased during last ten years.	Portugal had digressive employment rate curve for 2007-2012 years, but from 2013 year it started to grow up.
SO₃	The female labour force participation rate for Portugal is higher than in Ukraine.	The average value of Portugal was 54.5 percent with a minimum of 52.63 percent in 2000 and a maximum of 55.87 percent in 2007, which shows that the average value of Ukraine is smaller.
SO₄	The employment rate in the industry and services for female labour in Portugal is higher than in Ukraine in 2016.	Table shows that during period 2000 to 2016 the employment rate in industry and services for female labour of Portugal have changed and exceeded indicators of Ukraine.
SO₅	The percentage of female participation in different business areas in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.	Table represents female participation in different business areas in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.
SO₆	The output per worker is higher in Portugal than in Ukraine.	The output per worker for Portugal is higher three times and for both countries have the maximum values during last years.
SO₇	Incidence of part-time employment by sex for Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.	The incidence of part-time employment of male and female labours in Ukraine is higher than in Portugal.

Source: Author's own elaboration.

In next section it will be present a general conclusion with the main findings of the current research.

Conclusion, Limitations and Future Research Line

Nowadays the emergence, growth and development of female labour market have a global mission all over the world. There are a lot of countries that encourage the development of female labour market, which is a useful tool for improving national labour market and for developing the national economy and intensify socially active population level. Generally, if the female society participation has a high level in the country, it has a positive influence on the economic life and in society assists directly to economic growth and prosperity of the country.

Moreover, female labour market is an actual developing field in modern society and requires special attention to this concept. Increasing female labour market size, the number of women in different areas, female members of the board of directors of large companies and women that have high positions in top management becomes a progressive and perspective trend mostly in the countries that have a transitive economy.

The changing nature of women's participation in the labour force has been an essential criterion of the economic development process. However, the strong and fully effective relationship between participation and economic progress is far from straightforward. Ultimately, women's employment is changing from the range of multifaceted factors, such as the education, fertility rates, social norms, and the nature of job creation.

Nevertheless, women face different barriers and difficulties on the way of becoming a part of labour market, they are a subject of higher demands for employment with a comparison to men, but men have higher salaries at the same positions in firms. Also, women are less likely to be appointed to top management positions as in large and medium companies.

The high level of economic growth rate is able to increase female labour force participation, also in this way it is possible to increase work opportunities for women. Female education has a strong positive effect on female labour force participation. This was in concordance with the micro-level evidence from Portugal and Ukraine and which can be true for other countries too.

The chosen theme of study began to appear in the spotlight only during the last few years, that why it is a relatively new concept in the socio-economic development in different countries. In literature, there are less information and this phenomenon is still poorly studied and requires to be carefully examined.

This work includes a theoretical part where information about the status and development of female labour market in different countries in the world and especially in Portugal and Ukraine, which shows that for both countries there is a positive tendency of the female labour market.

This research was initiated with the aim to study and determine significance level and influence of main obstacles that women may face during their working experience and women's possibility to get high

positions in top management of the companies. The results show that situations in different areas are not similar and women participation in top management positions are different.

Also, it should be emphasized that this work is not perfect and has some limitations within the research and performed analysis. These limitations include a small number of sources selected for the formation of a database, less technical tools to make analysis, also a small number of similar studies in the field of female labour market research, which does not give an opportunity to compare the fulfilled study with other researchers.

Generally, the results of the study show that Portugal and Ukraine both have developed level of female labour, but often Portugal has better results, which includes the higher level of female participation in labour market and more opportunities to become a part of top management in companies. Both countries have perspectives to develop the female labour market and solve issues step by step. It may become basis to develop socio-economic life generally and raise women role in country life.

To speak about perspectives and future lines of the study, it should be mentioned that the sphere is quite new and developing one in the modern society what is the main reason of necessity to be investigated. As another remark, it is necessary to mention that to search and find the data and general information about Portugal is easier than for Ukraine. It can make some issues for future researchers during their scientific work. As a solution of this type of issues, it can be mentioned that, for taking data clear and complete, it is mandatory to use different online sources, compare them and find the more correct and possible version. This study may be a little base for further researches in this area.

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