

Chapter 4

Work

Key findings

- Globally, about three quarters of men and half of women participate in the labour force; the gender gap in participation has narrowed in only some regions and remains widest in Northern Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia.
- Since 1995, both young women and men (aged 15 to 24) have experienced a large decline in labour force participation. Women aged 25 or older, however, recorded an increase of participation in most regions.
- Women's unemployment rate remains higher than men's in most countries, and the differences remain substantial.
- Vulnerable employment—that is, own-account and contributing family work—constitutes half of women's and men's employment globally, but is most common in Africa and Asia, especially among women.
- Women predominate in the services sector of employment, especially in education, health and social work, and private households as employers.
- The occupational segregation of women and men continues to be deeply embedded in all regions.
- Women earn less than men across all sectors and occupations, with women working full-time earning between 70 and 90 per cent of what men earn in most countries.
- Women spend, on average, three hours more per day than men on unpaid work in developing countries and two hours more per day than men in developed countries; when all work—paid and unpaid—is considered, women work longer hours than men.
- Over half of countries offer at least 14 weeks maternity leave and the proportion has increased over the past 20 years.
- Paternity leave is becoming more common— 48 per cent of countries have provisions on paternity leave in 2013, compared to 27 per cent in 1994.

Introduction

Women constitute roughly half of the global population and thus, potentially, half of its work force. As a group, women do as much work as men, if not more. However, the types of work they do, as well as the conditions under which they work and their access to opportunities for advancement, differ from that of men. Women work less than men in the labour market but more within households on domestic activities. In the labour market, women are more disadvantaged than men: They are more likely to be unemployed; less likely to be employed as wage and salaried workers in most developing regions; and are more likely to work as contributing family workers who typically do not receive a monetary income. Their work is concentrated in sectors and occupations that tend to have low pay, is subject to long hours

and carries no social protections. Women are less likely to hold managerial positions, and earn less than men everywhere.

The Beijing Platform for Action identifies women's role in the economy as a critical area of concern, and calls attention to the need to promote and facilitate their equal access to employment and resources, improved employment conditions, as well as the harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.¹

Some progress has been made since 1995 in women's position in the labour market, as well as in the equal sharing of family responsibilities. Women aged 25 and older have increased their

¹ United Nations, 1995.

participation in the labour force in most regions. They are currently more likely than in the past to be employed as wage and salaried workers and less likely to be contributing family workers. Although women still do not earn as much as men, evidence from many developed countries has shown signs that the gender gap in pay is narrowing. More countries have adopted measures to

provide maternity leave to help strengthen women's attachment to the labour market. Measures are also being instituted to grant paternity leave, which helps to promote greater involvement of fathers in childcare and hence more equal sharing of family responsibilities. Indeed, the gender difference in the sharing of those responsibilities has narrowed over time.

Box 4.1

Gaps in gender statistics on work

Monitoring the status and progress of women and men in the area of work requires reliable and timely data on labour force and on time use. However, national capacity for producing these data is far from satisfactory.^a

As shown in the following table, since 2005, slightly more than 60 per cent of countries provided data on labour force participation and unemployment by sex for at least two years. Half of the countries have employment data disag-

gregated by sex which are further disaggregated by status in employment and by occupation for at least two years; only 40 per cent have data on earnings by sex since 2005. When an additional two data points are required for an earlier period (1995–2004), the proportion of countries that have such data is lower, especially for data on earnings. The divide between developing and developed countries in terms of data availability is significant across all labour force indicators.

Proportion of countries that reported main labour force indicators by sex, developed and developing countries

	Labour force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment by status in employment	Employment by occupation	Earnings
At least 2 data points in 2005–2014					
All countries	64	64	55	50	39
Developing countries	53	53	42	37	30
Developed countries	100	98	98	93	70
At least 2 data points in 1995–2004 and 2005–2014					
All countries	59	60	47	44	17
Developing countries	49	51	34	31	13
Developed countries	93	89	89	89	28

^a The assessment of national capacity to produce the necessary data for gender analysis carried out in this section is only based on national data that were either reported to the international statistical system or accessible in national reports and databases. The analysis described in the chapter, however, is based on both national data and international estimates.

Source: Statistics on labour force data availability were compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division, based on the International Labour Office, 2014a, ILOStat database and International Labour Office, 2014b, Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition (accessed January 2015).

The production of time-use statistics has been increasingly integrated into regular social statistics programmes in many countries. Since 2005, 75 countries (38 per cent) have collected time-use statistics through a time-use survey or have included a time-use module in a multipurpose household survey; time use statistics are available at the international level for 67 of them.

Even with regular surveys on labour force and time use, accurate measurement of women's work remains a challenge. Work activities such as

subsistence agriculture are often underestimated or excluded, for reasons such as limitation of data sources, gender-based stereotypes, and concepts and definitions adopted in data collection. "Work activities", which were re-defined by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2013 to include all forms of work, including unpaid domestic and care work performed by women and girls in households, could help in better measuring and understanding the full range of work carried out by women (box 4.3).

A. Women and men in the labour force

1. Labour force participation

Globally, the gender gap in labour force participation remains very large

Globally, men are much more likely than women to participate in the labour force.² In 2015, 77 per cent of men and 50 per cent of women of working age were in the labour force (figure 4.1).³ Women's labour force participation rate remained steady at 52 per cent from 1995 to 2006, declined to 50 per cent in 2010, and is projected to remain at that level in 2015. Labour force participation for men declined steadily from 80 per cent in 1995 to 77 per cent in 2010, and has remained unchanged. The gender gap in labour force participation narrowed only marginally over the past 20 years due to the slightly larger decline in men's labour force participation rate than that of women (for concepts related to the labour force, see box 4.2).

The gender gap in labour force participation has narrowed in most regions, but remains large

The labour force participation rates of women and men vary greatly across regions. In 2015, women's labour force participation rates were 30 per cent or lower in Northern Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia and below 50 per cent in Southern Europe. In the other regions of the world, women's rates were between 50 and 70 per cent. In contrast, men's labour force participation rates ranged less widely, from 62 per cent in Southern Europe to 82 per cent in South-Eastern Asia (figure 4.2).

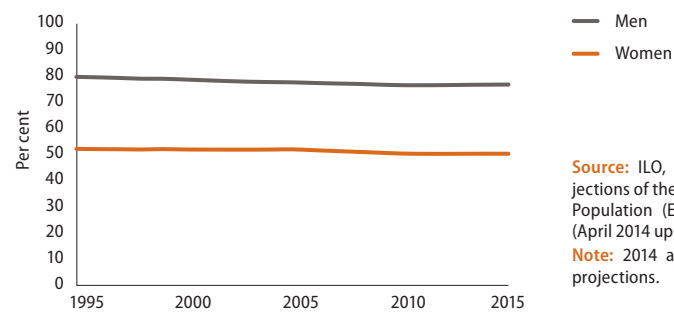
Trends in the labour force participation of women and men also varied markedly by region. Over the past two decades, all regions except Eastern and Southern Asia showed some increase in women's participation rates. The most notable increases were recorded in Latin America and the Caribbean and Southern Europe, where participation rates of women increased by 8 percentage points. In contrast, women's labour force participation decreased in Eastern and Southern Asia (figure 4.2), mainly due to patterns observed

² Labour force participation rate is calculated as the proportion of persons in the labour force—employed and unemployed—among working age population.

³ ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update). Data for 2014 and 2015 for the global level are projections.

Figure 4.1

Estimated and projected global labour force participation rate, persons aged 15+ years, by sex, 1995 to 2015



Source: ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

Note: 2014 and 2015 figures are projections.

in China and India where, between 1995 and 2013, women's participation in the labour force declined from 72 to 64 per cent and from 35 to 27 per cent, respectively.⁴

The labour force participation rates of men revealed different trends than those for women. They increased slightly in the Caucasus and Central Asia and in Oceania, remained unchanged in Eastern Europe, and declined in the other regions. The sharpest decline was recorded in Eastern Asia, where the participation rate fell by more than 6 percentage points (figure 4.2).

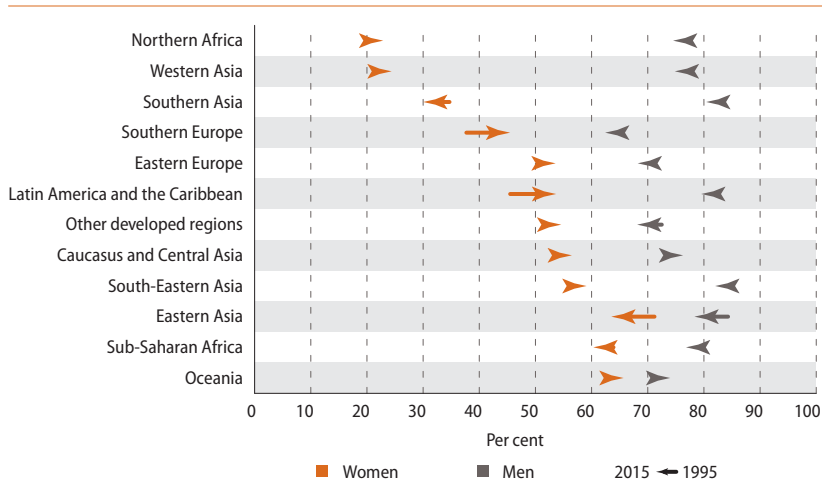
As a result, the difference between the labour force participation of women and men has narrowed in most regions. The largest decline was observed in Latin America and the Caribbean and Southern Europe. Yet, in no region was women's labour force participation rate equal to that of men. In Eastern Asia, Oceania, and sub-Saharan Africa women's participation in the labour force is the highest among all regions (around 65 per cent), but is still about 10 percentage points lower than men's (around 75 per cent). The regions with the largest gender gap, at over 50 percentage points in 2015, remained the same over the past two decades—Northern Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia.

Labour force participation across age groups

Age patterns of labour force participation are shaped differently across regions and countries. Labour force participation of young women and men (aged 15 to 24) is generally low (figure 4.3)

⁴ International Labour Office, 2014b, table 1a (accessed December 2014). The regional aggregates for labour force participation rates are averages weighted by the population in individual countries.

Figure 4.2
Labour force participation rate, persons aged 15+ years, by sex and region, 1995 and 2015



Source: ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States. 2015 figures are projections.

and reflects the availability and differential access to educational opportunities as well as the capacity of the labour market to integrate new cohorts of graduates. During prime working ages (25 to 54 years), labour force participation is typically the highest, indicating availability of opportunities for employment as well as differences in the roles and responsibilities of women and men in childbearing and caring. Finally, labour force participation among older workers (55 to 64 years and 65 years and over) is low and reflects existing retirement policies, access to social safety nets for older persons as well as attitudes towards retirement and staying actively engaged in later years.

The gender gap in labour force participation is considerable at all ages, except the young adult years

As shown in figure 4.3, women's labour force participation is lower than that of men at all stages of the life cycle. The narrowest gender gap is in the young adult years (ages 15 to 24), while the widest gap is generally during prime working ages (25 to 54 years). The gender gaps narrow slowly thereafter and tail off at the older ages without totally disappearing. Even after retirement age, men tend to stay more active than women. Northern Africa and Western and Southern Asia have the widest gender gap across all age groups. (figure 4.3).

Box 4.2

Definitions used in labour force, employment and unemployment statistics

The statistics presented in this chapter on the labour force, employment and unemployment are based on concepts and definitions laid out in the resolution adopted by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 1982.

Accordingly: "Labour force" comprises all persons above a specified minimum age of either sex who furnish, or are available to furnish, the supply of labour for the production of goods and services included in the System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary, during a specified time reference period, usually one week or one day. The SNA production boundary includes the production of goods and services for the market (for pay or profit); some types of non-market production (such as services provided by governments and nonprofit institutions); and own-account production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final use (production and processing of primary products for own consumption, such as subsistence agriculture, own-account construction and other production of fixed assets for own use). It excludes services produced by a household for its own use, such as cleaning, cooking, caring for household members and volunteer community services.

"Employed" comprises all persons above a specified age who, during the short reference period, either worked for pay or profit or contributed to a family business (farm and non-farm) without receiving any remuneration, or produced/processed products/goods for their own (or their family's) consumption.

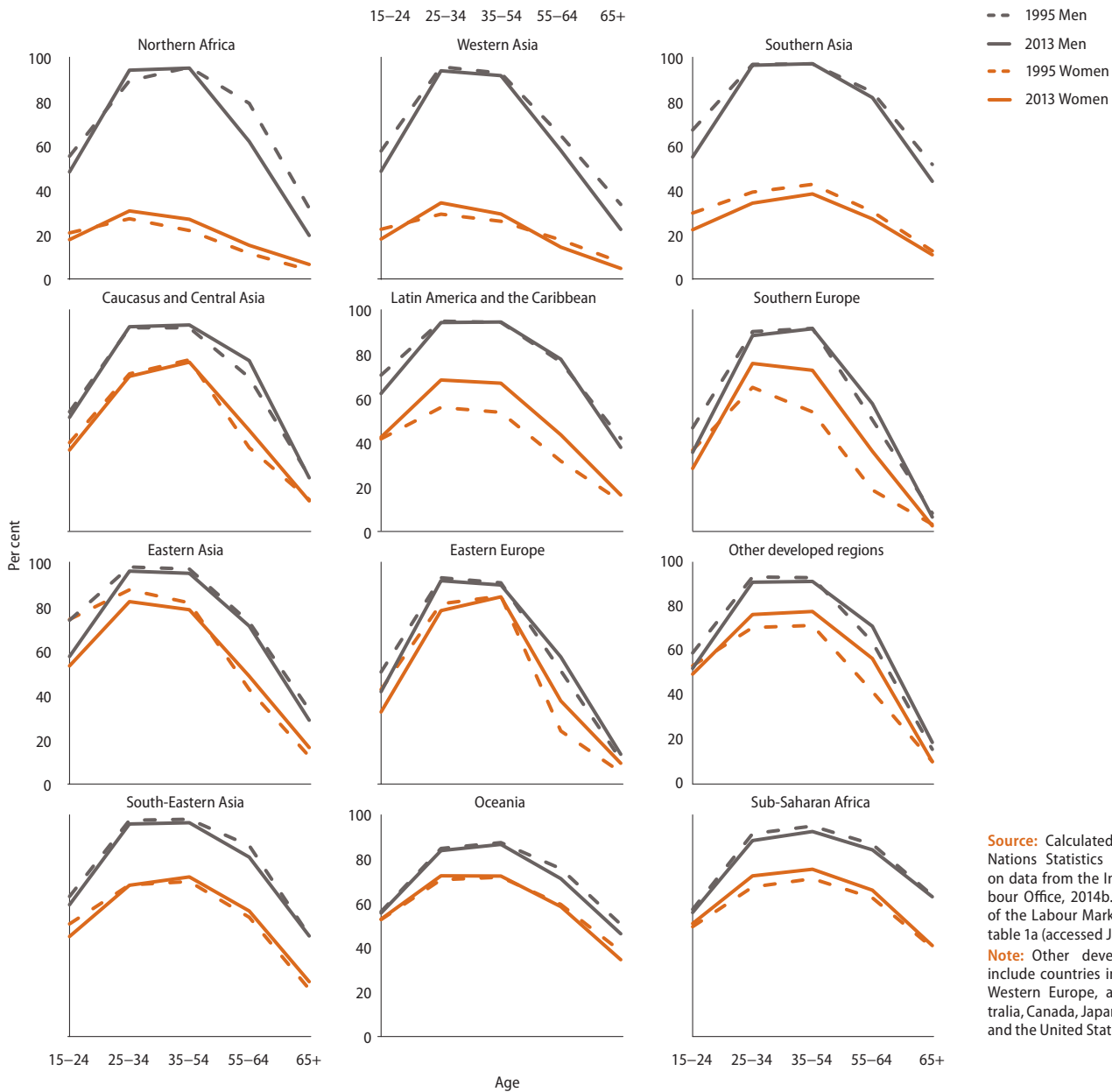
"Unemployed" comprises all persons above a specified age, who, during a specified reference period:

- Did not have any work/job—that is, were not employed.
- Were currently available for work—that is, were available for paid employment or self-employment.
- Were seeking work—that is, had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment (this condition is relaxed in situations where the conventional means of seeking employment are not relevant).

These international standards used by countries to produce their statistics on the labour force, employment and unemployment have been recently replaced. In October 2013, the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians adopted a resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization (see box 4.3 for more details). Activities to implement the new standards are currently under way in a number of countries, and updated data are expected in the coming years.

Source: Hussmanns, Mehran and Verma, 1990, chapters 2 and 3; ILO, 1982.

Figure 4.3
Labour force participation rates by age group and sex, 1995 and 2013



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 1a (accessed January 2015).

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States.

Young women and men (aged 15 to 24) are entering the labour market later

Labour force participation among young women and men (aged 15 to 24) is generally low, as many of them are still pursuing education at upper secondary or tertiary levels. Currently, Northern Africa and Western Asia remain the regions with the lowest labour force participation rate of young women, at around 18 per cent. Young women in Eastern Europe, Southern Asia, Southern Europe and the Caucasus and Central

Asia participate at a level of between 20 and 40 per cent. In the other regions, the participation of young women ranges from 40 to 53 per cent (figure 4.3). For young men, Southern Europe has the lowest labour force participation rate (36 per cent), followed by Eastern Europe, Northern Africa and Western Asia, where the rate is between 40 and 50 per cent. The rate among young men in other regions is above 50 per cent, with the highest rate recorded in Latin America and the Caribbean (62 per cent).

For most regions, labour force participation rates for women and men aged 15 to 24 have declined since 1995, contributing to the slight decline in the overall global rate. For young adults, the decline may be linked to either expanding educational opportunities for young women and men⁵ or a growing proportion of young people who are neither pursuing education nor engaged in employment and are not seeking and available for work. The largest decline for young women occurred in Eastern Asia, with a decline of 21 percentage points. Young women in Eastern and Southern Europe also registered a 10-percentage-point decline in labour force participation. For young men, the most notable decrease was recorded in Eastern Asia, with a 16 percentage points decrease, followed by Southern Asia and Southern Europe, where labour force participation of young men declined by at least 10 percentage points.

In most regions, a higher proportion of women aged 25 to 54 are participating in the labour force than in the past

Women and men reach their peak in labour force participation between the ages of 25 and 54. In most regions, the participation rate for women aged 25 to 54 ranged between 65 and 85 per cent in 2013. Women in Northern Africa, and Western and Southern Asia, however, participated at a much lower rate—around 30 per cent. For men of that age group, the rate is above 80 per cent in all regions (figure 4.3).

Between 1995 and 2013, labour force participation rates for women and men in their prime working ages showed different trends. For men, participation rates remained constant or declined slightly over the past two decades across most regions. By comparison, women experienced an increase in labour force participation in many regions except Eastern and Southern Asia and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia (showing a slight decrease) (figure 4.3). A large increase in women's participation was observed in Latin America and the Caribbean and Southern Europe (10 percentage points or more). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the increase seems to be associated with additional education and changes in family formation—that is, later marriage and lower fertility levels,⁶ while in Southern Europe, it may be related to changes in attitudes towards women's participation in the

labour market in countries with traditionally low women's participation, and to labour market reforms aimed at improving work flexibility and increasing fiscal/tax benefits for working women.⁷

In contrast, a notable decline in labour force participation was observed for women aged 25 to 54 in Southern and Eastern Asia from 1995 to 2013 (figure 4.3), dominated by declines in India and China. In India, where women lack job opportunities because of occupational segregation, job growth disproportionately benefited men. That, along with a change in the measurement methodology between survey rounds and, to a lesser extent, an increase in household incomes that reduced the need for women from wealthy families to work, have contributed to the decline.⁸

In the case of China, significantly fewer government-sponsored childcare facilities may have contributed to the decline in women's labour force participation rate. The proportion of more affordable state-owned and community-based childcare centres decreased from 86 per cent in 1997 to 34 per cent in 2009.⁹ Studies also showed that the restructuring of the state-owned sector of the economy in the late 1990s resulted in large layoffs and early retirement for urban workers, affecting women and older workers disproportionately.¹⁰

Older women workers currently remain longer in the labour market

Between the ages of 55 and 64, both women and men participate in the labour force at a much lower level compared to those aged 25 to 54. In 2013, the participation rate of women aged 55 to 64 was the lowest in Northern Africa and Western Asia (15 per cent), followed by Southern Asia at 27 per cent. The highest participation rate for women in this age group was in sub-Saharan Africa (66 per cent), followed by a slightly lower rate (57 to 59 per cent) in Oceania, South-Eastern Asia and the developed regions except Eastern and Southern Europe. In other regions, labour force participation for women aged 55 to 64 ranged from 36 to 50 per cent. The rates for men aged 55 to 64 ranged from 55 to 85 per cent, with the highest levels recorded in Southern Asia, South-Eastern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, at above 80 per cent.

⁷ Cipollone, Patacchini and Vallanti, 2013.

⁸ Kapsos, Silberman and Bourmpoula, 2014.

⁹ China Ministry of Education, 2014; Du and Dong, 2013.

¹⁰ Giles, Park and Cai, 2006.

⁵ International Labour Office, 2008a.

⁶ Chioda, Garcia-Verdú and Muñoz Boudet, 2011.

In all regions, except Oceania, Southern and Western Asia, labour force participation increased for older women during the period 1995–2013. The largest increase was recorded in Eastern Europe, Southern Europe and the other developed regions, as well as in Latin America and the Caribbean (figure 4.3). The prolonged time people remain in the labour market in more recent years can be attributed in part to changes in national policies on retirement and pension systems.¹¹

National policies encouraging longer working lives for both women and men at older ages, through higher statutory retirement ages and pension reforms, have been in place in many developed countries. This has been reflected in upward trends in the effective retirement age¹² since the mid-1990s among Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member States and non-OECD European Union (EU) countries.¹³ It is also noteworthy that the trend of raising the statutory retirement age, which affects women more than men, will eventually lead to a higher and equal retirement age for both sexes. Among the 25 European countries with plans for a statutory retirement age, 14 had unequal legal retirement ages in 2012 and this number is expected to be reduced to 8 by 2030.¹⁴

From 1995 to 2013, labour force participation for men aged 55 to 64 decreased in 7 out of 12 regions, with the largest decrease observed in Northern Africa, where the participation for male workers in that age group declined from 79 per cent to 62 per cent (figure 4.3). The decline was registered in a number of countries in the region, including Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia. Egypt, however, recorded the largest decline in older men's labour force participation (a drop of 23 percentage points, from 88 per cent in 1995 to 65 per cent in 2013).¹⁵ Such a drop in participation could be associated with the implementation of the Economic Reform and Structural Adjustment Programme in Egypt that aimed to downsize public sector employment by encouraging early retirement of public sector employees.¹⁶

¹¹ International Labour Office, 2001; Council of Europe, 2012; OECD, 2013a.

¹² The effective age of retirement is defined as the average age of exit from the labour force during a five-year period. A more in-depth explanation can be found in OECD, 2013a.

¹³ OECD, 2013a.

¹⁴ Council of Europe, 2012.

¹⁵ International Labour Office, 2014b, table 1a (accessed January 2015).

¹⁶ Selwaness, 2009. The programme became fully functional in 1996.

Women and men remain active after retirement age

The participation of women and men in the labour force further declines after they reach age 65, although a certain percentage of both sexes remain active. In 2013, women in sub-Saharan Africa were more likely to remain in the labour force after age 65 (41 per cent) compared to women in other regions, due to their heavy participation in subsistence agriculture. In South-Eastern Asia and Oceania, 25 per cent and 35 per cent of women aged 65 or over, respectively, participated in the labour force. In the other regions, the participation rate for women in that age group was below 20 per cent (figure 4.3). In most regions, the labour force participation for men aged 65 and older ranged from 20 to 50 per cent. The exceptions include Eastern Europe, Southern Europe, and other developed regions, where men at that age participated less (less than 20 per cent), and sub-Saharan Africa, where men participated at a much higher level (63 per cent).

For women aged 65 and over, changes in labour force participation between 1995 and 2013 were smaller in all regions. The participation of men in this age group has also been stable over time in most regions, except in Northern Africa and Western Asia, where it declined by more than 10 percentage points.

2. Unemployment

Total unemployment

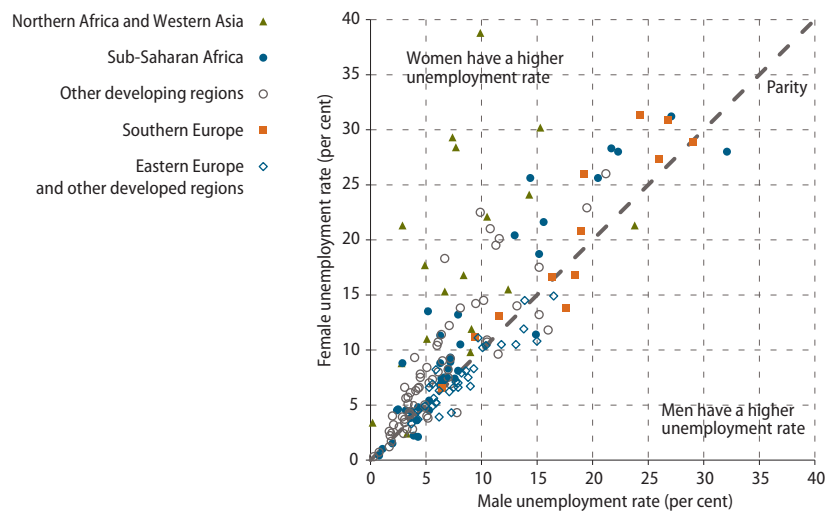
Women's unemployment rates remain higher than men's in most countries

Unemployment rates¹⁷ in many countries around the world clustered under 10 per cent for both women and men aged 15 and above in 2013 (figure 4.4). For most countries (121 out of 177 countries with data), the unemployment rate for women was higher than that for men. In particular, women in Northern Africa and Western Asia experienced much higher unemployment rates than men. Out of 11 countries where women's unemployment rates were at least 10 percentage points higher than men's, 7 were from Northern Africa and Western Asia. A number of countries (52) recorded lower unemployment rates for women than for men, but only by a small degree.

¹⁷ Percentage of people in the labour force who are unemployed.

The highest unemployment rates of women were found in many countries in Northern Africa and Western Asia and Western Asia, Southern Europe, and in sub-Saharan Africa; for men, unemployment was highest in many countries in Southern Europe and in selected countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 4.4
Unemployment rates of women and men, aged 15+ years, 2013



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 9a (accessed October 2014).

Note: Other developing regions include countries in Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania, South-Eastern Asia, Southern Asia and the Caucasus and Central Asia. Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States.

In terms of trends, since 1995, the gender gap in unemployment has remained relatively constant in all regions, with the exception of Southern Europe and Western Asia. The increase in Western Asia (from 4 to 9 percentage points) was due to a larger increase in the unemployment rate for women than for men, while Southern Europe experienced the opposite trend, a decreased gender gap (from 7 to 4 percentage points) due to a higher increase in unemployment among men.¹⁸

Youth unemployment

Unemployment is highest among young women and men

In all regions, unemployment is more prevalent among young persons aged 15 to 24 than among adults aged 25 and older. Higher unemployment among young people, especially women, can be attributed to several factors, including the lack

¹⁸ Analysis conducted by the United Nations Statistics Division based on the ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

of needed work skills due to limited job experience and a mismatch between young women and men's skill supply and labour market demand.¹⁹ In many countries, the gains in education have outpaced economic development and the demands of the labour market. Women are particularly susceptible to skills mismatch due to the fields of study they favour, such as education and humanities and arts (see Chapter 3 on Education). Finally, in countries where public sector jobs are associated with higher social status, stability and even better pay, young women and men may choose to be unemployed until a public sector job is available.²⁰

In 2015, unemployment rates for young women and young men were twice or even three times higher than for adults in the majority of the regions analysed (figure 4.5). The Caribbean, Northern Africa, Southern Europe, and Western Asia have the highest unemployment rates for young people and some of the largest disparities between them and other adult workers.

The difference between the youth and adult unemployment rate has been relatively stable over the past 20 years in most regions.²¹ A few exceptions, however, stand out. From 1995 to 2015, the unemployment rate among young women rose, for example, from 45 per cent to 54 per cent in Northern Africa, and from 22 per cent to 36 per cent in Western Asia. Changes in the past 20 years in adult women's unemployment rates in both regions, however, have been small. During the same period, in Southern Europe, young men experienced a 12-percentage-point increase in the unemployment rate (from 30 per cent to 42 per cent), compared to an increase of 7 percentage points among adult men. Such increase, for both youth and adult men in the region, occurred only after 2007 and may be linked to the recent economic and financial crisis.²²

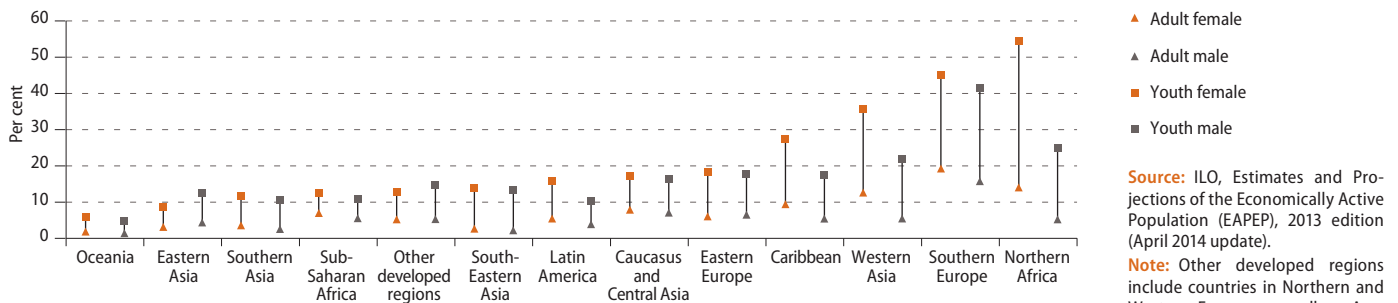
¹⁹ International Labour Office, 2008a; International Labour Office, 2013a.

²⁰ International Labour Office, 2008a.

²¹ Analysis conducted by the United Nations Statistics Division based on the ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

²² A recent study has shown that the unemployment of both adult and youth has been affected by the economic and financial crisis, and youth in many countries have been affected disproportionately (O'Higgins, 2010).

Figure 4.5
Unemployment rates of adults (aged 25+ years) and youth (aged 15 to 24 years), by region and sex, 2015



Source: ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States. 2015 figures are projections.

Unemployment rates are higher for young women than young men in most regions

In 2015, young women are more likely to be unemployed than young men in all regions except Eastern Asia and developed regions other than Eastern and Southern Europe, where youth unemployment among women is slightly lower than that for men. At the other end of the spectrum, high gender differentials are found in

Northern Africa (where 54 per cent of young women are unemployed compared to 25 per cent of young men), Western Asia (36 per cent of young women versus 22 per cent of young men), and the Caribbean (27 per cent of young women versus 17 per cent of young men). In contrast, the unemployment rates for young women and men in Southern Europe are roughly the same, though both are still high, at above 40 per cent (figure 4.5).

Box 4.3

New standards for measuring work, employment and labour underutilization

The resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, adopted by the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2013, provides new standards to be used by countries to produce statistics on the labour force, employment, unemployment and underemployment.

The new standards introduce a number of important revisions that redefine the way the work of women and men is to be captured and reflected in official statistics. These revisions aim to support the comprehensive but separate measurement of all forms of work—both paid and unpaid. Among the most important revisions are the introduction of:

- The first international statistical definition of **work**, aligned with the SNA general production boundary. The new definition recognizes all productive activities, including unpaid household services provided by household members or by volunteers, as work.
- A refined concept and measure of **employment** that refers to “work for pay or profit”. This will support more targeted monitoring of participation in remunerated work needed to inform labour market policies aimed at promoting job creation and reducing gender disparities in access to remunerated work opportunities.
- A new concept and measure of **own-use production work**, comprising production of goods and provision of services for final use by the household or family. This will support the valuation of their common contribution to household material welfare, household income and well-being. At the same time, it will enable an assessment of gender

and age differences in the allocation of labour within the household.

- A new concept and measure of **volunteer work** covering non-compulsory work performed without pay for others. This will support the measurement of organization-based volunteering and direct volunteering to households, resulting in more comprehensive assessments of their prevalence and contributions to social cohesion, well-being and national production.
- A set of measures of labour underutilization beyond the traditional measurement of unemployment. This will encourage wider monitoring of situations of unmet need for employment due to insufficient working time among the employed, and to the lack of access to remunerated work among those outside the labour force, including due to labour market conditions as well as to social and cultural barriers to employment.
- Finally, the terms “economically active population” and “economically inactive population” were replaced by more neutral terms—“labour force” and “persons outside the labour force”. This recognizes that persons outside the labour force may be engaged in other forms of work, particularly in own-use provision of services that also contribute to production and economic growth.

These new concepts are expected to be especially relevant in countries and areas where subsistence activities are widespread, where labour markets are of limited scope and where labour absorption is at times insufficient. They will also be relevant for groups predominantly engaged in forms of work that are unpaid, especially women, youth and workers in rural areas.

Source: International Labour Office, 2013b.

B. Employment conditions of women and men

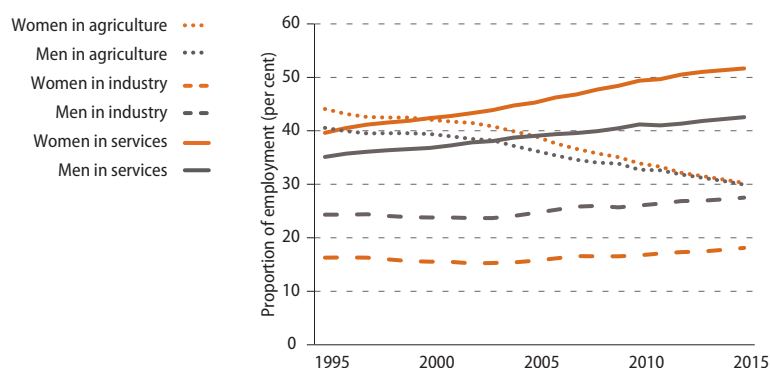
1. Economic sector of employment

For both women and men, employment in agriculture continues to decline while employment in the services sector keeps growing

Globally, the services sector is currently the largest source of employment for both women and men. In 2015, 52 per cent of employed women and 43 per cent of employed men were engaged in this sector. By comparison, in 1995, agriculture was the main source of employment for both sexes and in particular for women. Globally, the transition from agriculture to services occurred in 2000 for women and in 2004 for men (figure 4.6).

Over the past 20 years, agriculture has declined in importance as a source of employment, more so for women than for men. In fact, the difference between women's and men's share of employment in this sector has disappeared (from 44 per cent for women and 41 per cent for men in 1995 to 30 per cent for both in 2015). The sector of employment with the fewest women and men is industry. The proportion of employed persons working in this sector remained stable from 1995 to 2005, at around 16 per cent for women and 25 per cent for men. After 2005, both women and men experienced a slight increase in employment in the industry sector, reaching 18 per cent of employed women and 27 per cent of employed men in 2015 (figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6
Distribution of employed persons by economic sector of employment, by sex, 1995 to 2015



Source: ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

Note: 2014 and 2015 figures are projections.

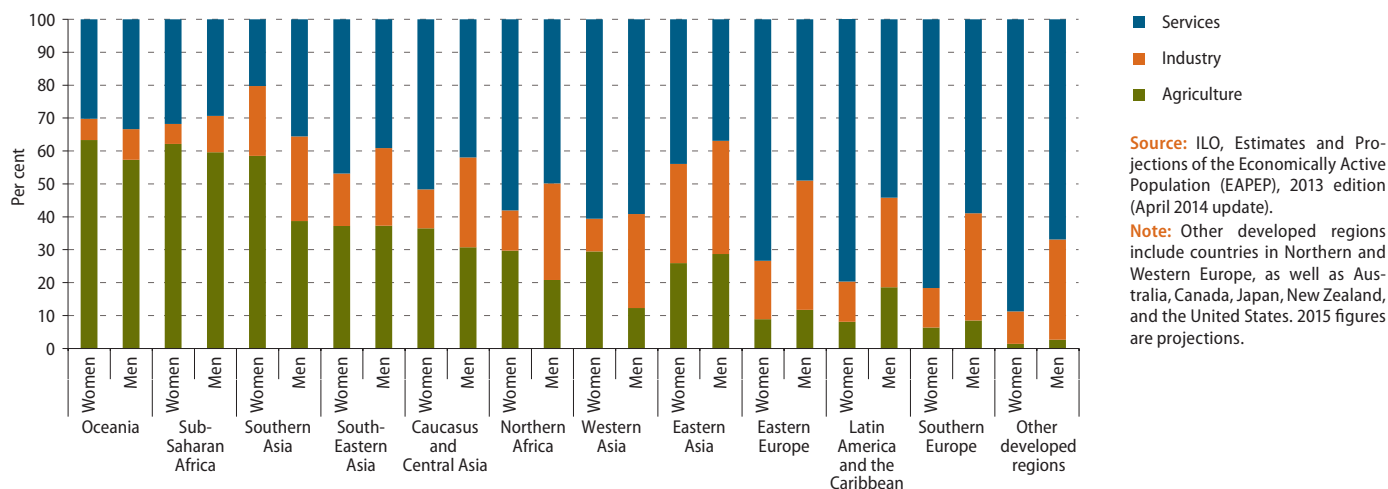
Women work predominantly in the services sector, while men tend to be more spread out across the three economic sectors

In four regions—Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Europe, Southern Europe and other developed regions—more than 70 per cent of employed women work in the services sector in 2015. In those regions, men's employment in the services sector, while relatively high compared to agriculture and industry, is at least 20 percentage points lower than that of women. Southern Asia and, to a lesser extent, Oceania, are the only regions where the services sector is a more important source of employment for men than for women (36 per cent versus 20 per cent for men and women, respectively, in Southern Asia, and 33 per cent and 30 per cent for men and women, respectively, in Oceania) (figure 4.7).

Agriculture remains the largest sector for women's employment in three regions—Oceania, Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa—with around 60 per cent of women employed in it. In Oceania and sub-Saharan Africa, agriculture is also the primary source of employment—for around 60 per cent of men (figure 4.7). The diminishing gender gap in agricultural employment at the global level masks differences across regions. In six out of 12 regions—Northern Africa, Oceania, Southern Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, the Caucasus and Central Asia and Western Asia—women are more likely than men to be working in the agriculture sector. One region—South-Eastern Asia—shows no gender difference in the percentage of women and men working in agriculture (37 per cent for both). In the other regions—Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Europe, Southern Europe and other developed regions—men are more likely to be working in agriculture than women.

In 2015, between 20 and 40 per cent of male employment was in the industrial sector in most regions, with the exception of sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania. Among women, the share engaged in industry is under 20 per cent in most regions except Eastern Asia (30 per cent) and Southern Asia (21 per cent). In all regions, men are more likely to work in the industrial sector than women, with a gender difference ranging from 3 percentage points in Oceania to 22 percentage points in Eastern Europe, which is also the region with the highest share of men working in this sector (around 40 per cent).

Figure 4.7
Distribution of employed persons by economic sector of employment, by sex and region, 2015



Share of women in sub-categories of the services sector

Women dominate in three services subsectors: education, health and social work, and private household as employers

As more jobs for women gradually move into services, the share of women in the services sector has surpassed their share in total employment. In 2015, women's share among people employed was 40 per cent globally, and 44 per cent among those employed in the services sector. The representation of women in the services sector increased slightly by 2 percentage points, from 42 per cent in 1995, but their share in total employment remained unchanged in the 20 years since. Meanwhile, the share of women in agriculture during those 20 years declined by 2 percentage points.²³

Within the services sector, women are the majority of workers in specific subcategories (figure 4.8). Among 24 developing countries²⁴ with recent data available, the average women's share is above 50 per cent (or women "dominate") in three services subsectors, in the order of importance: private households as employers, education, and health and social work. In the category "private households as employers", mainly consisting of paid domestic workers providing services to private households, women dominate in most of the countries in developing regions

for which data are available and on average they represent 73 per cent of workers in this subsector of employment.²⁵ The exceptions are Egypt and Yemen, where the female share in this category is around 20 per cent.²⁶ Yemen, among all 24 developing countries, also has the lowest female share of workers in education and health and social work, two subsectors that are usually dominated by women in other developing countries. In Yemen, more than 50 per cent of employed women are in services overall, although within each service subsector, women's share is much lower than that of men, due to the extremely low percentage of working women (only 15 per cent of women 15 and over were employed in 2012 compared to 65 per cent of men of the same age).

For 36 countries in developed regions with available data, private households as employers, health and social work, and education are also the top three subsectors, in the order of importance, dominated by women (figure 4.8). However, less variation is observed among countries in developed regions, especially with respect to the health and social work and education subsectors, where women outnumber men in all countries considered. In addition, on average the financial and insurance and hotels and restaurants subsectors are also the source of employment for a slightly higher number of women than men. With respect to the "private households as employers" sector, the average women's

²³ ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

²⁴ The 24 countries are in Eastern Asia (2), Latin America and the Caribbean (4), Northern Africa (2), Oceania (2), South-Eastern Asia (6), sub-Saharan Africa (2), the Caucasus and Central Asia (2) and Western Asia (4).

²⁵ Globally in 2010, 83 per cent of domestic workers were women. ILO, 2013c.

²⁶ Country level data obtained from the International Labour Office, 2014b, table 2a (accessed August 2015).

share among workers in this category in developed countries with data is 83 per cent and all countries except New Zealand (38 per cent) have a higher share of women than men.

Services that tend to have low pay, long hours and no social protection are more likely to be provided by women than men.²⁷ These unfavourable employment conditions are particularly prevalent for workers in the category “private households as employers”. Such workers include maids, cooks, waiters, valets, butlers, laundresses, gardeners, gatekeepers, stable hands, chauffeurs, caretakers, babysitters, tutors and secretaries, among others,²⁸ and are usually referred to as paid domestic workers. They tend to work long hours per week, with no entitlement to a weekly rest period or paid annual leave, receive very low wages and have less access than other workers to social security schemes and measures to ensure occupational safety and health.²⁹

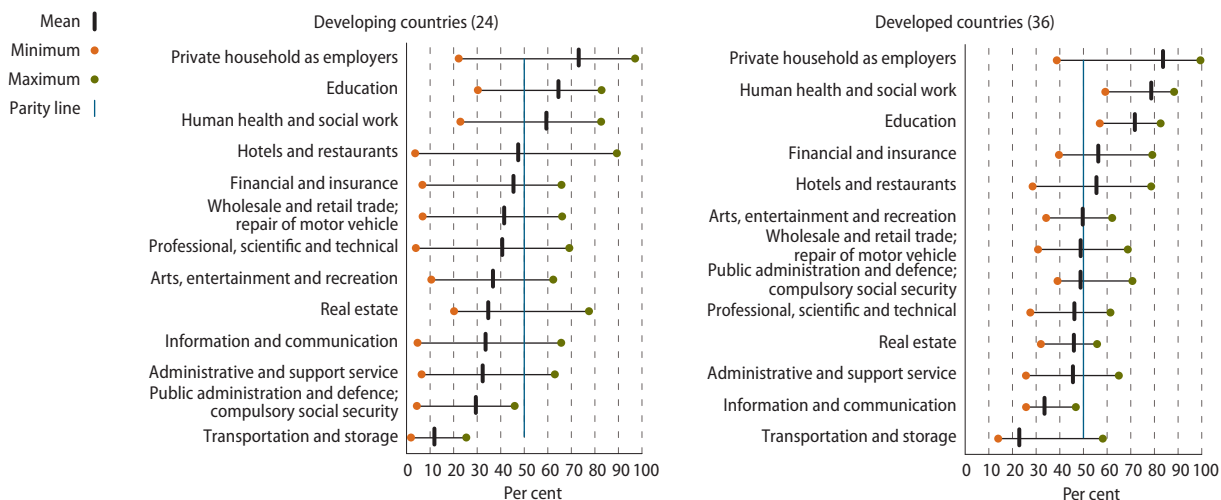
Men in both developing and developed countries tend to dominate in other subsectors within the services sector, such as transportation and storage, administrative and support services, information and communication, and real estate.

2. Occupational segregation

Women and men tend to work in different occupations (horizontal segregation) and in different positions within the same occupation or occupational group (vertical segregation). The segregation of women and men in different occupations is closely associated with gender roles or stereotypes about women (for example, that they are caring or home-based). Gender-based occupational segregation also reflects the difference between women and men in terms of their choice of education and vocational training (see Chapter 2 on Education). Occupational segregation can negatively affect the flexibility of the labour market³⁰ and the economy as a whole. It also has direct negative effects on women in particular, partly because women’s employment is concentrated in a more limited number of occupations than that of men.³¹ Such concentration imposes more restrictions on women than on men in terms of what types of jobs they can undertake. Occupational segregation, both horizontal and vertical, also contributes greatly to the pay differentials between women and men (see section in this chapter on the gender pay gap).

Figure 4.8

Share of women in subcategories of the services sector, 2008–2012 (latest available)



Source: International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 2a (accessed May 2014). Data limited to countries that have adopted the ISIC-4 classification.

Note: The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries with available data. The 24 developing countries are: in Caucasus and Central Asia (2), Eastern Asia (2), Latin America and the Caribbean (4), Northern Africa (2), Oceania (2), South-Eastern Asia (6), sub-Saharan Africa (2) and Western Asia (4).

²⁷ International Labour Office, 2010.

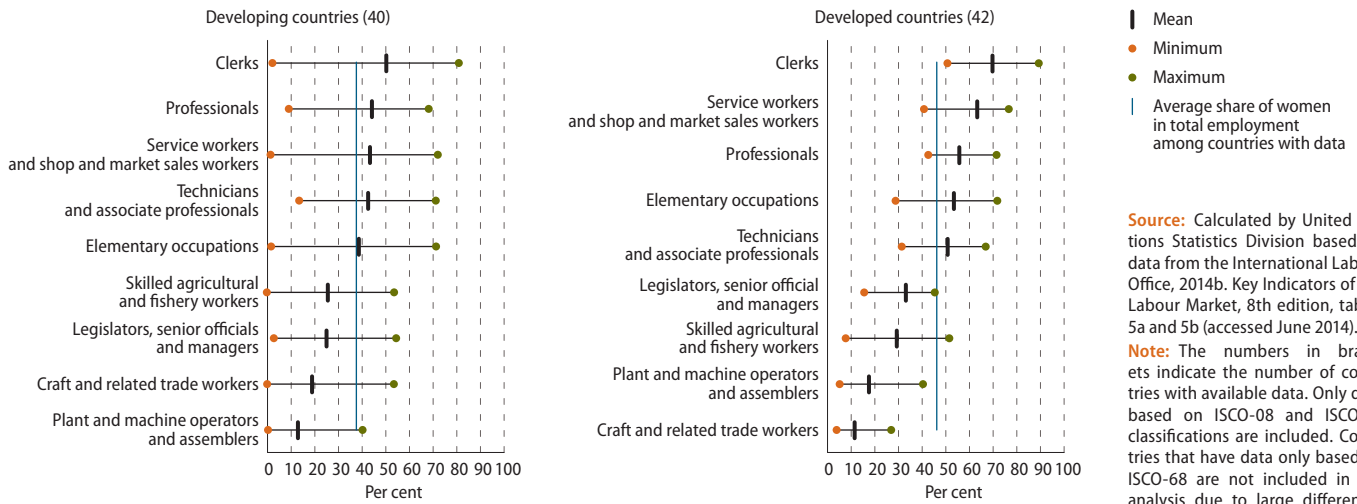
²⁸ United Nations, 2008.

²⁹ International Labour Office, 2013c.

³⁰ Segregation causes labour market inflexibility because it constrains mobility between male and female occupations. When a firm needs a large group of new workers for an industry that is clearly male- or female-dominated, it may not find a sufficient number of qualified candidates for the posts. Source: Melkas and Anker, 1997.

³¹ A study covering 41 countries showed that there are seven times more male-dominated occupations than female-dominated occupations—defined as an occupation in which either men or women, respectively, comprise at least 80 per cent of workers. United Nations, 2000.

Figure 4.9
Share of women in nine occupational groups, 2008–2012 (latest available)



Differences between women and men in terms of the distribution of their employment by occupation or type of job performed³² can be observed in some regions. In Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Southern Europe and other developed regions, women predominantly work as services and sales workers, while men tend to be craft and trade workers. For regions that are heavily agricultural such as Oceania, Southern Asia and South-Eastern Asia, both women and men tend to work as skilled agricultural and fishery workers. In sub-Saharan Africa, also dominated by a large agricultural sector, men are most likely to be employed as skilled agriculture and fishery workers, while women mostly work in “elementary” occupations, such as unskilled labourers in agriculture, fisheries or mining or in refuse collection, cleaning or food preparation industries. This pattern of women working in elementary occupations and men in skilled ones also applies to women and men in the Caucasus and Central Asia and Eastern Europe.³³

Gender segregation in various occupations persist in all regions

Women are highly represented and even outnumber men among certain occupational groups, based on available data. In 40 developing countries for which data were available for the period 2008–2012, the average share of women was the highest among clerks (50 per cent), followed closely by professionals (44 per cent), service workers and shop and market sales workers (43 per cent), and technicians and associated professionals (42 per cent). Although women did not outnumber men in the same occupation, their representation in all of the above occupational groups exceeded their share in total employment, which was, on average, 37 per cent among the 40 developing countries with data. However, large variations were found among those countries (figure 4.9). Countries in Northern Africa, Southern Asia and Western Asia tended to have lower shares of women in each occupational group compared to countries in other regions, due to the very low share of women in employment overall (see Statistical Annex for data by regions).³⁴

Over the period 2008–2012, relative to their overall share in total employment (46 per cent), women in 42 developed countries were also highly represented and outnumbered men among clerks (70 per cent), service workers and shop and market sales workers (63 per cent), professionals (56 per cent), elementary occupations

³² ISCO-08 (and ISCO-88) major groups, ILO, 2008b and 1988.

³³ Regional aggregates compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b, tables 5a and 5b (accessed June 2014). Unweighted averages are used; only data based on ISCO-08 and ISCO-88 classification are included. Countries that have data based only on ISCO-68 are not included in the analysis due to large differences between ISCO-68 and later classifications (ISCO-88 and ISCO-08). They include Bahrain, Chile, Colombia, Cuba and Japan.

³⁴ Available at <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/worlds-women.html>.

Source: Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, tables 5a and 5b (accessed June 2014).

Note: The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries with available data. Only data based on ISCO-08 and ISCO-88 classifications are included. Countries that have data only based on ISCO-68 are not included in the analysis due to large differences between ISCO-68 and later classifications (ISCO-88 and ISCO-08). These countries include Bahrain, Chile, Colombia, Cuba and Japan.

(53 per cent) and technicians and associated professionals (51 per cent) (figure 4.9).

In both developing and developed countries, women were significantly underrepresented among the following occupations: plant and machine operators and assemblers; craft and related trade workers; legislators, senior officials and managers; and skilled agricultural and fishery workers. Women's underrepresentation as legislators, senior officials and managers, demonstrates the inequality in participation of women and men in decision-making processes and access

to power. Studies based on detailed occupations within this group show that women are even less represented in occupations with the highest degree of power and influence (such as directors and chief executive officers), and that this phenomenon is true across all regions, all cultures and all levels of economic and social development.³⁵ In the United Kingdom, for example, 34 per cent of legislative or managerial positions were held by women in 2014, while only 17 per cent of chief executives and senior officials were women³⁶ (see also Chapter 5 on Power and decision-making).

Box 4.4

Occupational segregation: A more in-depth look

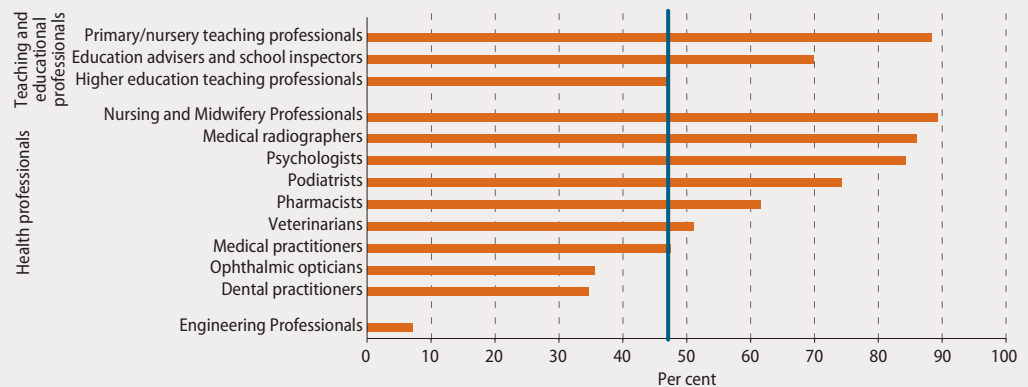
The following two country examples illustrate sharp differences in the representation of women in subcategories of various occupations.

In 2014, "professional jobs", as a group of occupations, were equally shared between women and men in the United Kingdom. However, an analysis of data at detailed levels of occupations in that country reveals that women are more concentrated in certain types of professional jobs than others. For example, 89 per cent of nurses and midwives were women compared to only 7 per cent of engineers. Among teaching professionals, women represented 88 per cent of primary and nursery school teachers but only 47 per cent of higher education teaching professionals (see also Chapter 3 on

Education). For health-care professionals, women tend to dominate occupations such as medical radiologists, psychologists, podiatrists, pharmacists and veterinarians, in contrast to occupations such as dentists.

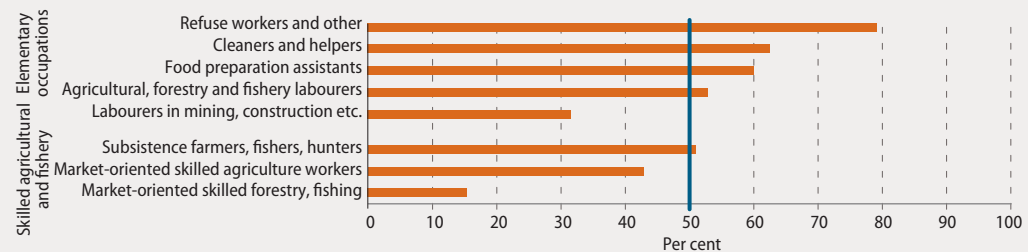
In Liberia, women's share among agricultural, forestry and fishery labourers (53 per cent) is much higher than their share among market-oriented skilled agricultural workers (43 per cent) and market-oriented skilled forestry and fisheries workers (15 per cent). Women outnumber men in unskilled elementary occupations (share of women is 58 per cent), and even more so as cleaners and helpers (63 per cent) and as refuse workers and other elementary occupations (79 per cent).

Women's share of employment in selected subcategories of professionals, United Kingdom, 2014



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the United Kingdom, Office for National Statistics, 2014, and the Liberia Institute of Statistics and Geo-Information Services, 2011, Report on the Liberia Labour Force Survey 2010. Women's share of total employment is 46 per cent in the United Kingdom and 50 per cent in Liberia, as highlighted by the blue line.

Women's share of employment in skilled agricultural/fishery and elementary occupations, Liberia, 2014



³⁵ Anker, 2005.

³⁶ United Kingdom, Office for National Statistics, 2014.

Major groups of occupations should be analysed in more detail to fully understand the depth of occupational segregation and better distinguish between male- and female-dominated occupations. The group “professionals”, for example, is dominated by women (more women than men work in this occupation) in both developing and developed countries. However, it includes sub-categories such as “health” and “teaching professionals”, which are more likely to be dominated by women, as well as “science and engineering professionals” and “information and communication technology professionals”, which are more likely to be dominated by men. Furthermore, based on data for EU member States, it appears that while teaching professionals, nursery care workers and pre-primary school teachers are almost all women, the share of women among college, university and higher education teaching professionals ranges between 20 and 50 per cent. In addition, among college and university teachers, women’s share in grade-A teaching positions (that is, the highest grade/post at which research is normally conducted within these institutions) is only between 0 and 20 per cent³⁷ (see also box 4.4 and Chapter 3 on Education, section on women in teaching).

3. Status in employment

To understand the employment conditions and position in the labour market of women and men, it is essential to identify their status in employment. This entails classifying jobs with respect to the type of employment contract a person has with her or his employer or other persons.³⁸ Such classification provides the statistical basis for analysing employment conditions in terms of a job’s level of security, protection and rights.

Globally, half of employed women and men are wage and salaried workers, but variations are found across regions

The extent to which women have access to wage and salaried employment can reflect their integration into the monetary economy and access to a regular income. This, in turn, could have a positive impact on their autonomy and financial independence within the household and enhance their personal development and decision-making power.³⁹

³⁷ European Commission, 2009.

³⁸ International Labour Office, 2003; see also International Labour Office, 1993.

³⁹ United Nations, 2012.

Globally, wage and salaried workers constituted half of all employed persons in 2015. This is true for both women and men (figure 4.10). Across regions, however, significant variations are found in terms of status in employment and gender. In Eastern Europe and other developed regions, the vast majority of employed women and men are wage and salaried employees (around 90 per cent with little gender difference). In Southern Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean, wage and salaried workers also represent a big portion of employed women and men (around 60 to 70 per cent), with women even more likely than men to be in these types of employment, particularly in Southern Europe.

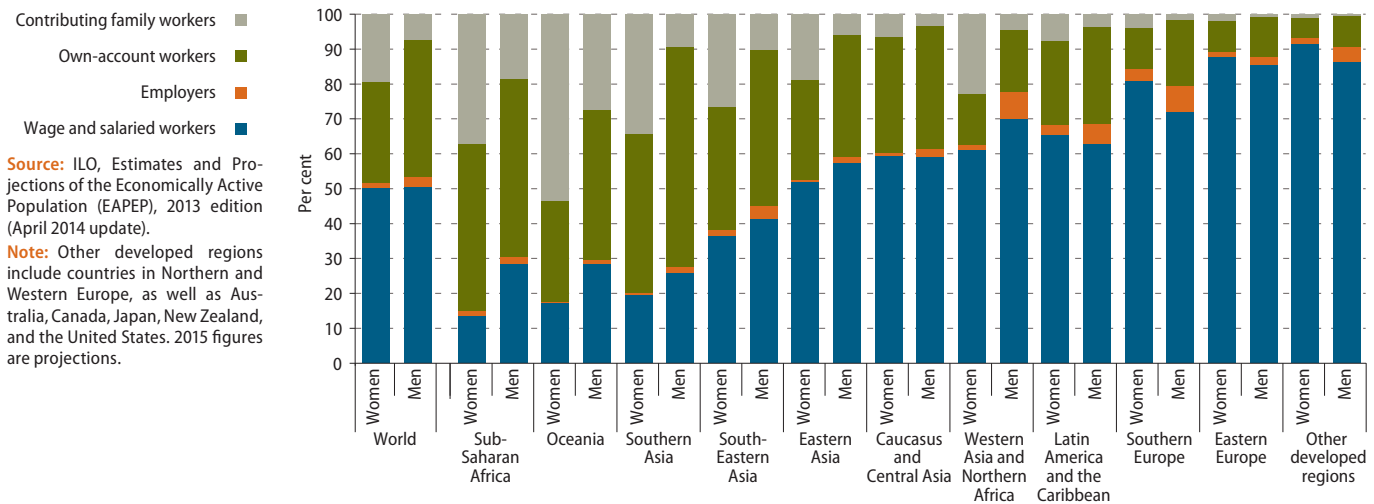
There is no gender difference in the share of wage and salaried employment in total employment in the Caucasus and Central Asia, with around 60 per cent of both women and men engaged in this type of employment. In the other developing regions, men are more likely than women to be engaged in wage and salaried employment, although some variations are found among regions. In Eastern Asia, Northern Africa and Western Asia, more than half of employed women are in wage and salaried employment, while for men the percentage is higher (57 per cent in Eastern Asia and 70 per cent in Western Asia and Northern Africa). In South-Eastern Asia, the share of wage and salaried employment for women is 37 per cent; for men it is 41 per cent.

In Oceania, Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, the share of wage and salaried employment is low for both women and men (below 20 per cent for women and slightly below 30 per cent for men) and the majority of women and men are either own-account or contributing family workers (figure 4.10).

Women are more likely than men to be contributing family workers

People working as own-account workers and contributing family workers tend to lack basic social protection and are subject to low income and difficult working conditions. Because of their precarious employment conditions, they are considered to be in “vulnerable” types of employment. Globally in 2015, the share of vulnerable employment was 49 per cent for women and 47 per cent for men, hence a very small gender difference. However, among all forms of vulner-

Figure 4.10
Distribution of employment by status in employment, by sex and region, 2015



able employment, women were more likely than men to work as contributing family workers. The proportion of employed men working as contributing family workers was 7 per cent, compared to 19 per cent among employed women. On the other hand, own-account workers made up 39 per cent of male employment compared to 29 per cent of female employment. Similar patterns were observed in all regions with larger gender differences in developing regions than in the more developed ones (figure 4.10).

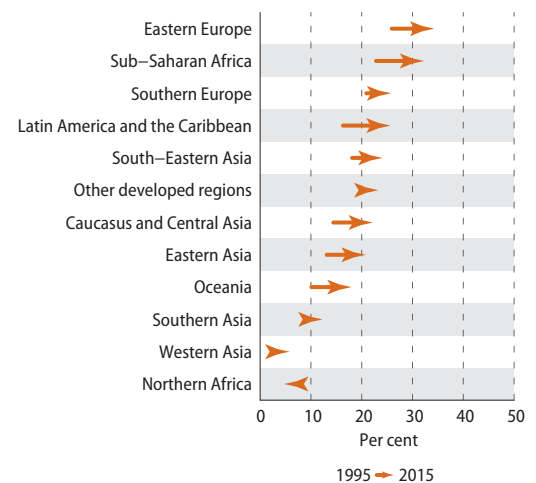
The share of women among employers remains small, but has increased steadily

Only a small proportion of women and men are employers—that is, having one or more persons working for them in their businesses as employees. Globally in 2015, 3 per cent of employed men and 1 per cent of employed women were employers. Among all regions, men are more likely than women to be included in this category (figure 4.10). The share of women among employers has shown a slow but steady rise since 1995 globally (16 per cent in 1995 and 21 per cent in 2015⁴⁰) and across most regions. However, women's representation among employers remains far from parity. In 2015, the share of women among all employers was the smallest in Northern Africa and Western Asia (around 5 per cent), followed

⁴⁰ ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

by Oceania and Southern Asia at between 10 and 20 per cent. A number of regions have 20 to 25 per cent of women among employers, including: Eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, South-Eastern Asia, Southern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia and other developed regions. Eastern Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa had the largest share of women among employers in 2015, approaching 35 per cent (figure 4.11).

Figure 4.11
Share of women among all employers, by region, 1995 and 2015



Source: ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States. 2015 figures are projections.

Employers and own-account workers are closely associated with the concept of entrepreneurs who create employment for themselves and employment opportunities for others. The promotion of micro and small-scale enterprises has also been identified as a strategy for advancing the economic empowerment of women, while reducing poverty and gender inequality. Measuring entrepreneurship from a gender perspective has remained a challenge and the methodology for collecting data on this topic is currently being developed by the Evidence and Data for Gender Equality Project (box 4.5).

4. Informal employment⁴¹

Contrary to predictions in the 1950s and 1960s that informal employment, including petty traders, small producers and a range of casual jobs, would be absorbed into the more formal “modern” economy, informal employment has not only persisted since the 1970s but has also emerged in unexpected places, such as in formal sector enterprises.⁴² Informal employment offers a survival strategy in countries that do not provide sufficient formal employment opportunities. It is also associated with the lack of social protection, labour legislation and protective measures in the workplace.⁴³

Informal employment is an important source of employment for both women and men in developing countries

Informal employment is an important source of employment and livelihoods in many countries. Among 43 countries with available data, it accounted for more than 70 per cent of total non-agricultural employment for women in 15 countries—6 in sub-Saharan Africa and in Latin America and the Caribbean, respectively, and 3 in Southern and South-Eastern Asia. In 7 of the 15 countries (Bolivia, Guatemala, India, Mali, Nicaragua, Pakistan and the United Republic of Tanzania), a majority of men (more than 70 per cent) working in the non-agriculture sector were also employed informally (figure 4.12).

⁴¹ Informal employment comprises the total number of informal jobs whether carried out in formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises or households. Categories of informal employment are defined jointly by the type of production unit, status in employment, and access to social protection (Husmanns, 2004).

⁴² Chant and Pedwell, 2008; Vanek and others, 2014.

⁴³ International Labour Office, 2014b, Manuscript for Table 8; International Labour Office, 2013d.

Box 4.5

Measuring entrepreneurship from a gender perspective: The Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) project

Measuring entrepreneurship from a gender perspective can provide a better understanding of how women and men differ in their entrepreneurial activities. Research has found that gender is a factor in entrepreneurial participation and in the characteristics and performance of enterprises. In both developing and developed countries, women are less likely than men to become entrepreneurs and more likely to be motivated by “push” factors, such as poverty or divorce, to start an enterprise.^a Women’s enterprises also tend to be smaller, to operate with lower capital, to be more embedded in family structures and to be less sustainable than men’s enterprises.^b

Evidence on gaps in sales and profits between female- and male-owned enterprises suggests that many women might face more challenges than men to fulfil their productive and innovative potential. In France, for example, start-up enterprises founded by women tend to have turnovers that are 25 per cent lower than that of men.^c However, traditional performance measures, such as growth and profits, are not always the top priority for women entrepreneurs.^d Women are often motivated by objectives other than profit maximization when starting a business, such as greater flexibility to set their own schedules and balance work and family life.^e

Despite the clear policy relevance of measuring entrepreneurship from a gender perspective, official statistics on female and male entrepreneurs and their enterprises are lacking in most countries. Furthermore, the data that are collected are not comparable across countries because different methodologies are used in different contexts to measure entrepreneurship.

To address these data and methodological gaps, the Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) project, a joint initiative of the United Nations Statistics Division and UN-Women, is developing methodological guidance on measuring entrepreneurship from a gender perspective in collaboration with OECD.

^a Brush, 1990; Ducheneaut, 1997.

^b Robb and Watson, 2010.

^c OECD, 2012. Turnovers of an enterprise refer to total sales.

^d Carter and others, 2003; Kepler and Shane, 2007.

^e Walker and Webster, 2004; Walker, Wang and Redmond, 2008.

The proportion of informal non-agricultural employment is higher for women than for men in many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa. For some countries (Poland, Serbia, Sri Lanka, the Republic of Moldova, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and the State of Palestine), however, the proportion of men engaged in informal employment is higher than that of women (figure 4.12).

Although women and men are both in informal employment, women are often concentrated in the more disadvantaged categories of employment, such as domestic workers, piece-rate home-based workers and assistants in small family enterprises, all of which are among the most vulnerable and lowest paid types of informal

work. A large share of domestic workers, who are frequently excluded from the scope of labour laws or are only covered by less favourable legislation, are women. Globally in 2010, 83 per cent of domestic workers were women, slightly lower than the 86 per cent in 1995.⁴⁴

For international comparability,⁴⁵ statistics presented so far on informal employment have been restricted to non-agricultural employment. However, much of the employment in agriculture lacks

social protection and job security, both characteristics of informal employment.⁴⁶

Informal employment in the agricultural sector is also important

For countries with a large agricultural sector, total informal employment increases substantially when agricultural employment is included in the calculation.

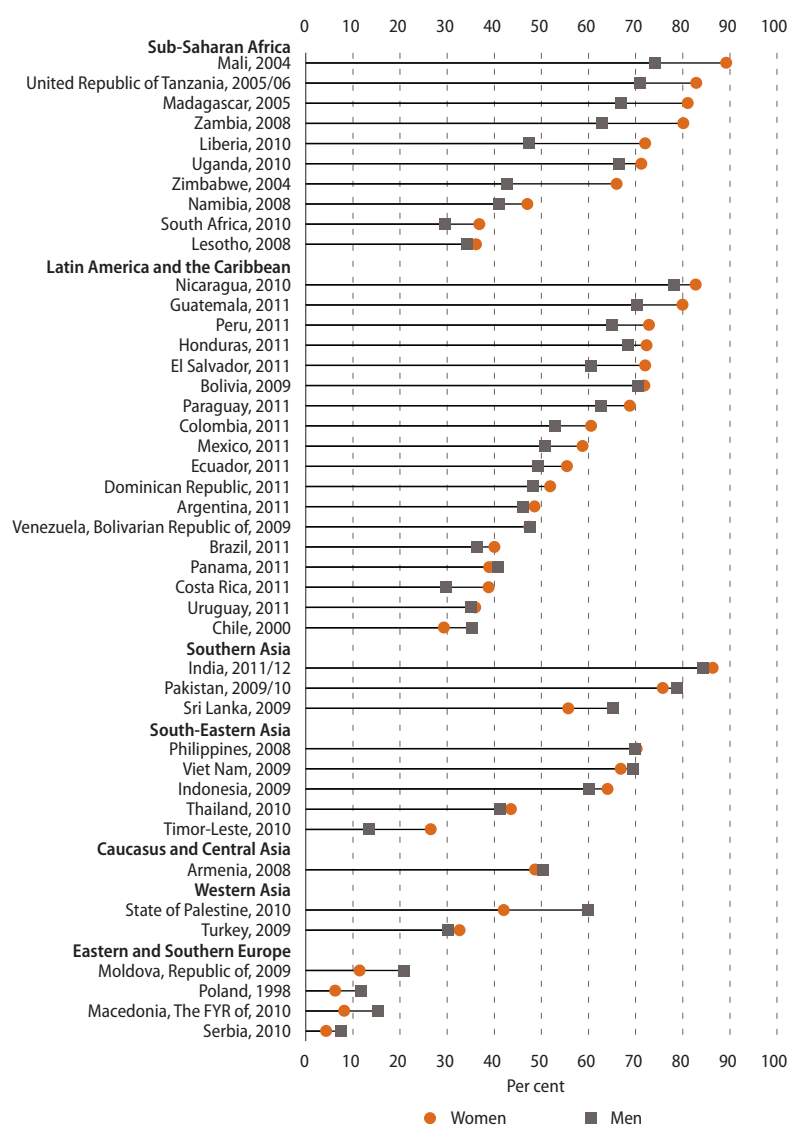
For example, in the Republic of Moldova in 2009, the proportion of informal employment among all non-agriculture employment was 11 per cent for women and 21 per cent for men (figure 4.12). However, when the agriculture sector is taken into account, the proportion of informal employment among all employed—in agricultural and non-agricultural activities—is much higher, reaching 27 per cent for women and 33 per cent for men.⁴⁷ Similarly, in India in 2011–2012, the proportion of informal employment among all non-agricultural employment was 86 per cent for women and 84 per cent for men. However, when the agriculture sector is included, the proportion of informal employment rises to 95 per cent for women and 91 per cent for men.⁴⁸

5. Part-time employment⁴⁹

Part-time work may offer an effective way to balance time spent on paid work, household responsibilities and childrearing. The possibility of being able to work for fewer hours is also seen as a means to increase employment levels, particularly among women.⁵⁰ In addition, part-time work facilitates the gradual entry into, participation in and exit from the labour market.⁵¹

However, part-time work also comes at a cost. Part-time workers face difficult working conditions, including lower hourly wages and lesser job security, and receive less training and promotion opportunities than their full-time counterparts. They are also at a higher risk of falling

Figure 4.12
Proportion of informal employment among all non-agricultural employment, by sex, 1998–2012 (latest available)



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 8 (accessed May 2014). Data for India (2011/2012) was obtained from Raveendran (2015); data for Pakistan (2009/2010), the Philippines (2008) and the United Republic of Tanzania (2005/2006) were extracted from the International Labour Office and Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing, 2013.

⁴⁴ International Labour Office, 2013c.

⁴⁵ Hussmanns, 2004.

⁴⁶ Vanek and others, 2014.

⁴⁷ Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from the Republic of Moldova, National Bureau of Statistics, 2009 (accessed May 2014).

⁴⁸ Raveendran, 2015.

⁴⁹ There is no official ILO definition of full-time work in terms of the demarcation point between full-time and part-time. Data from OECD are harmonised based on common definition of part time employment, which is based on a common 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job.

⁵⁰ Hakim, 2004, chapter 3; Thévenon, O., 2013.

⁵¹ International Labour Office, 2014b. Manuscript for Table 6.

into poverty and are less likely to have access to social protection such as unemployment benefits.⁵² Some forms of part-time work in developed countries are non-standard types of work with employment conditions similar to those described for informal employment.⁵³

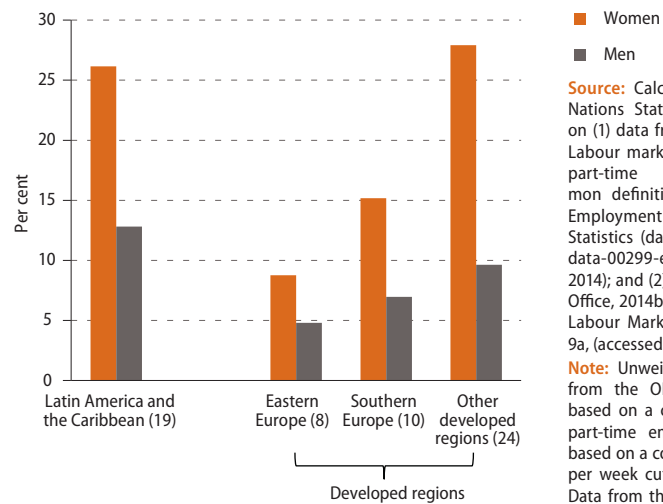
Women are more likely than men to be engaged in part-time employment

In 2012, developed regions (except Eastern and Southern Europe) recorded the highest proportion of women working part time (28 per cent) (figure 4.13). Part-time employment was particularly prevalent among women in Northern and Western European countries. Sixty per cent of employed women in the Netherlands worked part time, the highest percentage by far in the world, and over 35 per cent in Germany, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Switzerland. Outside of Northern and Western Europe, employed women in Australia recorded a 38 per cent part-time rate (see Statistical Annex for country-level data).⁵⁴

Latin America and the Caribbean also recorded high proportions of employed women in part-time work (26 per cent in 2012). Among countries within the region, Argentina and Nicaragua registered the highest proportion of women working part-time, at 35 per cent or more (see Statistical Annex for country-level data).⁵⁵ Women's part-time employment was not as prevalent in Eastern and Southern Europe, where, in 2012, the average proportion of employed women working part time was 9 and 15 per cent, respectively (figure 4.13).

In all four regions with data, part-time employment was more common among women than men, with prevalence rates for women almost twice or higher than those of men. In 2012, employed men in Latin America and the Caribbean constituted the highest proportion of part-time workers (13 per cent), followed by developed regions (except Eastern and Southern Europe, 10 per cent). As was the case for women in Eastern and Southern Europe, men's part-time employment was also low in those two regions (figure 4.13).

Figure 4.13
Proportion of employed people working part-time by region and sex, 2012



Part-time employment is increasing for men but shows a mixed picture for women

Part-time employment continues to increase for men in most countries, but the trend with regard to women is mixed. Between 1995 and 2012, out of 31 countries with available data, part-time employment increased for men in 30 countries. For women, 17 countries showed an increase of part-time employment while 14 countries showed a decrease (figure 4.14).⁵⁶

Particularly high increases were observed for women in Austria, Chile, Ireland, Italy and Turkey.⁵⁷ A large decrease (14 percentage points) in part-time employment during the period was observed for women in Iceland, while a decrease of 8 and 5 percentage points, respectively, was observed for women in Norway and Sweden (figure 4.14).

Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on (1) data from the OECD, 2014a, Labour market statistics: full-time part-time employment—common definition: incidence. OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database). Doi: 10.1787/data-00299-en (accessed May 2014); and (2) International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 9a, (accessed November 2014).

Note: Unweighted averages. Data from the OECD are harmonized based on a common definition of part-time employment, which is based on a common 30-usual-hour per week cut-off in the main job. Data from the ILO uses a country-specific approach and the definition of part-time employment may vary from country to country. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries with available data. Data for countries in other regions are not shown due to limited data availability. Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States.

⁵² OECD, 2010.

⁵³ Vanek and others, 2014. The other main categories of non-standard work include (a) own account self-employment, and (b) temporary or fixed-term work.

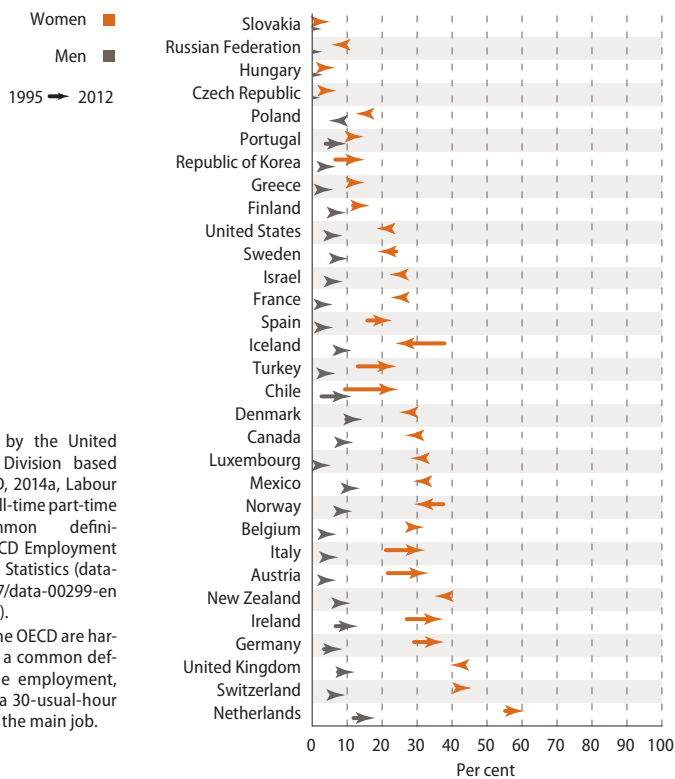
⁵⁴ Available at <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/worlds-women.html>.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

⁵⁶ Trends in part-time employment are compiled based from data from the OECD, 2014a, Labour market statistics: full-time part-time employment - common definition: incidence. OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database). Data are harmonized based on a common definition of part-time employment, which is based on a common 30-usual-hour per week cut-off in the main job.

⁵⁷ These are cases where the proportions employed and working part-time increased by more than 10 percentage points between 1995 and 2012 (between 1996 and 2012 in the case of Chile).

Figure 4.14
Proportion of part-time workers among all employed (age 15 years and over), 1995 and 2012, by sex



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from OECD, 2014a, Labour market statistics: full-time part-time employment—common definition: incidence. OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database). Doi: 10.1787/data-00299-en (accessed May 2014).

Note: Data from the OECD are harmonized based on a common definition of part-time employment, which is based on a 30-usual-hour per week cut-off in the main job.

Time-related underemployment is higher among women than men

Part-time employment is not always a choice. A substantial number of part-time workers would prefer to be working full-time. This phenomenon is measured by the time-related underemployment rate.⁵⁸ In four regions with data, more than 10 per cent of employed women working part-time indicated that they would like to work additional hours. Women in Southern Asia recorded the highest rate of time-related underemployment (21 per cent), followed by women in Northern Africa (17 per cent), sub-Saharan Africa (16 per cent), and Latin America and the Caribbean (10 per cent). Among employed men working part-time, more than 10 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia indicated that they would like to work more hours (figure 4.15).

⁵⁸ Three criteria are used to define time-related underemployment. The term refers to employed individuals who, in a short reference period, wanted to work additional hours, worked less than a certain hourly threshold set at the national level, and who were available to work additional hours in a subsequent reference period. International Labour Office, 1998; International Labour Office, 2013b.

Women are more likely than men to be in time-related underemployment in most regions. The largest gender difference is observed in Northern Africa and Southern Asia. In Northern Africa, women's time-related underemployment rate is 17 per cent, compared to 4 per cent for men. Women in Southern Asia recorded a 21 per cent underemployment rate, compared to 12 per cent for men (figure 4.15).

6. Gender pay gap

Differences in pay for men and women may result from a multitude of factors. They include individual characteristics of workers, such as their level and field of education and work experience, as well as factors connected to the job they perform, such as occupation, type of contract, economic sector and size of the establishment in which they work. Gender inequalities in all these areas are associated with traditions and stereotypes (influencing the choice of education, professions and career paths of women and men) and the difficulties in balancing work and family life that often lead to part-time work and career breaks, mainly for women.⁵⁹

Gender pay gap—levels and trends

A gender pay gap is found in all countries with available data

In all countries with data, women earn less than men. Among 28 European countries that have comparable data on the gender pay gap during the latest period (2008–2012), women working full-time earned between 80 to 90 per cent of what men earned in 19 countries. In four countries (Austria, Germany, Hungary and Slovakia), women's earnings were slightly less than 80 per cent of men's (figure 4.16).⁶⁰

Women also earned less than men in 15 non-European countries with available data. Women working full-time earned between 94 and 98 per

⁵⁹ Blau and Kahn, 2007; European Commission, 2014; Goldin, 2014.

⁶⁰ These figures do not cover women and men working in the public sector—that is, national and local government agencies. Including workers in the public sector will change the magnitude of the gender pay gap for some countries. An earlier study based on the 2006 Structure of Earning Survey data showed that pay gaps are smaller among all countries for people working in the public sector than those working in the private sector. The only exception is Bulgaria, where the gender pay gap is slightly smaller for those in the private sector. Source: European Union, 2010.

Figure 4.15
Time-related underemployment rate by sex, 2010–2012 (latest available)

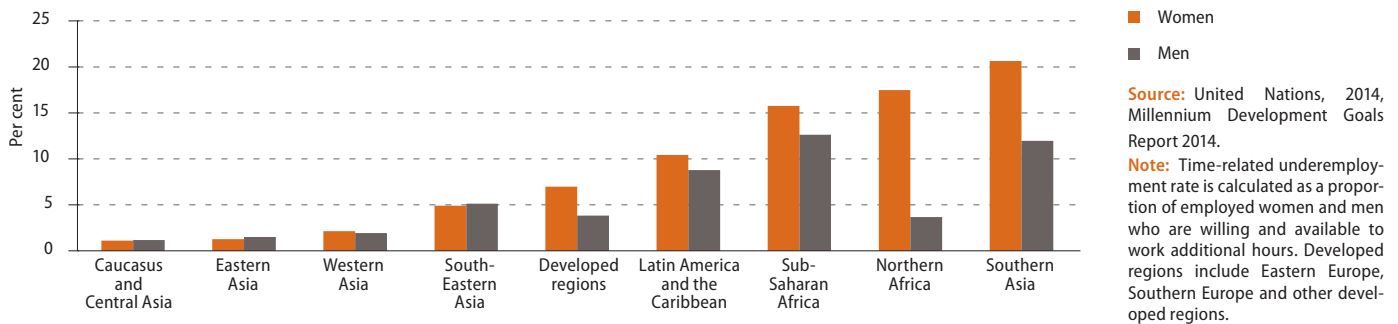
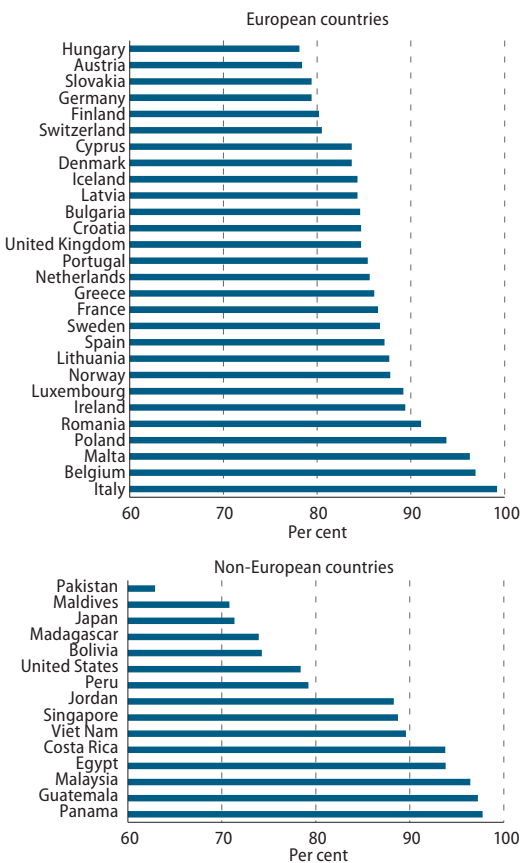


Figure 4.16
Ratio of female-to-male earnings, 2008–2012 (latest available)



Source: Compiled by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey 2010; International Labour Office, 2014a, ILOStat database (accessed August 2014).

Note: Data on European countries were calculated based on hourly earnings for full-time workers, for those working in industry, construction and services but excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security (based on NACE rev. 2, industry sector classifications); for non-European countries, only data for full-time workers were included.

cent of what men earned in five countries. In nine countries, women's earnings were between 70 per cent and 90 per cent of men's earnings. Finally, the difference in earnings between women and men was largest in Pakistan, where women earned only 63 per cent of what men earned in recent years.

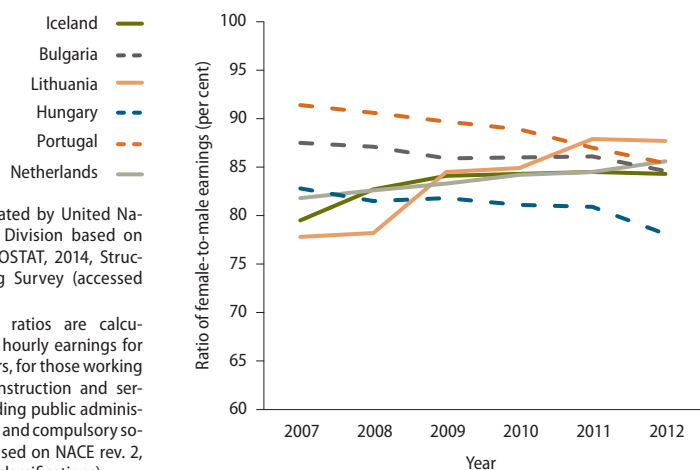
Most developed countries show a long-term decline in the gender pay gap, but the trend has been mixed in recent years

Among the 12 European countries that have comparable trend data on the gender pay gap, no consistent trend from 2007 to 2012 was observed. Some countries showed a slightly decreased gender difference in earnings (for example, Iceland, Lithuania and the Netherlands), while others showed an increased difference (such as Bulgaria, Hungary and Portugal). The largest decline in pay differences between women and men was observed in Lithuania, where women's earnings were 78 per cent those of men's in 2007, and 88 per cent in 2012. The largest increase in gender differences in earnings was recorded in Portugal, where women's earnings were 91 per cent of men's in 2007, dropping to 86 per cent in 2012 (figure 4.17). The other countries with available data, however, did not show a clear trend over the period considered.

Analysis based on a longer time series of data, however, showed an overall downward trend in the gender pay gap for many of the developed countries. Out of 19 countries with data for the periods 1995–1999 and 2009–2013, 17 showed an increase in the ratio of women's earnings relative to men's. The largest increase occurred in Ireland, Japan and the United Kingdom, where the ratio of women's to men's earnings increased by more than 10 percentage points.⁶¹

⁶¹ Compiled by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from OECD, 2014b, Median income of women and men, full-time workers only. www.oecd.org/els/emp/onlineoecdemploymentdatabase.htm#earndisp (accessed December 2014).

Figure 4.17
Trends in female-to-male earnings, selected European countries, 2007 to 2012



Source: Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey (accessed August 2014).

Note: Earnings ratios are calculated based on hourly earnings for full-time workers, for those working in industry, construction and services but excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security (based on NACE rev. 2, industry sector classifications).

Box 4.6

Measuring the gender pay gap

A simple indicator—the ratio of women’s to men’s earnings—is used in this section to examine the gender pay gap.

Earnings is defined as “remuneration in cash and in kind payable to employees, as a rule at regular intervals, for time worked or work done, as well as for time not worked, such as annual vacation and other paid leave or holidays”. Earnings exclude employer contributions to their employees’ social security and pension schemes and also the benefits received by employees under those schemes.^a

Statistics on earnings are obtained from different sources.^b Most developing countries (37 out of 51 countries where data were available) rely on labour force or household income and expenditure surveys, while developed countries seem to rely mainly on establishment surveys (20 out of 38 countries where data were available). Comparability of earnings data from different sources is affected by the type of workers covered, the inclusion and exclusion of overtime pay, incentive pay, bonuses, payment in kind and other allowances, as well as the unit of time used (per hour, per day, per week or per month). Furthermore, some sources use average earnings while others use wage rates. International comparability is also hampered by differences across countries in the size criterion adopted in their surveys or censuses of establishments. In addition, the average earnings of any particular group such as women are affected by the different elements that make up the group, including women with different educational qualifications and different occupations, and the number of full-time and part-time workers in each group.

Income generated from self-employment, due to scarcity of data, is not included in the analysis.^c In addition, earnings referred to in this section reflect earnings for full-time employment only, to account for the impact of the difference in the number of hours worked by women and men and the difference in average hourly earnings between part-time and full-time workers. This is particularly relevant given that women are more likely to hold part-time jobs than men (see section in this chapter on part-time employment) and that part-time workers tend to have lower hourly earnings than full-time workers.

^a International Labour Office, 1973.

^b Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division, based on the International Labour Office, 2014a. ILOStat database (accessed January 2015).

^c Only data from 21 countries and areas were available at International Labour Office, 2014a, ILOStat database.

Education and seniority and the gender pay gap

Education increases earnings for both women and men, but the level of benefits varies

Increasing levels of education benefit both women and men in terms of higher earnings, particularly when people move from secondary to tertiary education. The level of benefits in earnings, however, is different for women and men. This has been illustrated by data from European countries. While both women and men make higher earnings when they move from secondary to tertiary levels of education, the improvement in earnings for men is higher than that for women in many European countries. Women seem to benefit more in terms of earnings than men do when they move from primary to secondary levels of education (figure 4.18).⁶² The difference in earnings by field of study might be one contributing factor to the lower returns for women than for men when they both move from secondary to tertiary education.⁶³

Seniority benefits men’s earnings more than women’s

In addition to education, work experience is another important factor in explaining pay gaps between women and men.⁶⁴ Using seniority as a proxy for work experience shows that work experience benefits men more than women in terms of earnings. The difference in earnings between women and men is smaller at the beginning of their careers in the same company.

⁶² When controlling for a number of personal characteristics such as years of employment, marital status, household structure, place of residence and cognitive skills, the return of education in earnings could be higher for women than for men (Dougherty, 2005).

⁶³ Large differences in earnings by field of study have been observed and there was some tendency for the highest-paying fields of study to be associated with programmes that had high proportions of male graduates and for the lower-paying fields of study to be associated with programmes that had high proportions of women in countries with available data (OECD, 2013b).

⁶⁴ A study, which surveyed graduates from the University of Michigan Law School classes of 1972–1975, found a small difference in earnings between female and male graduates at the outset of their careers, but a 40 per cent difference in favour of men 15 years after graduation. The difference remained after controlling for the number of hours worked for both women and men. The same result was reached by a more recent study in 1982–1991. Another study on Master’s of Business Administration (MBA) graduates from the University of Chicago Booth School from 1990–2006 produced similar results (Goldin, 2014).

Seniority leads to increased earnings for both women and men. However, the increase benefits men much more than women. The gender pay gap is much larger between women and men at the end of their career, after more than 30 years of working with the same company, than between those at the start of their careers. Exceptions were noticeable in the financial and insurance sector and the information and communication sector, where the gender pay gap that existed when women and men entered the workforce held steady throughout their career and after 30 years of service (figure 4.19).

Segregation and the gender pay gap

The gender pay gap persists across all economic sectors and occupations

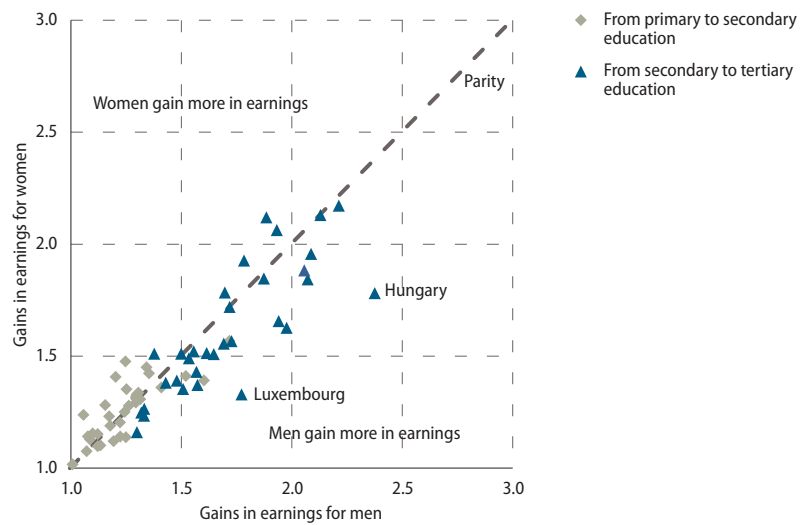
A gap in earnings between women and men persists across all economic sectors (figure 4.20). However, significant variations are found in the gender pay gap from one industry to another. Based on 2010 data for EU member States, in 15 out of 17 economic sectors, women earned between 70 and 95 per cent of what men earned. Within the manufacturing and financial and insurance industries sectors, women earned 68 and 64 per cent of what men earned, respectively.

Variations are also found within each sector, depending on the occupation a person holds, as illustrated in figure 4.21, which shows the gender difference in earnings for two sectors with the largest gender gap in pay (the financial and insurance and manufacturing sectors), as well as two other sectors (the human health and social work sector and education), where employed women are usually concentrated and have relatively lower gender gaps in earnings.

Among all people who work in the financial and insurance sector, the pay gap between women and men (favouring men) is highest for managers and professionals (women earn around 65 per cent of what men earn), compared to supporting clerks (where women earn 83 per cent of what men earn) (figure 4.21). For the manufacturing sector, the highest gender gap in pay is found among craft and related trade workers, with women earning 55 per cent of what men earn. This is in contrast to supporting clerks, among whom the ratio of women's to men's earnings is 89 per cent.

Figure 4.18

Gains in earnings from increasing educational levels, by sex, European countries, 2010

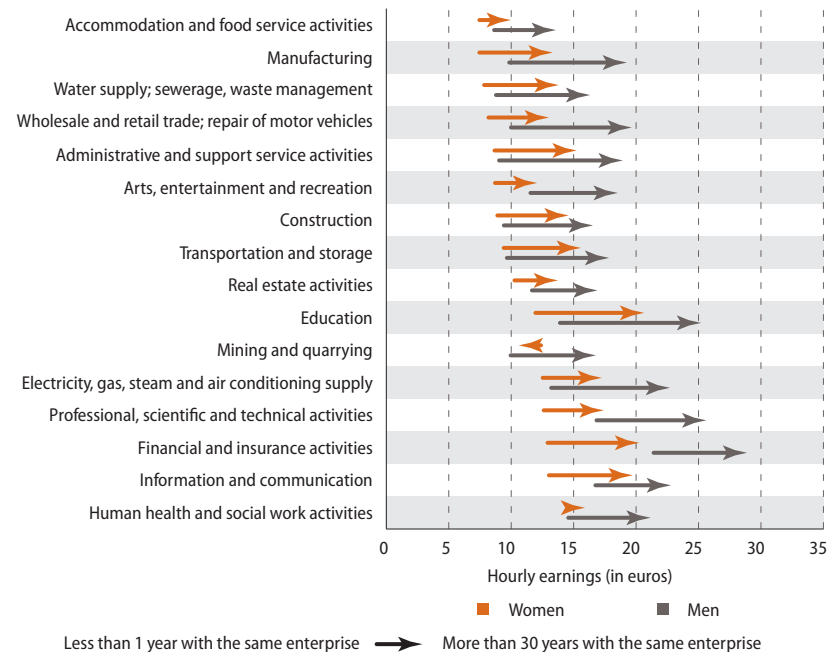


Source: Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey 2010 (accessed July 2014).

Note: Gains in earnings from primary to secondary education is calculated as the ratio of earnings of those with secondary education to those with primary education. Gains in earnings from secondary to tertiary education are calculated as the ratio of earnings of those with tertiary education to those with secondary education. This reflects earnings for full-time workers and for those working in industry, construction and services but excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security (based on NACE rev. 2, industry sector classifications).

Figure 4.19

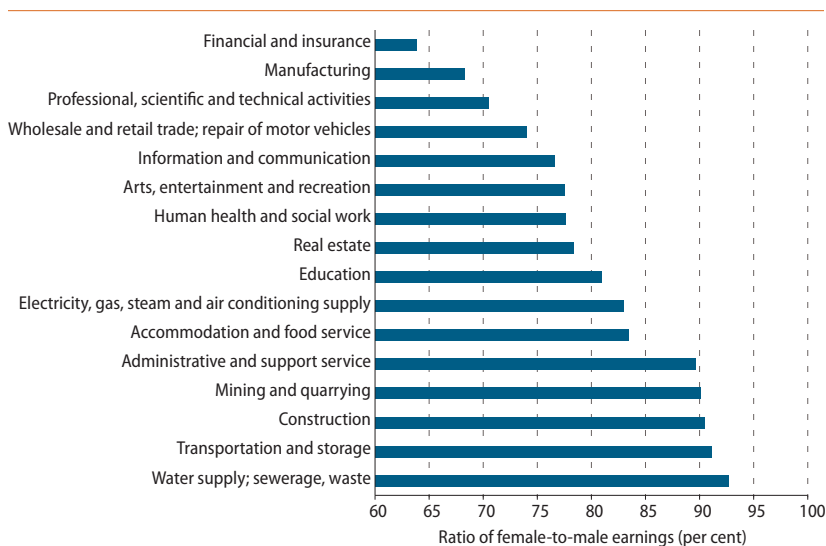
Hourly earnings by industrial sector and the number of years in the same company, average of European countries, 2010



Source: Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey 2010 (accessed July 2014).

Note: Data cover 27 EU member States, except Croatia, which joined the EU in 2013. Data reflect earnings for full-time workers and for those working in industry, construction and services but excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security (based on NACE rev. 2, industry sector classifications).

Figure 4.20
Gender gap in hourly wage by industrial sector, average of European Union, 2010



Source: Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey 2010 (accessed July 2014).

Note: Data cover 27 EU member States, except Croatia, which joined the EU in 2013. Data reflect earnings for full-time workers and for those working in industry, construction and services but excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security (based on NACE rev. 2, industry sector classifications).

Variations within the two sectors traditionally dominated by women—human health and social work, and education—differ greatly. Within the human health and social work sector, professionals have the highest gender pay gap. Here, women’s earnings are only 67 per cent of those of men; among managers, the ratio of women’s to men’s earnings is 72 per cent. Variations in the gender pay gap within the education sector are smaller across occupations; the ratio of women’s to men’s earnings range from 80 to 95 per cent.

The unexplained gender pay gap

As called for by the Beijing Platform for Action, women and men have the right to equal pay for equal work or work of equal value. However, as illustrated in this section, women earn less than men, even when they are equally educated, graduated in the same field, have the same number of years of experience or work on the same type of job. Even when a large number of characteristics are taken into consideration together, pay differentials between women and men may be explained only to a certain degree.⁶⁵ Those that cannot be explained could be attributed to discrimination.

⁶⁵ European Union, 2010, personal and job characteristics explain only 50 per cent of the total gender pay gap; Nopo, Daza and Ramos, 2011, personal and job characteristics explain partially the total gender pay gap, based on studies of 35 countries, from developing and developed regions.

Discrimination against women is reflected in direct ways such as paying women and men differently when they have the same qualifications and work on the same job. However, indirect discrimination, or traditions and stereotypes about women’s role in the society and family, impact women’s earnings also through the choice they make in fields of study and later on in their occupations and how they respond to the challenge of work and family life balance. The gender pay gap seems to be particularly wide for occupations that have higher demand on workload, such as on-call, emergency or night shifts performed on a regular basis.⁶⁶

C. Reconciliation of work and family life

1. Sharing unpaid work

Women are the primary caretakers of the family

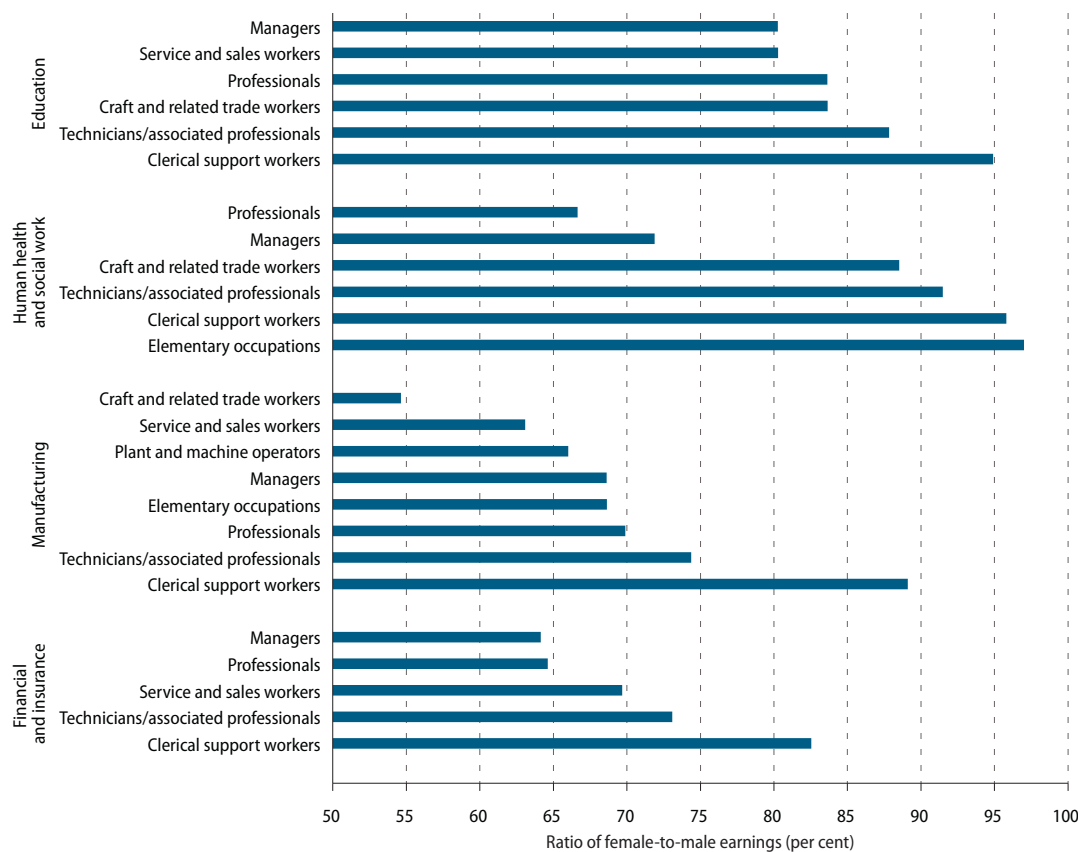
Although their participation in the labour force has increased in most countries, women continue to bear the majority of responsibilities at home and perform most unpaid work including taking care of children and other adult household members, cooking, cleaning and other housework. These activities, although productive, are not included within the SNA production boundary.⁶⁷

In the statistics on time-use presented in the current chapter, work within the SNA production boundary is referred to as “paid work” (even if some may actually be unpaid, such as work falling within the SNA production boundary performed by contributing family workers). Work that falls outside the SNA production boundary, that is, household production of services for own consumption, is referred to as “unpaid work” and consists mainly of domestic work

⁶⁶ An analysis of 2006–2008 data for the United States on earnings for women and men in the 87 highest-paid occupations showed that the gender pay gap is the highest for occupations such as physicians and surgeons, dentists, personal financial managers, and lawyers and judges. Lower gender pay gaps were found in health-care occupations such as pharmacists, optometrist and veterinarians (Goldin and Katz, 2011).

⁶⁷ The System of National Accounts production boundary includes (1) the production of goods and services destined for the market, whether for sale or barter, (2) all goods and services provided free to individual households or collectively to the community by government units or non-profit institutions serving households, and (3) the production of goods for own use. All production of services for own final consumption within households—that is, domestic and personal services produced and consumed by members of the same household, are excluded.

Figure 4.21
Gender gap in hourly wage by industrial sector and occupation, European Union, 2010



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from EUROSTAT, 2014, Structure of Earning Survey 2010 (accessed July 2014).

Note: Data cover 27 EU member states, excluding Croatia, which joined the EU in 2013. Data reflect earnings for full-time workers.

and community or volunteer work. Domestic work includes food preparation, dishwashing, cleaning and upkeep of a dwelling, laundry, ironing, gardening, caring for pets, shopping, installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods, childcare, and care of the sick, elderly or disabled household members, among others. Community or volunteer work includes volunteer services for organizations, unpaid community work, and informal help to other households, among other activities.

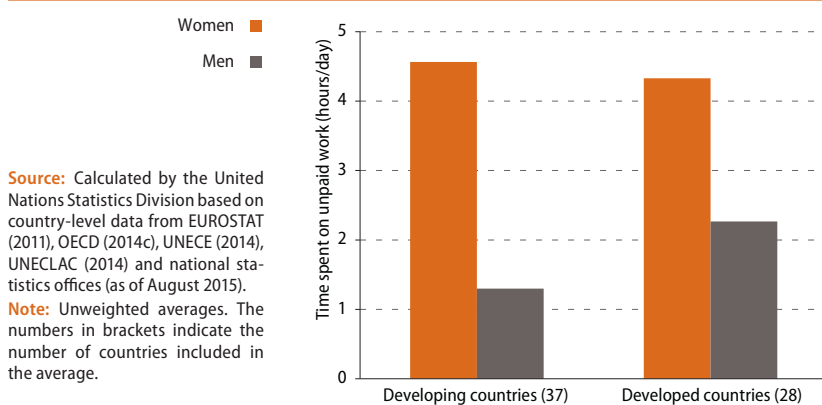
Based on available data, women in developing countries spend, on average, 4 hours and 30 minutes per day on unpaid work, and men 1 hour and 20 minutes. The gender difference is smaller in developed countries, where women spend less time (4 hours and 20 minutes) and men spend more time (2 hours and 16 minutes) per day on unpaid work than their counterparts in developing countries (figure 4.22).

Based on data for 10 developing and 25 developed countries, gender differences are found in the time spent on major household tasks such as pre-

paring meals, cleaning and caring for household members. Yet, the difference between women and men in time spent on these tasks is smaller in developed countries covered by the analysis than in developing ones. For example, on the task of preparing meals, which is the most time-consuming household task for women, women in the 10 developing countries spend around 1 hour 40 minutes more than men per day, while women in the 25 developed countries spend around 1 hour more per day than men.⁶⁸

⁶⁸ Based on analysis of 10 developing countries and 25 developed countries where data for different categories of unpaid work are available. Developing countries include Algeria, Armenia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Pakistan, Republic of Korea, South Africa, Turkey and Uruguay. Developed countries include Albania, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Serbia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the United Kingdom and the United States. Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on country-level data from EUROSTAT (2011), OECD (2014c), UNECE (2014), UNECLAC (2014), and national statistics offices (as of June 2015).

Figure 4.22
Time spent on unpaid work by sex, developing and developed countries, 2005–2013
(latest available)



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on country-level data from EUROSTAT (2011), OECD (2014c), UNECE (2014), UNECLAC (2014) and national statistics offices (as of August 2015).

Note: Unweighted averages. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries included in the average.

This divide applies to the other two household tasks considered: cleaning and caring for household members. One exception is time spent on shopping, with men in the nine developing countries with data spending as much time as women on this activity.

Gender differentials in time spent on unpaid work are narrowing over time

Although women and men still spend vastly different amounts of time per day on unpaid activities, the differentials appear to have decreased over time, as shown by data from various countries (figure 4.23). Variations are found, however, among countries in terms of how the decrease in gender differentials on time spent on unpaid work was reached, the pace of progress as well as the type of activities that contributed to the narrowing gender differentials.

In Norway, for example, the gender difference in time spent on unpaid work decreased from 1 hour and 46 minutes to 50 minutes between 1990 and 2010. However, comparable data from 1970 showed that the narrowing of gender differentials on unpaid work—a decrease of 1.5 hours from 1970 to 1990—was sharper than the 56 minutes of the later period, mainly due to significantly reduced time women spent on unpaid activities. Men in the same period (1970–1990), on the other hand, did not record much increase in time spent on unpaid work: most of the increase in men’s unpaid activities occurred between 2000 and 2010 and was mainly due to an

increase in time spent on caring for household members.⁶⁹

In the United States, time spent by both women and men on unpaid activities declined from 2003 to 2013 and the gender gap narrowed slightly (around 10 minutes) (figure 4.23). Earlier data have shown that in the country, most of the narrowing in the gender difference of time spent on unpaid work was recorded between the mid-1960s and the mid-1990s. During that period, a large reduction in women’s time spent on household chores—mainly meal preparation and cooking (almost 2 hours) was accompanied by a small increase in time spent by men on those activities (10 additional minutes).⁷⁰ Between 1993 and 2003, there was not much change in time spent on household tasks, but both women and men experienced an increase in time spent on childcare.⁷¹

The narrowing of gender differences in the time spent on unpaid work is mostly attributable to the decrease in women’s time spent on housework. The time spent by both women and men on care for household members, dominated by childcare, has not changed much or has even increased over time. The increasing amount of time spent on childcare was confirmed by a study covering 16 countries (mostly developed) for the period 1971–1998. The study further noted that not only have parents increased the amount of time they spend with children, but that the increase was mainly spent on interactive activities (such as actively playing with children), rather than on passive activities (such as minding them).⁷²

In discussions on what contributed to the narrowing of gender differentials in time spent on domestic work, women’s economic empowerment, particularly their increased participation in the labour market, seems to have been an important contributing factor.⁷³ Additional income from women for their families could make outsourcing domestic services or dining out more affordable. Smaller family size may also be one of the factors contributing to reduced work for women in the family.

⁶⁹ Data compiled based on Egge-Hoveid and Sandnes, 2013.

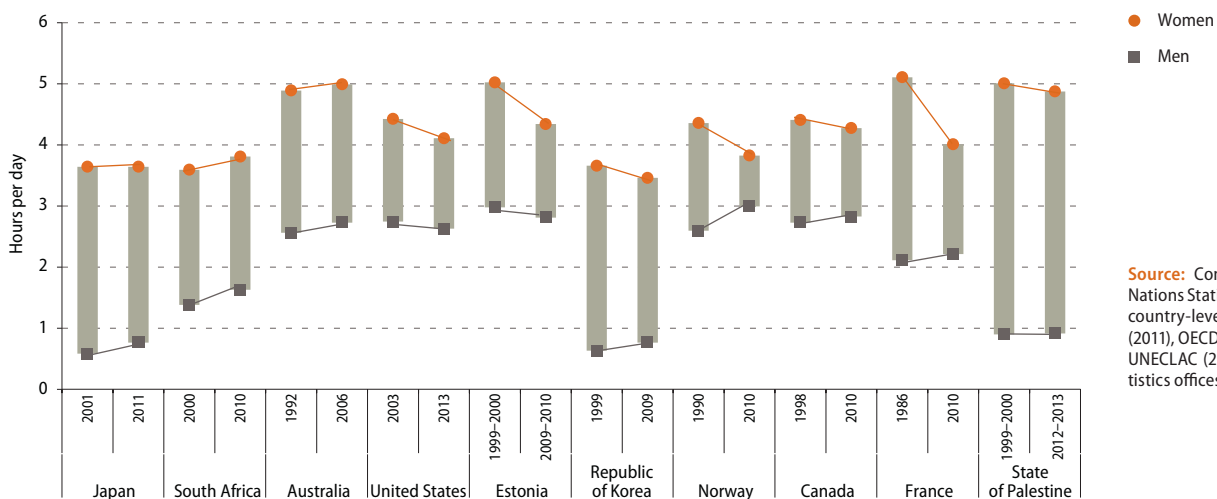
⁷⁰ Hamermesh, 2005; Kimberly and others, 2007.

⁷¹ Bianchi, Wight and Raley, 2005.

⁷² Gauthier, Smeedeng and Furstenberg, 2004.

⁷³ Miranda, 2011.

Figure 4.23
Trends in time spent on unpaid work per day, selected countries



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division based on country-level data from EUROSTAT (2011), OECD (2014c), UNECE (2014), UNECLAC (2014), and national statistics offices (as at August 2015).

Box 4.7

Time-use statistics: Interpretation and comparability

Time-use surveys collect information on a set of activities people engage in during a specific period of time. These activities include those that are paid or for profit (such as time spent at work), unpaid work (such as cleaning, cooking, caring for household members), and personal activities (such as sleeping and eating). From a gender perspective, time-use surveys provide uniquely important data not only on the time spent on domestic work but also on the total workload, including both domestic work and work for pay or profit.

Data on time-use may be summarized and presented as either “participant averages” or “population averages”. In the participant average, the total time spent by the individuals who performed an activity is divided by the number of persons who performed it (participants). In the population average, the total time is divided by the total relevant population (or a sub-group thereof), regardless of whether people performed the activity or not. In this chapter, all statistics presented on time spent in various activities are population averages. Population averages can be used to compare groups and assess changes over time. Differences among groups or over time may be due to a difference (or change) in the proportion of those participating in the specific activity or a difference (or change) in the amount of time spent by participants, or both.

When time spent is expressed as an average per day, it is averaged over seven days of the week (weekdays and weekends are not differentiated). Thus, for paid work, a five-day work week averaging seven hours per day would show up as an average of five hours of paid work per day (35 hours divided by 7 days).

International comparability of time-use statistics is limited, however, by a number of factors, including:

- **Diary versus stylized time-use survey.** Data on time-use can be collected through a 24-hour diary or stylized questionnaire. With diaries, respondents are asked to report on what activity they were performing when they started the day, what activity followed, and the time that activity began and ended, and so forth through the 24 hours of the day. Stylized time-use questions ask respondents to recall the amount of time they allocated to a certain activity over a specified period, such as a day or week. Often, stylized time-use questions are attached as a module to a multipurpose household survey. The 24-hour diary method yields better results than the stylized method but is a more expensive mode of data collection. Data obtained from these two different data collection methods are not comparable.
- **Time-use activity classification.** As much as possible, the analysis in this section has been based on the trial International Classification of Activities for Time-use Statistics (ICATUS),^a according to which paid and unpaid work are delineated by the SNA production boundary. National classifications of time-use activities may differ from the trial ICATUS, resulting in data that are not comparable across countries.
- **Activities related to unpaid care.** Time-use data presented refer to the “main activity” only. Any “secondary activity” performed simultaneously with the main activity is not reflected in the average times shown. For instance, a woman may be cooking and looking after a child simultaneously. For countries reporting cooking as the main activity, time spent caring for children is not accounted for and reflected in the statistics. This may affect international comparability of data on time spent caring for children; it may also underestimate the time women spend on this activity.

^a United Nations, 2005.

The role of government, in terms of providing social services such as affordable childcare and offering incentives for men such as paternity leave, is important in determining how much time family members, women in particular, spend on unpaid work for their households. For example, the reduction of time women spent on domestic work was much faster in Denmark, Norway and Sweden than in other countries. In these Scandinavian countries, social equality is considered to be a major goal of public policy and many family-friendly social services are available.⁷⁴

2. Combining family responsibilities with employment

Women work longer hours each day than men when unpaid work is factored in

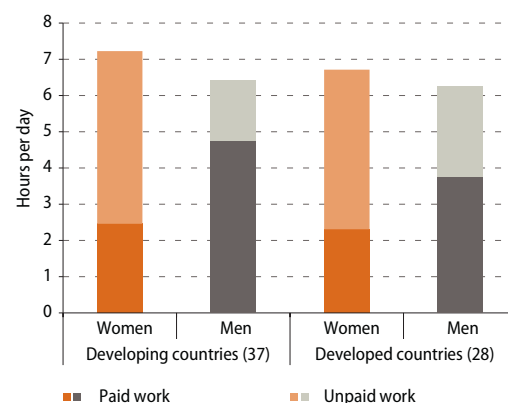
Time-use surveys and studies collect information on time spent on various activities, including paid work. On average, women spend less time on paid work than men. However, when the hours of paid and unpaid work are combined, women work longer hours per day than men, in both developing and developed countries (figure 4.24). Women in developing countries spend a total of 7 hours and 9 minutes per day on paid and unpaid work, while men spend 6 hours and 16 minutes per day. Women in developed countries spend 6 hours and 45 minutes per day on paid and unpaid work (25 minutes less than women in developing countries), while men spend around 6 hours and 12 minutes per day. The gender difference in total working hours—including paid and unpaid work—is slightly smaller in developed than in developing countries: around 30 minutes in comparison to 50 minutes, respectively (figure 4.24).

Balancing work and family life is particularly challenging for employed women

On average, employed women in the 23 developing countries with data spend 9 hours and 20 minutes per day on paid and unpaid work. Employed men in those countries spend 8 hours and 7 minutes per day, which is about 1 hour and 10 minutes less than women (figure 4.25).

⁷⁴ Gálvez-Muñoz, Rodríguez-Modroño and Domínguez-Serrano, 2011; Kan, Sullivan and Gershuny, 2011.

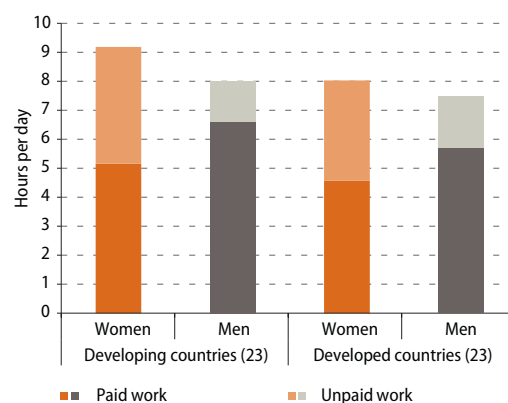
Figure 4.24
Time spent on paid and unpaid work by sex, developing and developed countries, 2005–2013 (latest available)



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on country-level data from EUROSTAT (2011), OECD (2014c), UNECE (2014), UNECLAC (2014), and national statistics offices (as of June 2015).

Note: Unweighted averages. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries included in the average.

Figure 4.25
Time spent on paid and unpaid work by persons employed, by sex, 2005–2013 (latest available)



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division based on country-level data from UNECE (2014) and national statistics offices (as at August 2015).

Note: Unweighted averages. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of countries averaged.

Employed women and men in the 23 developed countries with data spend less time than their counterpart in developing countries. Women spend, on average, 8 hours and 9 minutes, while men spend 7 hours and 36 minutes per day on paid and unpaid work.

The gender difference in total working time for people who are employed is smaller in developed countries (slightly more than 30 minutes per day) than in developing ones (about 1 hour and 10 minutes). However, the gender division

of labour between paid and unpaid work still exists among all countries reviewed. Employed women spend more time than men on unpaid work (such as cooking, cleaning and caring for children), while employed men spend more time than women on paid work.

3. Maternity and paternity leave and related benefits

Maternity protection is a fundamental human right and an important element of policies aimed at balancing the participation of women and men in family and work life. Maternity protection covers various aspects, including the prevention of exposure to health and safety hazards during and after pregnancy; entitlement to paid maternity leave and breastfeeding breaks; maternal and child health care; protection against discrimination in employment and occupation, including with respect to recruitment and dismissal; and the guaranteed right to return to the job after maternity leave.

Maternity protection not only contributes to the health and well-being of mothers and babies; it also promotes effective gender equality at work. Three maternity protection conventions were adopted by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 1919, 1952 and 2000. The latest one is the Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183), adopted in 2000, which stipulates that women should be entitled to no less than 14 weeks of maternity leave, with paid cash benefits of at least two thirds of their previous earnings.⁷⁵

Many countries have adopted maternity and paternity benefits through legislation. Both mothers and fathers benefit from the legislation. However, the coverage is not universal. Workers in specific sectors or categories of employment (defined by working-time, type of contract, etc.) are often explicitly excluded from maternity and paternity benefits in legislation in many countries. More specifically, workers such as paid domestic workers, own-account workers and contributing family workers, casual and temporary workers, and agricultural workers are usually not eligible for maternity and paternity benefits.

Maternity leave

Over half of countries offer at least 14 weeks maternity leave; the proportion has increased over the past 20 years

In 2013, more than half (53 per cent) of the 174 countries with available data offered 14 weeks minimum statutory (that is, specified in national laws and regulations) maternity leave, as recommended by ILO Convention No. 183.

All countries in the Caucasus and Central Asia, and Eastern and Southern Europe offer at least 14 weeks of maternity leave. Most countries in the other developed regions also follow the Convention. The length of statutory maternity leave is shorter than 14 weeks for many countries in other regions. In Eastern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, for example, between 40 and 50 per cent of countries offer 14 weeks or more of maternity leave. In other regions, namely, Latin America and the Caribbean, Northern Africa and Western Asia, Oceania, Southern Asia and South-Eastern Asia, less than 30 per cent of countries offer at least 14 weeks for maternity leave (figure 4.26).

From 1994 to 2013, the number of countries offering 14 weeks minimum statutory maternity leave increased from 38 to 53 per cent. In Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia, 75 per cent of countries specified at least 14 weeks of maternity leave in 1994, and all countries currently offer 14 weeks at a minimum. For developed regions (excluding Eastern Europe), countries having at least 14 weeks of maternity leave increased from 77 to above 90 per cent. Improvements were also made in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Northern Africa and Western Asia.⁷⁶

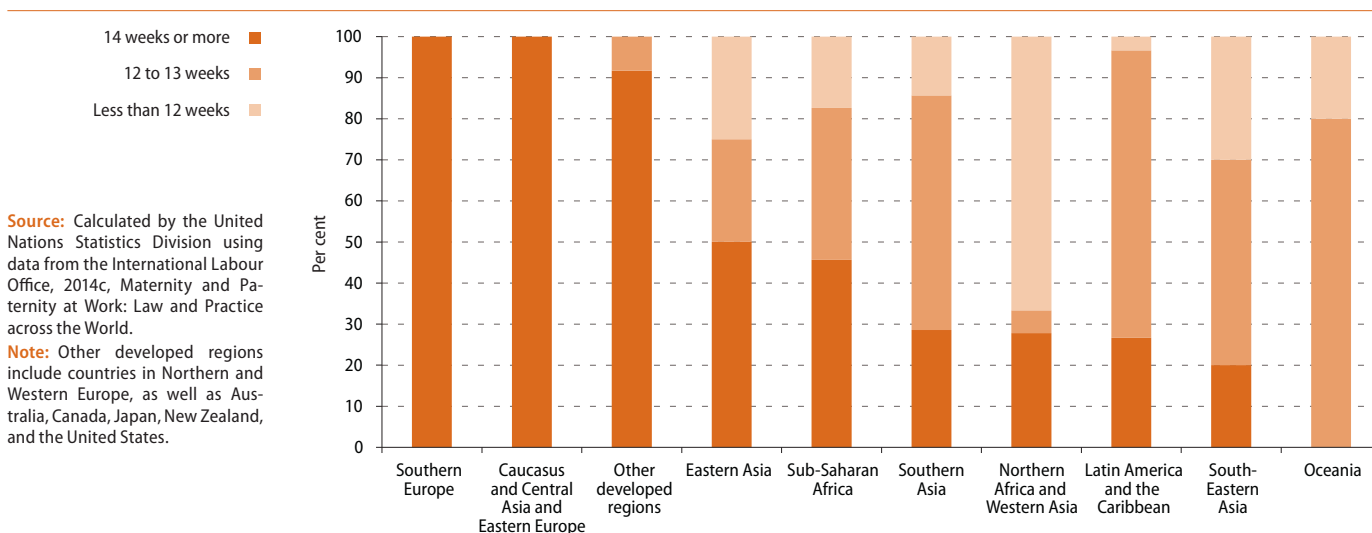
Fewer than half of countries meet the criteria set by ILO Convention No. 183 on maternity leave benefits

The ILO Convention No. 183 specifies that women should be granted paid cash benefits of at least two thirds of their previous earnings for at least 14 weeks of maternity leave. Out of 174 countries that have information on maternity leave, 83 (48 per cent) met the criteria set by the Convention in 2013, including all countries in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia (100 per cent). The proportion of countries that meet the criteria is slightly lower in Southern

⁷⁵ International Labour Office, 2000.

⁷⁶ International Labour Office, 2014c.

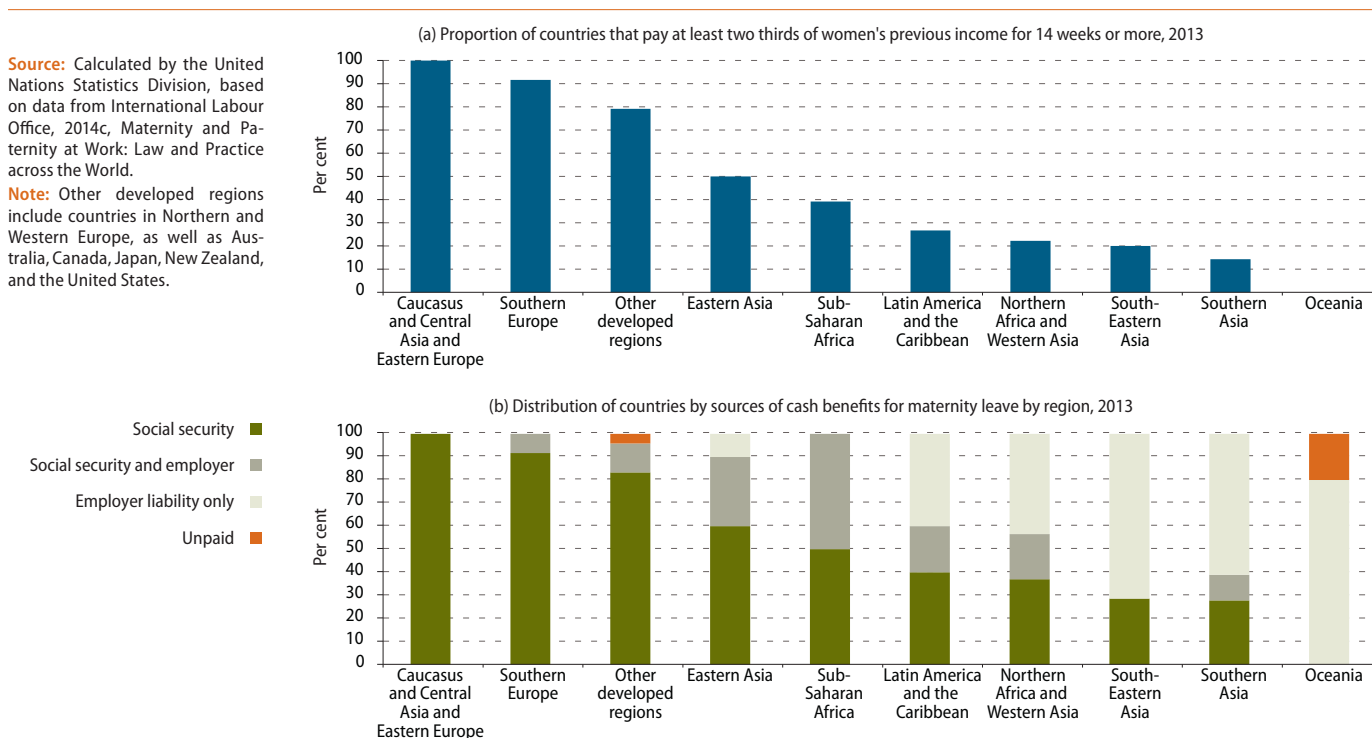
Figure 4.26
Distribution of countries with maternity leave provisions by length of leave and by region, 2013



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division using data from the International Labour Office, 2014c, *Maternity and Paternity at Work: Law and Practice across the World*.

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States.

Figure 4.27
Maternity leave duration and cash benefits by region, 2013



Source: Calculated by the United Nations Statistics Division, based on data from International Labour Office, 2014c, *Maternity and Paternity at Work: Law and Practice across the World*.

Note: Other developed regions include countries in Northern and Western Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, and the United States.

Europe (92 per cent) and other developed regions (79 per cent). The proportion of countries meeting the required criteria is much lower in developing regions, ranging from 50 per cent in Eastern Asia to 0 per cent in Oceania (a). Only two countries do not have legal provisions on cash benefits for maternity leave: Papua New Guinea and the United States.

The source of cash benefits for maternity leave is also significant. Using social security or social insurance instead of having employers bear the cost for paying such benefits should reduce discrimination against women, especially those of reproductive age in the labour market. In 2013, all countries in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia covered cash ben-

efits for maternity leave through social insurance schemes. The percentage of such countries was lower in Southern Europe (92 per cent) and other developed regions (83 per cent). The percentage was much lower in the other regions, at 60 per cent or less. Twenty-eight countries fund maternity leave cash benefits through a combination of social security and employer contributions, among which nine are in Latin America and the Caribbean and in sub-Saharan Africa, respectively (figure 4.27b).

Paternity leave

Paternity leave is becoming more common

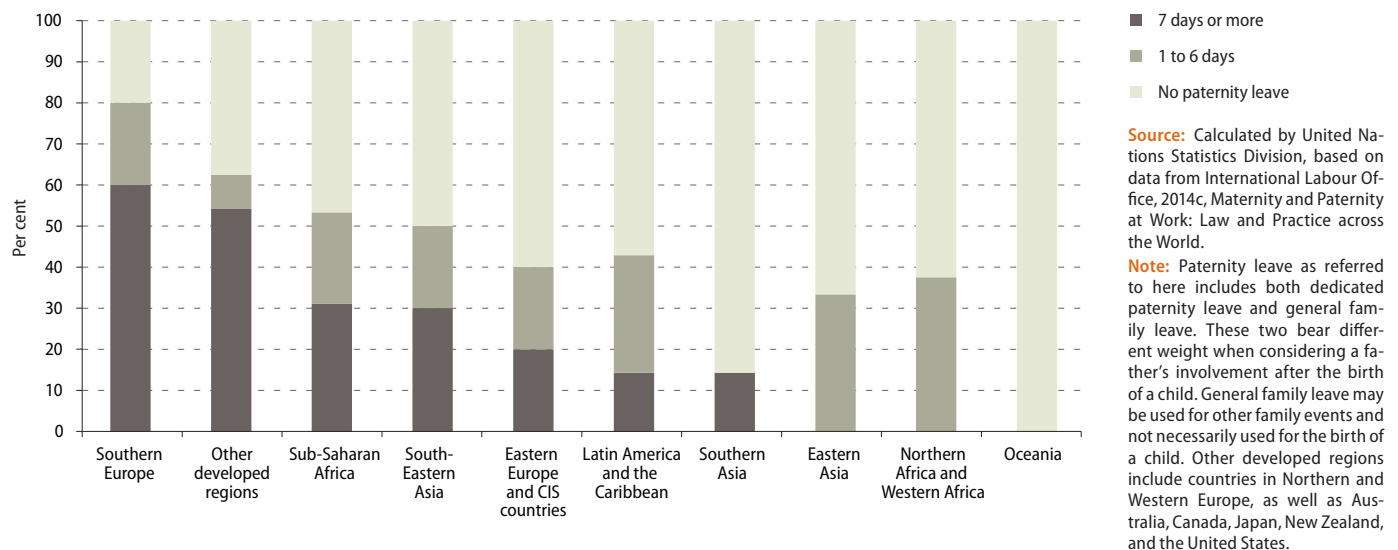
Paternity leave, in general, is a short period of leave for the father immediately following the birth of his child. It is intended to encourage fathers to assist mothers in recovering from childbirth to take care of the newborn and other children, and to attend to other family-related responsibilities. A recent OECD study carried out for four countries—Australia, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States—has shown that fathers who take leave around the birth of their child, especially those taking two weeks or more, are more likely to engage in childcare-related activities when the children are young.⁷⁷

In 2013, out of 163 countries with available data, 78 (48 per cent) had provisions on paternity leave. Southern Europe and the other developed regions have the highest proportion of countries with such provisions (80 per cent and 63 per cent, respectively). More than half of sub-Saharan African countries (53 per cent) offer paternity leave. Very few countries in Southern Asia offer paternity leave (14 per cent), and no country in Oceania has a provision on paternity leave. In other regions, the prevalence of paternity leave ranges from between 30 and 50 per cent (figure 4.28).

Paternity leave is becoming more common: The proportion of countries with such leave provisions has increased from 27 per cent in 1994 to 48 per cent in 2013. Countries in Southern Europe and the other developed regions also witnessed an increase in the length of time granted for paternity leave. In 2013, 19 countries in those two regions offered seven days or more, compared to five countries in 1994.⁷⁸

The duration of statutory paternity leave varies from one day to more than two weeks, mostly paid. Among the 78 countries that provide paternity leave in 2013, 69 offer cash benefits. In more than half (44 countries), cash benefits are covered by employers only. One major issue in discussing paternity leave is the difference between statutory paternity leave and the actual rates of fathers

Figure 4.28
Proportion of countries with paternity leave provisions by length of leave and region, 2013



⁷⁷ Huerta and others, 2013.

⁷⁸ Calculated by United Nations Statistics Division based on data from International Labour Office, 2014c.

taking that leave. Data are not available to show cross-country comparisons on paternity leave take-up rates. However, as discussed in the case of maternity leave, cash benefits paid by social security systems rather than by employers not

only help reduce potential employment discrimination against fathers with family responsibilities but also help improve the take-up rates for paternity leave.