Women in labour markets:
Measuring progress and identifying challenges

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Executive summary

The global platform for action on gender equality and women's empowerment was fixed in Beijing 15 years ago ...

Fifteen years have passed since the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing decided on a global platform for action on gender equality and women's empowerment.[1] Several of the strategic areas defined within the platform touch upon aspects of equality for women and men in the world of work, a core value of the International Labour Office (ILO).[2] Specifically, under the header of "women and the economy", the following strategic objectives are listed:

- Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources.
- Facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade.
- Provide business services, training and access to markets, information and technology, particularly to low-income women.
- Strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks.
- Eliminate occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination.
- Promote harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.

... and international organizations such as the ILO have advocated for gender equality in the world of work for even longer.

Most of these sentiments were reiterated in the more recent, tripartite meeting of the International Labour Conference (ILC) on "Gender equality at the heart of decent work" in 2009.[3] The international community is now anxious to know if progress has been made on the Beijing platform for action and, specifically, on principles of gender equality in the world of work.

The time has come to measure progress and identify the remaining challenges that women face in attaining decent work.

Measuring progress requires indicators, which is where this report fits in. It offers an analysis of 12 indicators from the ILO *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* database. The aim is to look for progress or lack of progress towards the goal of gender equality in the world of work and identify where and why blockages to labour market equity continue to exist. It focuses on the relationship of women to labour markets and compares employment outcomes for men and women to the best degree possible given the available labour market indicators.

More and more countries are realizing the productive potential of women ...

This report will show that there is a sort of inevitability about women's increasing engagement in labour markets. Between 1980 and 2008, the rate of female labour force participation increased from 50.2 to 51.7 per cent (see figure 7). In countries and regions where participation rates at the beginning of the period were below the world median, the increases were

[1] UN: Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, A/CONF.177/20/Rev.1, Beijing, 4-15 September 1995. For more information, see: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/index.html.

[2] Conclusions, *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, June 2009; http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_112288.pdf.

[3] ibid., p. 13.

much more dramatic. On the other hand, in some countries where female labour force participation was much higher than the median in 1980, probably due to the prevalence of poverty in the country and the necessity of working for survival, the rates showed a decline over the period. What this means is that over time there has been both a general increase in female economic participation and a shrinking of the distance between countries with low levels and countries with high levels of participations (see figure 4).

... but other countries remain stalwartly closed to female economic participation, thus denying themselves a key resource of development.

In the meantime, male labour force participation rates have shown a tendency to decrease slightly. The result: gender differentials in labour force participation rates have decreased over time to "only" 26 percentage points (in 2008), versus nearly 32 percentage points in 1980. Still, many countries have a long way to go in approaching even this level of difference. In these countries, where women continue to lack the freedom to make basic choices such as how to contribute economically to the household, more needs to be done in the international community to advocate for change.

And while there is evidence of progress for some women in terms of employment status …

And what about the quality of work that women engage in? Again, the report will show that there have been some modest signs of progress; the share of women working in the categories of vulnerable employment declined from 55.9 to 51.2 per cent between 1999 and 2009 (see table 2f and figure 12). The male share fell as well over the period but to a lesser degree than the female (from 51.6 to 48.2 per cent). The move away from vulnerable employment into wage and salaried work can be a major step toward economic freedom and self-determination for many women.

… gains are modest and inconsistent across countries.

But, unfortunately, such progress is irregular and far from consistent. There are countries where vulnerable employment for women continues to increase and countries where the shares of women in vulnerable employment remain above 75 per cent (nine countries with latest year data of at least 2000). Such findings remind us that progress measured at the global level should be treated with caution. The report attempts to balance the analyses of trends at the global and regional levels with more detailed country-level analyses in order that the final assessments of progress and remaining female employment challenges can be as well-rounded as possible.

And the general picture remains one of continuing gender disparity around the world in terms of both opportunities and quality of employment.

So what is the final assessment of the report when it comes to measuring progress toward gender equality in the world of work? The main findings highlight a continuing gender disparity in terms of both opportunities and quality of employment: female employment-to-population ratios have generally increased over time but remain at levels well below those of men; nearly one-fourth of women remain in the category of unpaid contributing family workers, meaning they receive no direct pay for their efforts; and there is a clear segregation of women in sectors that are generally characterized by low pay, long hours and oftentimes informal working arrangements. To summarize, the circumstances of female employment – the sectors where women work, the types of work they do, the relationship of women to their jobs, the wages they receive – bring fewer gains (monetarily, socially and structurally) to women than are brought to the typical working male.

Is there a policy approach that will facilitate the breakthrough toward gender equality?

The question remains then, in the face of modest progress, how exactly does one go about "promoting full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and youth"[4] when current policy approaches do not seem to be working, at least not for women?

A first step regards empowering men and women alike in their labour market choices.

A first step requires granting men and women alike the possibility to make choices about their labour market entry. Some women will choose to work and others will choose to stay at home. The same for men. Some women will choose to work part-time or engage in temporary assignments while others will hold out for full-time permanent employment. The same for men. The important thing is that men and women alike are free to choose their respective labour market paths. Giving women a chance to contribute to the economic welfare of themselves and their families through labour force engagement has been proven to bring gains in nearly all areas of development, including poverty reduction, the spread of reproductive rights and associated declines in fertility and the redistribution of responsibilities and rights within the household. It is certainly a first step in building a society based on the concept of gender justice.

But even this is not enough.

But even this is not enough. Let us presume that all countries suddenly adhere to the concept of gender equality and remove all the obvious barriers that deny female labour force participation. Will it mean labour market equity? No. The aim should not be just to create a situation whereby female economic participation is the same as that of males. What matters is that both females and males who choose to engage in economic activity are able to find productive and decent work defined according to criteria that recognize their specific values and constraints.

A second step requires changing biases ...

"Specific values and constraints" – this is key and leads us to a vital second step in promoting greater progress toward gender equality in the world of work, which requires ridding society of gender stereotypes. "Gender justice"[5] cannot be achieved when biases remain embedded in economic and social institutions and development processes. For example, one should avoid the general premise that the aim is to recreate the male labour market for women. The premise is wrong.

[4] Recognizing that decent work for all is central to addressing poverty and hunger, the UN Millennium Development Goal 1 now includes a target to "achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people". For a full history on the MDG target and information regarding the indicators selected for monitoring progress, see ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 4th Edition* (Geneva, 2007), Chapter 1, section A, "Decent employment and the Millennium Development Goals: Description and analysis of the new target".

[5] Gender justice is defined as "the ending of, and if necessary the provision of redress for, inequalities between women and men that result in women's subordination to men". M. Mukhopadhyay and N. Singh (eds.): *Gender Justice, Citizenship, and Development* (International Development Research Centre, 2007); http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-108814-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html. According to the authors of the book, "The term 'gender justice' is increasingly used by activists and academics because of the growing concern and realization that terms like 'gender equality' or 'gender mainstreaming' have failed to communicate, or provide redress for, the ongoing gender-based injustices from which women suffer."

... envisioning a labour market that incorporates the unique values and constraints of women ...

What a broader paradigm of gender equality in relation to employment aims to do is promote developments within labour markets that ensure that the same gains – economically, socially and politically – are brought to women as to men; that empower women to the same degree as men. The aim must not be to force women to fit into a labour market construct that is inherently male, but rather to adapt the labour market construct to incorporate the unique values and constraints of women.

... and then building the policy approach that ensures that labour markets empower women to the same degree as men.

In a way, what is advocated in this report is that countries increase their efforts in the promotion of gender justice in the world of work. Countries where female labour force participation is low, for whatever reasons, can do more to dissolve the barriers to entry. In countries where women and men are more equally free in their economic choices, they can push for the development of a more innovative policy approach, one that goes beyond standard labour market interventions (promoting equal employment opportunities and equal pay for equal work, for example). A "new" gender approach could, for example, introduce policies that: (1) encourage men to share family responsibilities through behaviour-changing measures (such as paternity leave); (2) quantify the value of unpaid care work; (3) develop educational systems that challenge stereotypical gender roles;[6] (4) challenge tendencies toward a discrimination- or exploitation-based definition of "women's work" (for example, by broadening access for women to employment in an enlarged scope of industries and occupations while also encouraging male employment in sectors traditionally defined as "female" as a means of raising both the average pay and status of the occupation); and finally, (5) focus on raising the quality of work in all sectors, extending social protection, benefits and security to those in non-standard forms of work.

And finally, a "new" gender policy approach calls for a broader framework for labour market information and analysis ...

This report emphasizes the importance of labour market information and analysis for informed policy-making. It introduces and utilizes numerous labour market indicators that together paint a fairly accurate portrait of how women and men engage in labour markets. It acknowledges the strengths and weaknesses of the available labour statistics and points to some important developments in the statistical community that will improve measures to some degree, allowing us to better capture the concept of labour underutilization and the composition therein (see section 3.2). But in essence, all that the analysis of new measures will do is fine-tune the ability to demonstrate that women are generally disadvantaged, without being able to fully capture what this means for the welfare of half of the human population. Female disadvantages are proven in this report and elsewhere. Adding another indicator to strengthen the case of gender inequality in the world of work is interesting from a research and advocacy point of view,[7] but it still will not address a fundamental shortcoming of analyses built on numbers alone.

[6] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, June 2009.

[7] In fact, the ILO has been tasked in the Conclusions of the ILC gender equality discussion in 2009 to "build the capacity of labour statisticians and improve labour market information systems so as to provide better sex-disaggregated data in areas such as labour market participation rates, childcare and dependant care provisions, by levels of remuneration ...". Conclusions, op. cit., para. 52, p. 13.

... incorporating alternative sources to broaden the information base and make sure that labour market information is geared toward understanding exactly how female and male labour markets operate.

When looking at the issue of gender equality, one must broaden the information base. The labour market indicators can showcase the advantages and disadvantages of the two sexes, but will never be able to officially measure, for example:

- The decision-making process that a male or female parent faces regarding employment.
- The full extent of the working day of a parent, incorporating all aspects of child and home care.
- The internal struggle of a man or woman determined to have both career and family.
- The extent of "soft" (or indirect) discrimination and valuation of gender-biased skills as factors in the career advancement of men or women.
- The number of marriage dissolutions driven by disagreement regarding the sharing of household responsibilities.
- The household dynamics of a family when the principal earner loses a job.
- The child welfare consequences of a working, single-parent household.

All of these are factors in determining gender justice or the consequence of continuing injustices. They qualify as qualitative information made available through alterative sources such as case studies and other social science research tools. It is simply a matter of adding the information into the national framework of labour market analysis and policy-making.

Then once a "new" gender approach based on a broad array of labour market information is built, it must be protected from default during times of economic crisis.

Finally, we need to ensure that the goal of gender justice does not get lost in the face of the current (or any future) economic crisis. This report investigates the gender impact of the crisis in a series of three boxes spread throughout the report. Box 9 summarizes a report based around the very important reminder that gender equality should not be a fair weather policy priority. The report reminds us that: "Although gender equality is widely regarded as a worthwhile goal, it is also seen as having potential costs or even acting as a constraint on economic growth, and while this view may not be evident in official policy it remains implicit in policy decisions. For example, where there is pressure to increase the quantity of work or promote growth, progress towards gender equality may be regarded as something that can be postponed. However, it is possible to make an economic case for gender equality, as an investment, such that it can be regarded as a means to promote growth and employment rather than act as a cost or constraint. As such, equality policies need to be seen in a wider perspective with a potentially greater impact on individuals, firms, regions and nations."

The ILO and its member States have committed to the principle of reducing gender inequality as part of an overall jobs recovery strategy.

Within the Global Jobs Pact, a commitment and strategy for "putting quality jobs at the heart of the recovery" unanimously adopted by ILO member States at the International Labour Conference in 2009, one of the "principles for promoting recovery and development" is "promoting core labour standards and other international labour standards that support the economic and jobs recovery and reduce gender inequality".[8] The commitment is there. Now is the time to refocus attention on redressing some lingering inequalities and to develop innovative gender approaches to employment policy.

[8] *Recovering from the crisis: A Global Jobs Pact*, adopted by the International Labour Conference at its 98th Session, Geneva, 19 June 2009.

Abbreviations

CEE	Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU)
EPR	Employment-to-population ratio
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GET	Global Employment Trends
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ILC	International Labour Conference
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification (of All Economic Activities)
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
LFPR	Labour force participation rate
LMI	Labour market information
LMIA	Labour market information and analysis
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
SNA	System of National Accounts

1 Introduction

The ILO *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* as a primary tool for gender analysis

The ILO *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* (KILM) database is a comprehensive collection of labour market information that "can serve as a tool in monitoring and assessing many of the pertinent issues related to the functioning of labour markets".[9] One such issue is equity in the labour market. The producers of the KILM acknowledge in the "Guide to understanding the KILM" that women face specific challenges in attaining decent work. What we wish to uncover in this report is how well one can paint a realistic portrait of the female labour market today and identify trends over time using the available KILM indicators. Does the KILM offer a wide enough umbrella for measuring the utilization of labour, particularly female labour, and for showcasing the characteristics of labour markets, especially as they differ between men and women? The short answer is yes.

Twelve KILM indicators serve as the barometer from which the analysis of employment trends for women has been built in this report. There are certainly other indicators mentioned throughout the report that could strengthen the analysis, indicators that are "new" and not yet available for a significant number of countries (informal employment, for example; see section 3.3.4) or indicators that are widely available at the country level but are not yet harvested into an ILO database (employment by occupation, for example; see box 8). But such indicators would only add to the strength of the findings highlighted throughout the report and summarized in the following section. Using the available, sex-disaggregated KILM indicators, we are already able to demonstrate how women engage in labour markets and how their unique values and constraints result in an overall portrait of gender inequality in the world of work (as summarized in the executive summary).

This report utilizes the KILM as the main data source but also builds on the numerous analyses of female trends or gender comparisons that currently exist in the six editions of the KILM. Each KILM report, released every two years since 1999, contains a "Trends" section for each of the 20 indicators. It is here that the analyses of the particular indicator are showcased, with figures and text to demonstrate the latest trends and guide KILM users on the interpretation of the data. Annex 1 contains an inventory of all gender-specific figures and accompanying analyses found in the current six editions of the KILM. Readers of this report can use the inventory as a guide to specific types of existing gender analyses – including time trends, correlations between variables, country or regional comparisons, life span (using age disaggregation) and others – and find ideas for areas where they might wish to focus attention for future research.

A note on the data

The KILM is a collection of country-level data. Detailed information concerning its organization and coverage as a collection of labour market indicators for approximately 200 countries, areas and territories can be found in the "Guide to understanding the KILM", a chapter in each edition since the 4th. One significant challenge of any repository of labour

[9] ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 6th Edition* (Geneva, 2009); www.ilo.org/kilm.

market information is how to flag issues of data comparability. There are systematic differences in the type of data source related to the methodology of collection, definitions, scope of coverage and reference period that impact the interpretation of an indicator from one country to another. Such meta-information is linked to the KILM data as a means of addressing such limitations to comparability. An effort has been made in the examination of country-level data in this report to remove non-comparable data, but users are reminded to carefully examine the notes associated with the KILM tables when undertaking their own research.

This report makes use of both country-level data from the KILM but also reports on world and regional estimates that are generated from the ILO Trends Econometric Models. Results of the world and regional estimation process are displayed with brief analyses in the KILM – see boxes 1a, 2b, 3a, 4b, 8b, 9a, 19b and 20a in the 6th Edition – and also serve as the basis for the analyses undertaken in the ILO *Global Employment Trends* (GET) series. The ILO issued *Global Employment Trends for Women* reports in 2004, 2007, 2008 and 2009.[10] This report serves as a hybrid between the two products, combining both the country-level analysis made available in the KILM and the global and regional analysis made available in the *GET for Women*. For detailed information specific to the methodology behind the production of world and regional estimates, readers are invited to review box 3 in the "Guide to understanding the KILM" and the methodological papers made available on the production unit's website.[11]

A final note concerns the level of technicality used throughout the report. Definitions of the concepts and definitions of the core labour market concepts such as employment, unemployment, etc., are provided throughout the report but technical details are avoided since the emphasis here is more on the interpretation of the indicators than on measurement. Readers who are interested in gaining a better technical understanding of the concepts, definitions and measurement guidelines can consult the "Sources and definitions" section of the corresponding KILM indicator or the ILO Department of Statistics internet page on "Standards and guidelines" for labour statistics.[12] Detailed methodological information about the national sources of these statistics are available from the "Sources and methods" link on the ILO Department of Statistics LABORSTA database.[13]

Objectives of the report

The majority of KILM indicators are disaggregated by sex so there is scope for examining female engagement in the labour market and comparing male and female outcomes. This report does focus attention on gender comparisons, looking for progress (or the lack thereof) towards the goal of gender equality in the world of work and identifying

[10] GET reports are available on website: http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/lang--en/WCMS_114243/index.htm.

[11] http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/projects/lang--en/WCMS_114246/index.htm. See specifically, ILO: "Trends Econometric Models: A Review of the Methodology", web-document, Geneva, January 2010;
http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_elm/---trends/documents/publication/wcms_120382.pdf.

[12] http://www.ilo.org/global/What_we_do/Statistics/standards/lang--en/index.htm.

[13] ILO Department of Statistics, LABORSTA database on labour statistics is available at: http://laborsta.ilo.org.

where and why blockages to equality continue to exist. But the report also aims to familiarize readers with labour market information as a tool for undertaking gender analysis and to identify where information gaps exist that weaken the measurement and characterization of women at work. The main objectives of the report are to:

1. present an up-to-date portrait of women in the world of work, using KILM indicators;
2. present the strengths and weaknesses of available labour market indicators as measures of women's economic activities;
3. familiarize readers with labour market information as a tool for gender analysis and policy-making; and
4. highlight continuing labour market imbalances as impetus for increased action to promote gender equality in the world of work.

Structure of the report

The report is constructed in a linear way, introducing one indicator at a time, in the hopes of demonstrating how each subsequent indicator helps to flesh out the portrait of women in the labour market. But before indicators can be introduced, they should first be placed within the context in which they were developed. We first need to set the scene about what labour market information is and how (and why) it is analysed to address specific topics such as gender. The next section of the report (section 2) does exactly this. It defines labour market information and analysis (LMIA) and the labour force framework from which the indicators are defined.

Section 3 is where the actual analysis of employment trends for women takes place. It is organized around three analytical themes: labour utilization, labour underutilization and female employment: where and how women work. To help readers navigate through the text and pinpoint where specific issues will be addressed, bullets are used to mark the relevant question relating to women in labour markets and the text that responds to it. This framework should demonstrate to readers how it is only through analyses of multiple indicators that one can attain a view broad enough to clearly define a specific labour market topic.

Finally, section 4 presents ten country profiles as a demonstration of how a full picture of the composition and characteristics of the female labour force in one country can emerge in the presentation of the most relevant gender-sensitive KILM indicators. Included as a country profile are: Argentina, Costa Rica, Finland, Ireland, the Netherlands, Spain, Sri Lanka, Thailand, United Arab Emirates and United Republic of Tanzania. Each country offers an interesting case study of female labour market trends.

Main findings

This section combines the qualitative and quantitative findings of the report and brings in some additional summations of trends in the global and regional data as presented in Annex 2.

Labour utilization

- The overall picture of the global capacity to tap the productive potential of its people is one in which nearly half (48.4 per cent) of the productive potential of the female population remains unutilized (compared to 22.3 per cent for men). (See table 2a.)
- Between 1980 and 2008, the rate of female labour force participation rate (LFPR) increased from 50.2 to 51.7 per cent while the male rate decreased slightly from 82.0 to

77.7 per cent. As a result, the gender gap in labour force participation rates has narrowed slightly from 32 to 26 percentage points.

- Of all people employed in the world, 40 per cent are women. This share has not changed over the last ten years.
- The share of women above the working age (15 years and over in most countries) who are employed (the employment-to-population ratio) was 48.0 per cent in 2009 compared to a male employment-to-population ratio (EPR) of 72.8 per cent. (See table 2d.) Both male and female ratios decreased slightly over the decade but more so for men. In seven out of nine regions, however, female EPRs increased over the last ten years. The two exceptions were East Asia and South-East Asia & the Pacific. Male ratios, in contrast, saw decreases in seven of the nine regions. Among the youth cohort (aged 15 to 24 years), however, declining EPRs are evident for both sexes in nearly all regions. This is explained by the increased tendency of youth to engage in education.
- In absolute numbers, worldwide there were equal numbers of women and men above the age of 15 years in 2009 (2.5 billion of each), but among these only 1.2 billion women were employed as opposed to 1.8 billion men. (See table 2a.)
- In developed countries a portion of the employment gap can be attributed to the fact that some women freely choose to stay at home because they can afford to not enter the labour market or prefer to tend to the household. Yet in some lesser-developed regions of the world, remaining outside of the labour force is not a choice for the majority of women but an obligation; it is likely that women would opt to work in these regions if it became socially acceptable to do so. This of course does not mean that these women remain at home doing nothing; most are heavily engaged in household activities. Regardless, because most female household work continues to be classified as non-economic activity, the women who are thus occupied are classified as outside of the labour force. More than six in ten women remain economically inactive in three regions: South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. (See table 2b.)
- Attracting more women into the labour force requires as a first step equal access to education and equal opportunity in gaining the skills necessary to compete in the labour market. More women are gaining access to education, but equality in education is still far from the reality in some regions.
- In addition, broadening access for women to employment in an enlarged scope of industries and occupations will be important to enhancing opportunities for them in the labour market. Society's ability to accept new economic roles for women and the economy's ability to create the jobs to accommodate them are the key prerequisites to improving labour market outcomes for women, as well as for economic development on the whole.

Labour underutilization

- Overall, there is not a significant difference between the sexes when it comes to global unemployment rates but the female rate is consistently slightly higher than the male. The female unemployment rate in 2009 was 7.0 per cent compared to the male rate of 6.3 per cent. (See table 2c.) Also at the country level, the majority of countries have higher unemployment rates for females than males (113 countries out of 152) and 30 countries showed female rates that exceeded male rates by more than 5 percentage points.
- Women bear a significantly larger burden of the only currently available measure of underemployment, time-related underemployment, with an overrepresentation in almost all countries with data (55 countries in total).

Female employment: Where and how women work

- The move away from vulnerable employment into wage and salaried work can be a major step toward economic freedom and self-determination for many women. Economic

independence or at least co-determination in resource distribution within the family is highest when women are in wage and salaried work or are employers, lower when they are own-account workers and lowest when they are contributing family workers. The share of women in wage and salaried work grew during the last ten years from 42.8 per cent in 1999 to 47.3 per cent in 2009 whereas the share of vulnerable employment decreased from 55.9 to 51.2 per cent. (See table 2f.)

- Looking at the gender differences in status in employment, one finds that differences are not large when it comes to shares in wage and salaried work. There are large gender differences in shares of employees by sex but the importance of this status to overall employment is small. The most significant gaps are found in the statuses of own-account workers (favouring men) and contributing family workers (favouring women). Both statuses are sub-categories of "vulnerable employment", as persons less likely to have formal work arrangements, access to benefits or social protection programmes. Thus, they are more at "at risk" to economic cycles and poverty.
- In low-income countries where job creation in the formal sector is a rare phenomenon, there is a strong tendency for both women and men to engage in self-employment activities. Thus, the shares of persons working in vulnerable employment are high for both sexes, especially in the world's poorest regions, but still higher for women than for men (51.2 per cent for women and 48.2 per cent for men in 2009). (See table 2f.) And even within the category of vulnerable employment, there are welfare consequences associated with the sub-category that dominates – own-account work or unpaid family work. At least own-account workers have the possibility of earning income from their efforts. For women, the larger share (in the vulnerable employment total) in all but three regions was unpaid contributing family work.
- Whereas ten years ago agriculture was the main employer for women, the services sector now provides the majority of female jobs: out of the total number of employed women in 2008, 37.1 per cent worked in agriculture and 46.9 per cent in services. Male sectoral shares in comparison were 33.1 per cent in agriculture and 40.4 per cent in services. (See table 2e.)
- There is a clear segregation of women in sectors that are generally characterized by low pay, long hours and oftentimes informal working arrangements. And even within the sectors where women dominate, it is rarely women who would hold the upper managerial jobs.
- Part-time work continues to be a predominantly female domain (although male part-time employment rates are also increasing in some countries with available information). The high incidences of time-related underemployment for some women tend to lend support to the premise that many women take up part-time work as the only solution to balancing work with family responsibilities. The question remains then, what are the costs to the large number of females working part-time in terms of lower pay, lack of benefits (social security, etc.), representation and voice, and career paths? The Netherlands serve as an interesting case in which the State has intervened to extend elements of social protection and entitlements to part-time workers with the result that women take up part-time employment voluntarily without feeling marginalized as a result of their choice. (See box 10.)
- In many countries the female labour force is generally better educated than the male labour force. At the same time, the data show a much greater tendency for the educated woman, at both the tertiary and secondary levels, to face unemployment than men with the same education level. Yes, women are making great progress in gaining access to education and yes, the trend is for more women to become economically active, but in terms of numbers alone, the balance is still strongly in favour of men.
- Gender wage differentials are firmly present in all occupations and across all skills bases. The occupations showing the lowest differentials are first-level education teaching and general office work, both occupations that are likely to be dominated by females. Even among persons with the highest skills level (university degree), the gender wage differential is still evident. As examples, among countries with available data, male

accountants earned up to 33 per cent more than female accountants. Within the mid-skills level (secondary-school level) occupations, the gender wage differential for salespersons in the majority of countries was in the range of 10-30 per cent. Even hotel receptionists and professional nurses – traditionally female occupations – had large wage gaps although there were also more incidences where wages favoured women in these occupations than the others.

The current economic crisis

- The global female unemployment rate increased from 6.0 per cent in 2007 to 7.0 per cent in 2009, slightly more than the male rate which rose from 5.5 to 6.3 per cent. However, in four of nine regions – Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, East Asia and South-East Asia & the Pacific – the male unemployment rates increased slightly more than the female rates over the same period. In general, neither men nor women were impacted to a greater extent than the other in the current economic crisis, at least in terms of job losses. What seems to have happened is that the initial impact of the crisis hit the financial, manufacturing and construction sectors hard, the domain of predominantly male workers in developed economies. It was men in these sectors that experienced the first job cuts. But the impact of the crisis has since expanded to other sectors around the world, including service sectors where women are mainly employed and job losses in these sectors are now occurring as well (see box 6 for more information).
- The largest increase in unemployment for women and men – both the rates and nominal values – were in the regions of the Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS and Latin America & the Caribbean. Only in one region, the Middle East, did the nominal number of unemployed women increase more than the corresponding increase in male unemployment. As a result, the female unemployment rate increased from 14.4 to 15.0 per cent between 2007 and 2009 while the male rate remained constant at 7.7 per cent.
- The impact of the economic crisis on men and women is strongly influenced by the circumstances of gender job segregation within the country. In some developing countries, for example, many women work in the export-driven manufacturing sector. If downsized, they face stiff competition in finding new work when the supply of female unskilled labour is higher than the demand. They would have little option open to them but to get in a job queue and hope for a quick recovery or take up less desirable, informal employment. The recently unemployed male, on the other hand, would seem to have a wider variety of sectors open to him and might, therefore, stand a better chance of finding work (see box 7 for more information).
- Between 2008 and 2009, female LFPRs showed slight decreases, most likely as a result of the economic crisis in Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, East Asia, South Asia and North Africa. Male rates between the two years declined only in Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS and Latin America & the Caribbean.
- Even though the crisis impact on the unemployment of men and women seems to be relatively even, how men and women behave in the face of the crisis is likely to result in gender differentials as economic recovery begins to set in. Analyses of past crises have shown that female job-losers were slower to return to work as economic recovery settled in. One also cannot ignore the risks of an increased marginalization of female labour as they take up part-time and flexible jobs, which dominate the available work opportunities during a recession. Men are less likely to "settle" for such work, but will rather hold out as unemployed until a full-time "real job" becomes available. Many of these part-time female workers will be working shorter hours involuntarily and will therefore qualify as time-related underemployed. The suspicion is that it will be with labour underutilization (as defined in section 3.2) that the real gender impact of the economic crisis will show up (see box 9 for more information).

2 Labour market information for gender analysis

2.1 A brief introduction to labour market information and analysis (LMIA)

Labour market information (LMI) is exactly what the term implies – any information about the intangible arena where the supply and demand of labour interact. This includes information about how people work or search for work, on the system of education and training, on the school-to-work transition, how enterprises engage workers, return to labour ... the list is infinite. Inevitably there are blockages that prevent a perfect union of labour supply and demand; discrimination, for example, prevents a perfect match, as does imperfect infrastructure that prevents a person from getting to where the jobs are or imperfect information such that the person does not know where to look for work. Identifying and quantifying inefficiencies (and good practices) in the labour market – such as gender equality in the world of work – is the first step in designing employment policies aimed at enhancing the well-being of workers while also promoting economic growth. This broad view of the world of work calls for a comprehensive collection and organization of LMI and, perhaps more importantly, an analytical capacity to understand it.

Labour market information and analysis (LMIA) should be viewed as the cornerstone for developing integrated strategies to promote standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, productive employment, social protection and dialogue, as well as to address the cross-cutting themes of gender and development.

2.2 A brief introduction to the labour force framework

There are many sources of labour market information. Common ones include labour force surveys, population censuses, establishment surveys, administrative records and household income and expenditure surveys. Each source comes with its own strengths and limitations. This report is not the proper arena for discussing the details concerning data sources. What does concern this report, however, is the labour market statistics that are tabulated from such sources, specifically the concepts and definitions that drive tabulations; where do they come from and are they realistic when investigating the gender dimensions of the world of work?

The two main concepts that drive any discussion of the world of work are employment and unemployment. Both are defined within the international standard framework for measurement of the labour force (also known as the currently economically active population). The labour force is the sum of the two sub-categories – persons who are working, i.e. the employed, and persons who are not working and want to work, i.e. the unemployed. On the other side of the spectrum are persons outside of the labour force (also known as the economically inactive population). The statistical definitions for measurement of each of these concepts – employment, unemployment and inactivity – are comprehensive

and comprehensible, having been set nearly three decades ago within the institution of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS).[14]

Box 1. Measurement and valuation of women's work

The standardized UN System of National Accounts (SNA) is a mechanism developed by economists in 1947 to define what constitutes as market production and certain types of non-market production. In other words, the SNA sets the boundary between economic and non-economic activity and it is upon these boundaries that the measurement of the economically active population is based. The SNA is described as:

… a coherent, consistent and integrated set of macroeconomic accounts, balance sheets and tables based on a set of internationally agreed concepts, definitions, classifications and accounting rules. It provides a comprehensive accounting framework within which economic data can be compiled and presented in a format that is designed for purposes of economic analysis, decision-making and policy-making.

There are many critics of the system, however. The SNA excludes unpaid activities such as unpaid domestic activities volunteer community services, which many feel ensures that "certain factors of economic life appear far more important than others. It is a way of counting money, but not human and environmental cost, not unpaid work, not time, and certainly not health and happiness. In particular, it allows women's work to be made invisible and subsequently ignored and deemed unimportant in measures of economic progress". See box 10 for additional discussion relating to the measurement of unpaid household work.

Source: UN Platform for Action Committee (UNPAC); http://www.unpac.ca/economy/econmeas.html.

There are priority rules associated with the labour force framework for sorting the sampled working-age population into the proper sub-category (employed, unemployed, inactive). For the most part, national statistical programmes, where they exist around the world, apply the rules to generate standardized labour market statistics from their surveys.[15] The statistics are then put together to generate labour market indicators and it is the indicators that are analysed and used to inform the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of employment policies and programmes. A country that engages in an employment or development strategy specific to women will certainly benefit from the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated labour market information in order to develop and monitor the strategy and its specific policies and programmes.

The majority of the labour market indicators discussed in this report is a derivation of total employment or unemployment as set out in the labour force framework. The international standards for measurement are not without their critics, however. The strengths and weaknesses of the concepts will be discussed in the relevant sections throughout the report. Specifically, the report will summarize a long-standing debate on whether or not the international standards for measurement of labour market statistics are particularly narrow when it comes to measuring the labour utilization of women.

[14] Resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment, adopted by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva, October 1982; http://www.ilo.org/global/What_we_do/Statistics/standards/resolutions/lang--en/docName--WCMS_087481/index.htm.

[15] Exceptions in the application of the international standard definitions are common and represent a big challenge to producers of compilations of statistics such as the KILM; see the "International comparability" in the "Guide to understanding the KILM" and in each KILM indicator manuscript for more information.

3 Analysing the female labour market

3.1 Labour utilization

3.1.1 Introduction

There are certain indicators that aim to measure the capacity of an economy to utilize the productive potential of its available human resources. In looking at the gender dimensions of labour force utilization, the values and movements of the indicators will be analysed to address the following questions in this section:

- What is the capacity of the economy to utilize female labour in comparison to male labour?
- What is the historical picture of female labour force participation and where do we see the biggest changes over time?
- What are the main factors that drive change in female LFPR?
- What is the correlation between female LFPR and the level of development in the country?
- What are the patterns of LFPRs over the life-span of a woman and what is the influence of childbearing?
- What is the overall effect when youth and adult employment trends move in opposite directions?
- Which regions show the biggest increases in female EPRs?

3.1.2 Measuring labour utilization: The indicators

The labour market concepts used to construct the indicators in this section are those set out within the labour force framework mentioned in section 2.2. The framework sets the current international standard for measurement of the labour force and its sub-components. As stated in the introduction, the details of the technical definitions can be found elsewhere[16] and are not repeated here except where needed to clarify the discussion of the interpretation of the indicators and their limitations.

A person in the **labour force** is somehow engaged in economic activity – either working or looking for work (the labour force is the sum of employment and unemployment). As a concept, the labour force has come to represent the productive potential of the people in an economy, with the segment that is **employed** representing utilized labour and the segment that is **unemployed** representing the underutilized labour. The inverse is a person who is **inactive** (or outside of the labour force), a person who neither works nor looks for work. The **labour force participation rate** (labour force as a percentage of the working-age population) then represents the share of productive potential in the working-age population (i.e. the share of the population that *could* be tapped for economic engagement). Table 1 summarizes the indicators and their components in relation to the topic of labour utilization.

[16] Interested readers are directed to benefit from the "Definitions and sources" sections of the indicator manuscripts within the KILM or, if even greater technical details are desired, to make use of an invaluable resource for labour statisticians and technical specialists interested in survey design: R. Hussmanns, F. Mehran and V. Verma: *Surveys of economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment: An ILO manual on concepts and methods* (ILO, Geneva, 1990).

Table 1. Components of labour utilization: "Classic" labour force framework

Indicator/component	Definition	General interpretation ("what does it indicate?")	But …
Labour force	Sum of persons who are employed or unemployed	The current productive potential of an economy	See Employed and Unemployed
Inactive	Sum of persons who are neither employed nor unemployed	The population that does not engage in economic activity (non-utilized)	… also includes some underutilized labour (discouraged workers and others), i.e. some elements of "productive potential"
Employed	Persons who worked (for self or for pay) for at least one hour during the reference period	Utilized labour	… also includes some underutilized labour, if considering employment characteristics such as short hours, low earnings or skills mismatch (underemployment and persons in inadequate employment situations) and the category of "with a job but not at work"
Unemployed	Persons who did not work, are available to work and actively sought work during the reference period	Underutilized labour	… narrow definition excludes some underutilized labour (discouraged workers and others counted among the inactive)
Labour force participation rate	Labour force / working-age population * 100	The relative size of an economy's current productive potential	… but slightly deflated by exclusion of some underutilized labour (discouraged workers and others counted among the inactive)
Inactivity rate	Inactive / working-age population * 100	The relative size of an economy's non-productive potential	… but slightly inflated by inclusion of some underutilized labour (discouraged workers and others)
Employment-to-population ratio	Employed / working-age population * 100	The share of utilized labour in an economy	… but slightly inflated by inclusion of some underutilized labour (e.g. the underemployed)
Unemployment rate	Unemployed / labour force * 100	The relative size of underutilized labour in the productive potential of an economy	… but can be too narrow since other elements of underutilization also exist among the employed and inactive

3.1.3 Utilization of female labour: The trends

Indicator 1: Distribution of the working-age population by main activity status[17]

Figures 1 and 2 show the distribution of the female and male working-age populations (above the age of 15 years) by main economic status (inactive, employed or unemployed) using global and regional estimates.[18] The gender differences are immediately evident in

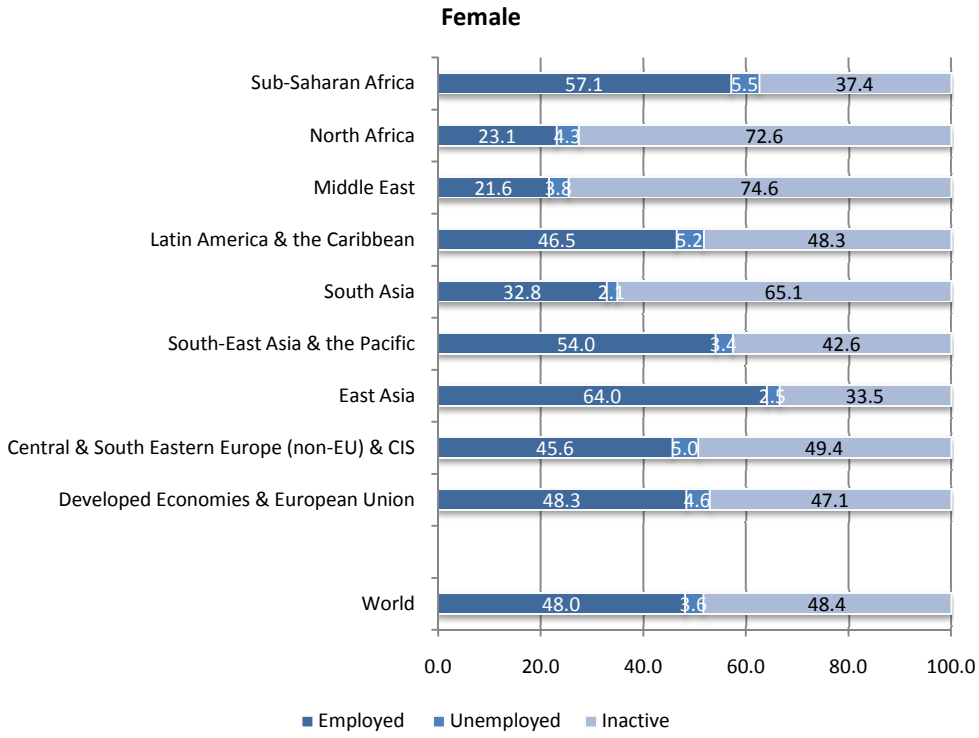
[17] While not a measure within the KILM, this indicator is built on components that are available in the KILM – specifically, the raw numbers of persons employed, unemployed and inactive – and is included here because it serves as a useful means for visualizing the gender differences in the labour markets.

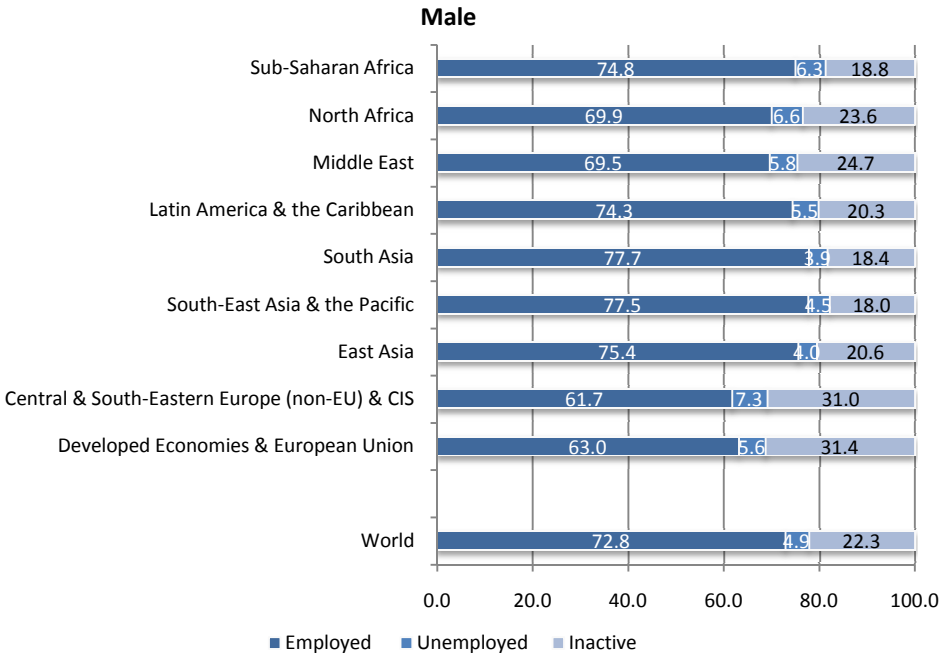
[18] See "A note on the data" in the introduction for information on the source of global and regional estimates used throughout this report.

the pie charts that represent the global working-age populations. The overall picture of the global capacity to tap the productive potential of its people is one in which nearly half (48.4 per cent) of the productive potential of the female population remains untapped (compared to 22.3 per cent for men). One cannot help but wonder how much could be added to global economic growth if the share of the active female population was seen to increase by even 5 percentage points over the next five years. Certainly some regions are doing better than others when it comes to female economic utilization. In the Middle East, North Africa and South Asia more than six in ten women of working age remain outside of the labour force. Giving women a chance to contribute to the economic welfare of themselves and their families through labour force engagement has been proven to bring gains in nearly all areas of development, as stated in the executive summary. It is certainly a first step in building a society based on the concept of gender justice.

Figure 1. Global distribution of female and male working-age populations by main economic status, 2009

Figure 2. Regional distribution of female and male working-age populations by main economic status, 2009





Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

Indicator 2: Labour force participation rate (LFPR) (KILM 1)

As stated in the section introduction, the labour force participation rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. Its value as an indicator is to provide an overall indication of the available supply of labour or, as stated in table 1, the relative size of a country's productive potential. From a gender perspective, the measure is interesting for: (1) assessing the access to labour markets for females in comparison to males; (2) determining historical trends and its drivers; and (3) analysing the life-span pattern of female participation. Each item will be dealt with in turn in the following subsections.

The regional bar charts in figure 2 show in which areas of the world the productive capacity of females is most likely to be tapped. The labour force participation rate is represented in the distribution charts above as the sum of the shares in employment and unemployment. In descending order of highest shares of economically active women (and lowest shares of inactive women) in 2009, the list of regions is: East Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, South-East Asia & the Pacific, Developed Economies & European Union, Latin America & the Caribbean, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, South Asia, North Africa and the Middle East. One should remember, however, that even the regional averages will mask some important country variations within the same region, hence, the importance of looking at the country-level data before making any final assessments. Looking at the country data, one would find that in South Asia, for example, the range of female labour force participation rate (LFPR) extends between 63.2 and 21.2 per cent in Nepal and Pakistan, respectively, while the regional figure was 35.1 per cent (see also figure 3 below).

It is also important to remember that labour force participation is the sum of unemployed persons and employed persons and that the latter can be found at any point on the spectrum between non-decent and non-productive and decent and productive work. The interpretive value of an increased supply of female labour is significantly weakened when additional indicators show the increase to be driven by gains in unemployment and low-paid, non-standard and precarious work. As we progress through this report we will find that, in many cases, the general increase in female participation in countries has gone hand

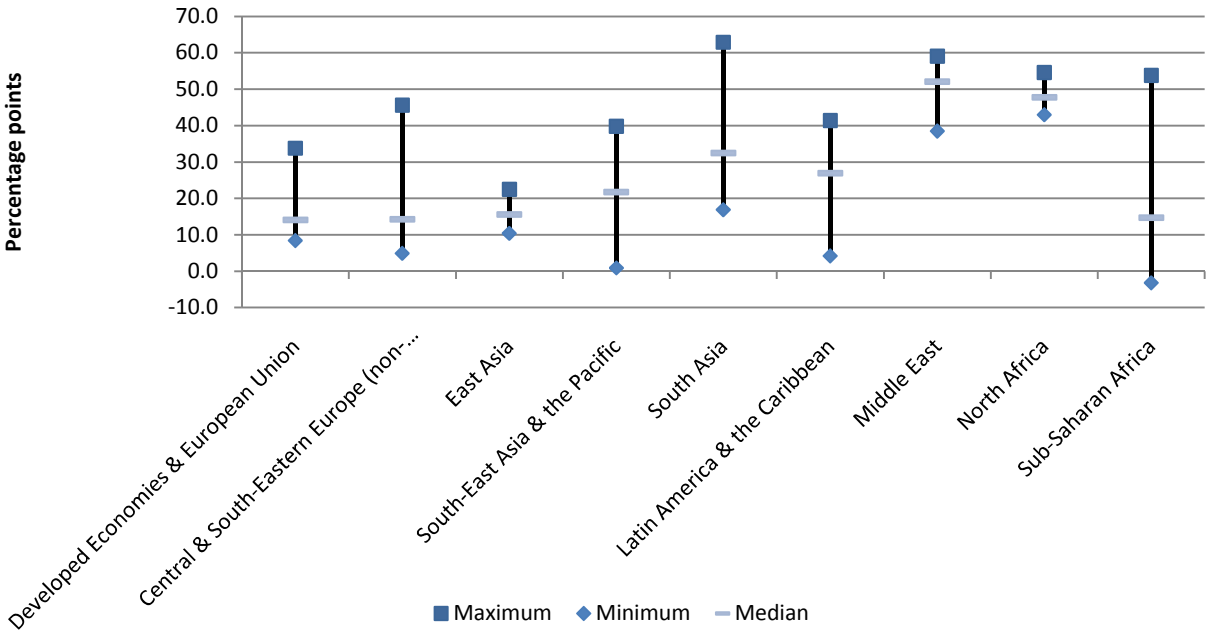
in hand with increases in the proportion of females in part-time work, other non-traditional forms of work, underemployment and unemployment. The dynamics at work within the labour force are masked if looking at labour force participation rates alone. It is an important indicator for framing the size of the female labour potential, in particular in comparison to that of men, but it does not provide a comprehensive picture of whether there have been gains in female well-being.

Gender gaps

- What is the capacity of the economy to utilize female labour in comparison to male labour?

Figure 3 illustrates the wide gender disparity in labour force participation rates, with patterns differing significantly around the world and from country to country. The regions where the median gender differences were highest were already identified with the previous indicator (the median gaps in the Middle East and North Africa are far above those of other regions) but here one can also see the distribution of results within the regions. We see that not only do the regions of the Middle East and North Africa have the highest male-to-female participation differentials at the median level, but also that there were no big country outliers within the regions. The gaps were sizable (above 38 percentage points) in all countries in the regions. In Sub-Saharan Africa, on the other hand, the median differential was much lower at 14.7 percentage points but there was a significant number of countries with gaps higher than that. The highest gap in the region (53.8 percentage points at Equatorial Guinea) was even on par with countries in the Middle East and North Africa. On the other hand, there was at least one country where the female LFPR exceeded that of the corresponding male rate, hence the minimum of the distribution of the gaps in the region is below zero.[19]

Figure 3. Male-female gaps (percentage points) in labour force participation rates, regional minimum, maximum and median, 2008



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 1a.

[19] For a full regional-level trend analysis, readers are referred to the March 2008 edition of the ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Women* (ILO, Geneva).

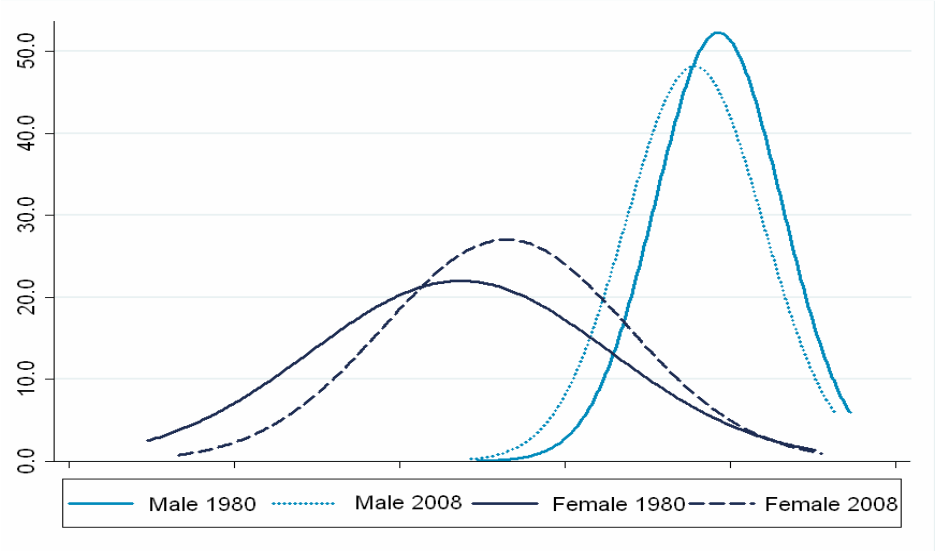
Historical view

- What is the historical picture of female labour force participation and where do we see the biggest changes over time?

The KILM data start in 1980 so we are able to look at the longer-term patterns in female LFPRs in the period 1980-2008. The global female LFPR grew in the 1980s from a starting point of 50.2 per cent, reached 52.2 per cent in 1990, but then declined between 1990 and 2008 to settle at 51.7 per cent.[20] In general, there has been a convergence toward a median of female LFPR for all countries with available data, meaning a narrowing of the curve with fewer countries represented at the extremes. Figure 4 shows that in 2008 there was less variation among the countries of the world (a steeper curve) as females in countries where participation had been blocked for whatever reason began to engage in economic activity and females in countries where economic participation was high in 1980, whether driven by poverty and a lack of access to education or the command economy, were provided with alternatives that lowered their labour force participation.

Over the same long term period (1980-2008), the global male LFPRs decreased from 82.0 per cent in 1980 to 77.7 per cent in 2008, mainly as a result of decreasing participation of male youth (15-24 years) who are staying longer in education. Figure 4 shows graphically the tendency of male LFPRs to decrease. The result: gender differentials in labour force participation rates have decreased over time to "only" 26 percentage points (in 2008), versus nearly 32 percentage points in 1980. Still, as was noted in the previous sub-section on gender gaps, many countries have a long way to go in approaching even this level of difference. In these countries, where women continue to lack the freedom to make basic choices such as how to contribute economically to the household, more needs to be done in the international community to advocate for change.

Figure 4. Normal distribution of female and male labour force participation rates across 189 countries, 1980 and 2008



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 1a.

[20] Because global estimates from the ILO Trends Econometric Models are available only from 1991, the estimation process used here was a simple average of the summed labour force estimates of the 189 countries with data in KILM table 1a divided by the summed working-age population (15+) from the same table.

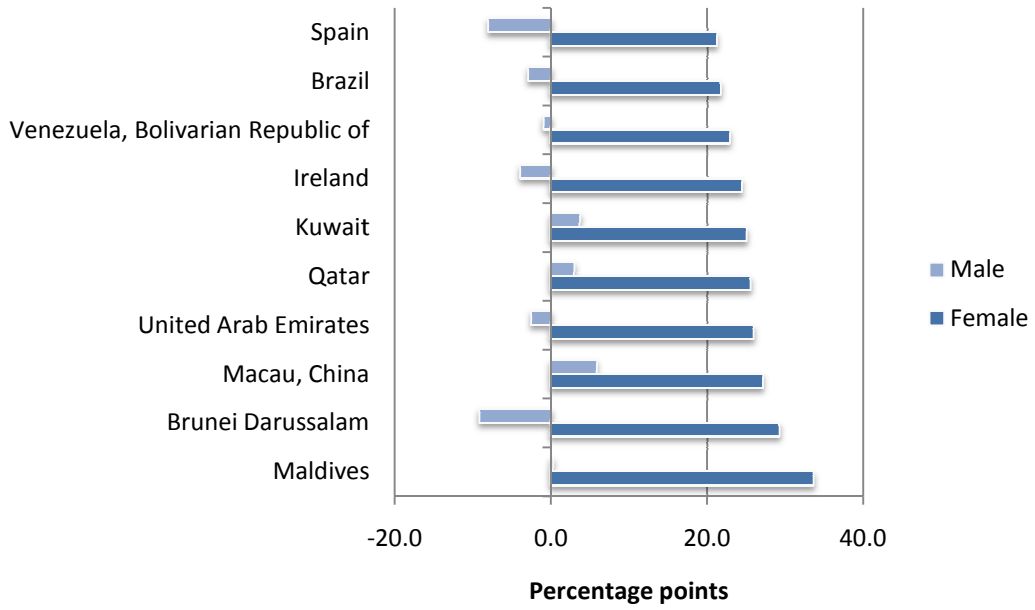
The country results of the historical trends in female LFPR are summarized as follows:

- 10 countries showed an increase in female LFPR of over 20 percentage points (medians: 1980, 28.0 per cent; 2008, 52.3 per cent);
- 48 countries showed an increase in female LFPR of 10-20 percentage points (medians: 1980, 34.4 per cent; 2008, 50.5 per cent);
- 78 countries showed a 0-10 percentage point increase in female LFPR (medians: 1980, 50.1 per cent; 2008, 56.0 per cent);
- 47 countries showed a decrease in female LFPR of 0-10 percentage points (medians: 1980, 59.7 per cent; 2008, 55.5 per cent); and
- 6 countries showed a decrease in female LFPR of over 10 percentage points (medians: 1980, 61.9 per cent; 2008, 50.4 per cent).

By rating countries according to the largest increase over time rather than according to the size of the gender gap or level of participation, we get a slightly different insight into the different factors at play, and can take a different approach to identifying the forces that contribute to increases in economic activity for women. Clearly these countries have very different starting points but, nevertheless, it is revealing to identify where the biggest changes are taking place in order to assess what dynamics are operating.

Figure 5 shows the ten countries with a change in female labour force participation of over 20 percentage points and the corresponding changes for men. The countries that achieved the largest increases in the labour force participation of women tended to start from very low levels (between 15.9 (United Arab Emirates) and 38.3 per cent (Macau, China) at a time when the world median was 47.0 per cent), showing a clear bottom-up trend. The median of the ten countries shifted from 28.0 to 52.3 per cent over the period, putting it very close to the median of all countries with data in 2008 (53.6 per cent). By 2008, it was only the Middle Eastern countries of Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates where the participation rates of women remained more than 5 percentage points below the median. Five of the countries ended with female LFPRs that were above the world median (Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Ireland, Macau (China) and Maldives). Ireland, Spain and the United Arab Emirates are all featured as "country profiles" in section 4.

Figure 5. Change in labour force participation rates, by sex, 1980 to 2008 (percentage points)



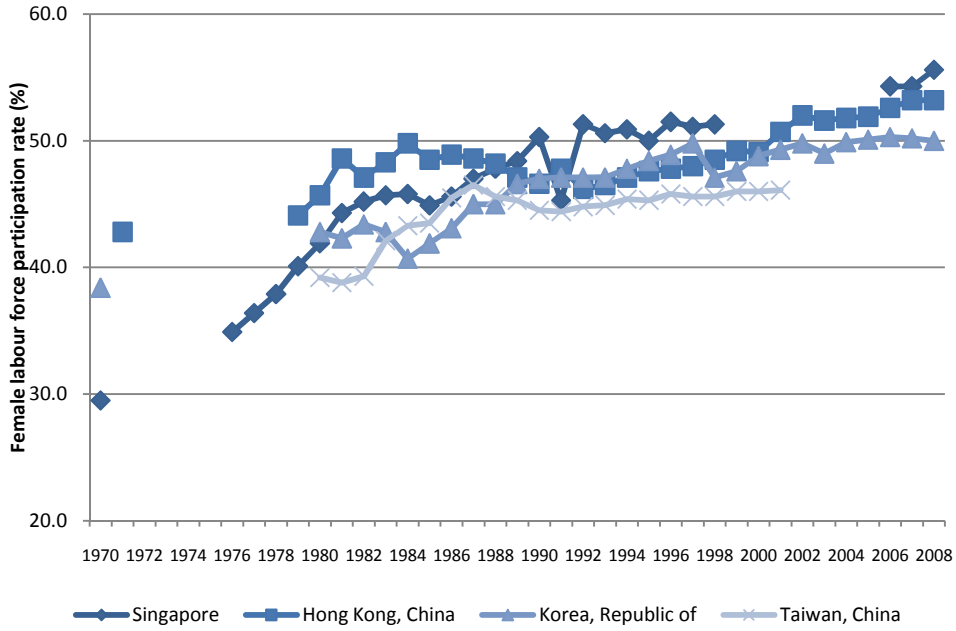
Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 1a.

Box 2. Female labour utilization and rapid economic growth: The Asian Tiger story

The newly industrializing countries − Hong Kong (China), Republic of Korea, Singapore and Taiwan (China) − have been heavily studied by economists and exemplified as remarkable cases of rapid and prolonged industrialization between the early 1960s and 1990s. Explaining the Asian "miracles" is a complex business, with numerous factors contributing to the boom in manufacturing output and exports. What is of interest for this report is the rapid growth in female LFPR that took place in all four countries. The figure below reflects the notable increases in female participation in all the countries, increases that were well above the general trends. Over the period 1970-2008, the rate in Singapore increased by 26 percentage points. In the other three countries, the increases were not as high but were also impressive at approximately 10 percentage points.

Growth in these countries can largely be explained by mobilization of resources, meaning growth in inputs such as labour and capital, rather than by gains in efficiency.[1] The educational standards as well as the investments in physical capital were dramatically improved. These economies had high levels of female educational attainment compared to other developing economies, which contributed to their eventual dominance in the export of electronic products.[2] Women were the preferred workers for the light, labour-intensive manufacturing production. Certainly one of the strongest elements of growth in the economies was the reliance on low-wage female labour. Some researchers claim that gender inequality was a fundamental component of export-oriented economic growth for the Asian Tigers.[3] In short, the Asian Tigers story was one in which significant progress was made in tapping female labour and this fed strong economic growth, but it would be hard to say that women were really better off given the inequality of wages and working conditions.

Female LFPRs in Hong Kong (China), Republic of Korea, Singapore and Taiwan (China), 1970 to 2008



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 1a (1980+) and ILO LABORSTA database; http://laborsta.ilo.org (1970-79).

[1] P. Krugman: "The Myth of Asia's Miracle", in *Foreign Affairs*, Vol. 73, No. 6, 1994.

[2] S. Joekes: *Trade-Related Employment for Women in Industry and Services in Developing Countries*, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (Geneva, 1995).

[3] B.H. Mitra-Kahn and T. Mitra-Kahn: "Gender wage gaps and growth: What goes up must come down"; http://www.feministeconomics.org/idg/Mitrakahn.pdf.

The countries that have shown the biggest changes in female LFPR are fairly well represented across the different regions, suggesting some very different dynamics at work. One can list the generic factors that drive female labour force participation (see the list below) but, in order to determine the correct mix and strengths of determinant at the country level, a detailed investigation of country data, both qualitative and quantitative, is called for. The country profiles offered in section 4 can serve as a good starting point for the more detailed country-level analysis.

- What are the main factors that drive change in female LFPRs?

The following is a list of some key determinants of female labour force participation (many of which will be examined in other areas of the report):

- Religious, cultural and social norms;
- Access to education;
- Income level;
- Fertility;
- Institutions (legal framework, enterprises, labour unions, etc.);
- Sectoral base of the economy (agricultural, industrial or service-based);
- Political regimes;
- Wars and conflicts.

There does seem to be an especially high proportion of Latin American & the Caribbean countries among the 30 countries with the largest increases (ten of the 30: Belize, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela), so a study of the factors driving change in this region particularly would be a worthy undertaking. One of these countries – Argentina – is examined in detail in a country profile. The overall pattern and structure of the emerging female labour force in Argentina showed an increase in part-time work, a strong gender division by sector and a better-educated female workforce. From a developmental point of view, these countries seem to be following a similar pattern as some of the developed economies ten to 20 years earlier, suggesting that the female labour force – its size, composition and characteristics – might follow some sort of continuum in parallel to that which defines economic development.

There are also countries which have seen decreased female labour force participation. Those which had decreased participation of more than 10 percentage points were central and eastern European countries (the Sub-Saharan African country of Malawi was the only exception). Here the political-economic reasons are clear; with the dismantling of the guaranteed job and childcare systems under the command economy, the labour market became a much more competitive place and many women had no choice but to forgo a job search in order to take care of the household. Some other countries with decreases over the period started from very high rates of participation – high enough to indicate a situation in which all able bodies were engaged in economic activity as a fight against poverty. One can assume that some countries such as Thailand and Viet Nam experienced sufficient economic growth and poverty reduction over the period to allow some women the option to withdraw from economic activity. At the same time, there has been significant improvement in access to education in both countries so that many young women began to postpone work to stay in education. The country profile for Thailand in section 4 supports the proposal that the decrease was clearly driven by youth.

Box 3. Religious, cultural and social norms

It is interesting here to note that there is a widely-held belief that women's labour force participation is greatly influenced by religious and cultural norms. A nice overview is presented in *The Global Employment Challenge* (p. 16), which argues that evidence in fact suggests that the level of economic development and social rather than religious norms are equally relevant as determinants of female LFPR. There is no doubt that religion plays an important role, but it is important to remember that there are also other powerful forces at work.

Source: A.K. Ghose, N Majid and C. Ernst: *The Global Employment Challenge* (Geneva, ILO, 2008).

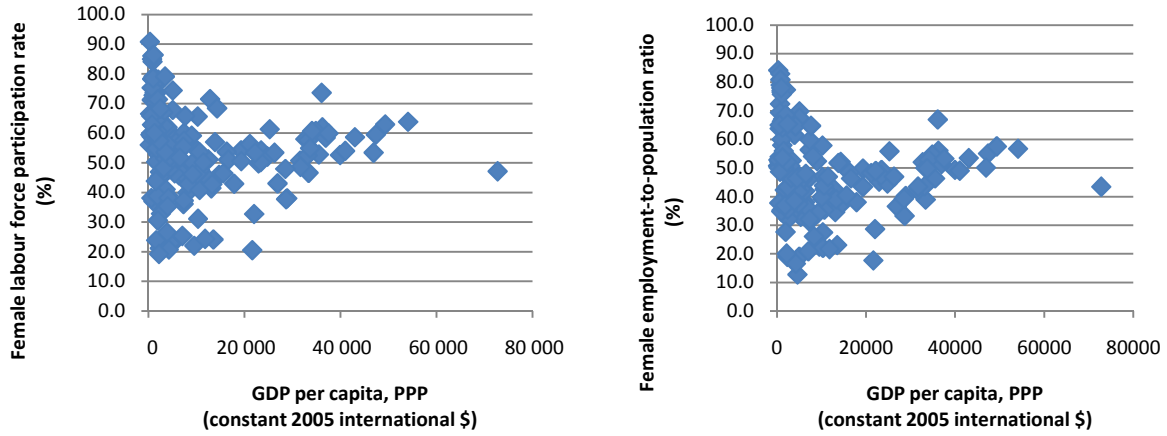
The income connection

- What is the correlation between female LFPR and the level of development in the country?

From a gender perspective, caution should be exercised in the interpretation of increasing LFPR, as there is a tendency to overestimate the positive nature of the trends. High or increasing labour force participation rates among women can be a reflection of growing levels of poverty in a country. As explained in the KILM, "Labour force participation rates tend to be highest in the poorest countries, where only a small proportion of the working-age population, including women and youth, can afford to remain outside of the labour force."[21] And following the same logic, in low-income countries and regions, nearly all persons in the labour force are working rather than unemployed. Large shares of the population work but remain poor, a phenomenon known as working poverty and a topic for discussion in box 5.

The correlation between income level, labour force participation and employment are confirmed in figure 6. A trend line on the two charts would show a slightly u-shaped pattern, revealing how LFPR is generally higher at the early stages of development (although there is a great deal of variety in rates among the poorer countries), possibly reflecting the existence of large, labour-intensive agriculture sectors and the existence of large shares of working poor in these countries. As gross domestic product (GDP) per capita increases, the LFPR of both men and women seems to initially decline, then levels off at the mid-level of development. The probable reason for the initial decline is the fact that, with economic growth, more children and youth attend school on a regular basis so that fewer of them are available for economic activity during periods of education. At the higher end of economic development, there is then a slight tapering off of economic participation.

Figure 6. The relationship between income (GDP per capita) and female LFPR and EPR, 2007



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 1a and appendix table A1.

[21] KILM 6th Edition, op. cit., KILM 1 manuscript, "Trends" section, p. 79.

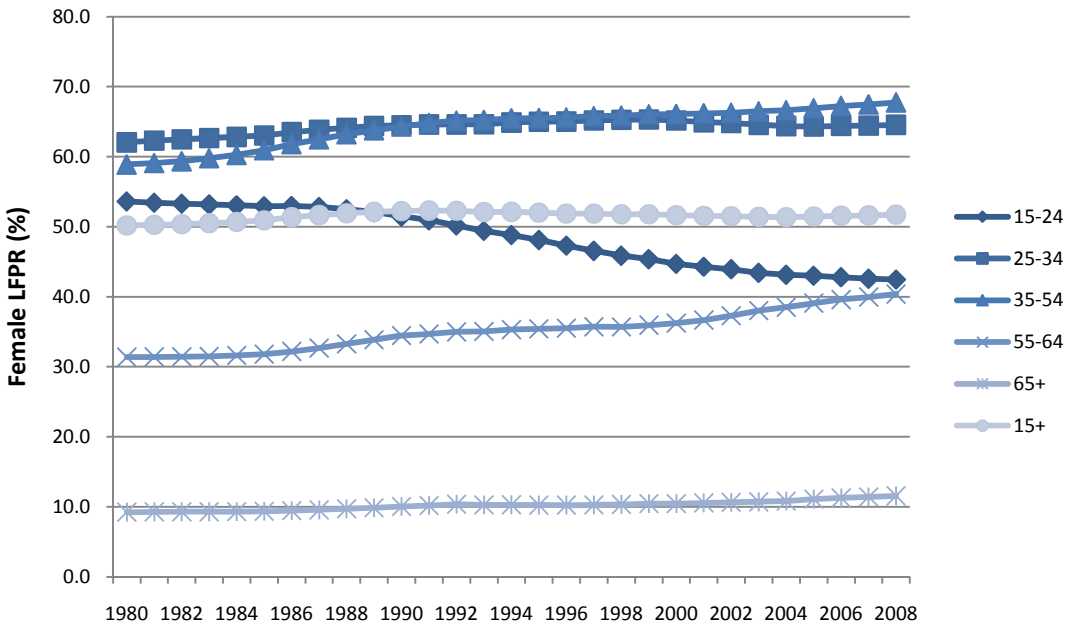
LFPR by life-span

- What are the patterns of LFPRs over the life-span of a woman and what is the influence of childbearing?

As stated above ("the historical view"), the global female LFPR grew in the 1980s from a starting point of 50.2 per cent, reached 52.2 per cent in 1990, but then declined between 1990 and 2008 to settle at 51.7 per cent in that period. Looking at the data disaggregated by age, it can be seen that the decline in the total female LFPR is entirely driven by the decline in the participation of youth, aged 15 to 24 years. The strong decrease in economic engagement among youth is largely a positive trend since it suggests that many more youth now have the choice to stay in education rather than enter the labour market. The ILO's *Global Employment Trends for Youth, October 2008* focused specifically on the relationship between declining youth participation rates and increased school enrolment, and found the two to be strongly negatively correlated in all regions of the world. It is instructive to also look at the labour force by educational attainment indicator (KILM 14). In general, there have been great gains in the area of female education, to the point that in some countries there are now higher shares of female labour force participants holding higher education degrees than male. Whether the education gains are leading to greater equity at the workplace and a better situation for women in general is a matter for discussion within section 3.3.6.

At the global level at least (remember the importance of also focusing analysis at the country level in order to determine national trends), female LFPRs have been increasing for all age groups except youth (aged 15-24 years). Since 2000, there seems to be an increasing tendency among older women to engage in labour market activities. In general, we expect labour force participation to be highest for both men and women during the "prime age" band of 25 to 54 years, and this is supported in figure 7 below. Women in the age bands of 25 to 34 years and 35 to 54 years were approximately 1.5 times more likely to participate in the labour force than women between 55 and 64 years in 2008.

Figure 7. Global female labour force participation rate by age band, 1980 to 2008



Note: Global figures are the sum of available country-level labour force data weighted by the summed working-age populations of the same countries.
Source: Authors' calculation based on KILM 6th Edition, table 1a.

It is interesting to see the pattern of female participation during the core child-bearing years (25-34 years) and in the years that follow (35-54 years). In the 1980s, there was slightly higher participation among the younger age band than the older but the pattern reversed around 1991 when women in the older age group became more likely to be economically active than the younger. The trend implies that a woman who might have fallen out of the labour force after having children in order to tend to the household – and the tendency seems to be stronger among women in the 35-54 age band than the 25-34 when families might not yet be established – re-entered the labour force after a certain point in time, perhaps when the children reached school age. For a full discussion of the influence of children on female labour force participation, readers are encouraged to review the KILM 3rd Edition.[22]

Indicator 3: Employment-to-population ratio (EPR) (KILM 2)

If the labour force represents the share of the working-age population that could be tapped for economic activity, the employment-to-population ratio represents the share of the same that actually *is* tapped, i.e. the share of utilized labour. The indicator in itself says nothing to the type, quality or volume of the work involved, which weakens attempts to make valuations of trends over time, but this weakness can be overcome by adding depth to a labour market analysis with additional employment indicators (such as employment by sector (KILM 4), status in employment (KILM 3) and others discussed in section 3.3).

The main ways in which we can view gender disparity in employment are (1) in terms of opportunities to take up work and (2) in terms of quality of employment.[23] With employment increases among women, at least among adult women, there is a tendency to overestimate the "gains" (as with female LFPR, see discussion above) in terms of opportunities, ignoring what this means in terms of the quality of employment and the equity element. More women are given (or take up) an opportunity to work but oftentimes it is in non-standard forms of work (see box 4). To overstate the gains in female employment is to ignore the difference in the composition of male and female employment. As we continue through this report, adding bit by bit the full range of employment indicators, it will become clear that the portraits of female and male employment are vastly different when it comes to elements of quality of employment, and it is generally the women who fare worse.

- What is the overall effect when youth and adult employment trends move in opposite directions?

The story regarding female EPRs is similar to that of the LFPR. Ratios have generally increased over time but remain at levels well below those of men. The share of women above the working age (15+) who are employed was 48.0 per cent in 2009 compared to a male EPR of 72.8 per cent. (See table 2d.) Both female and male ratios decreased slightly between 1999 and 2009 but more so for men. The patterns differ significantly by regions and across age groups, with the EPRs of young people decreasing significantly for both

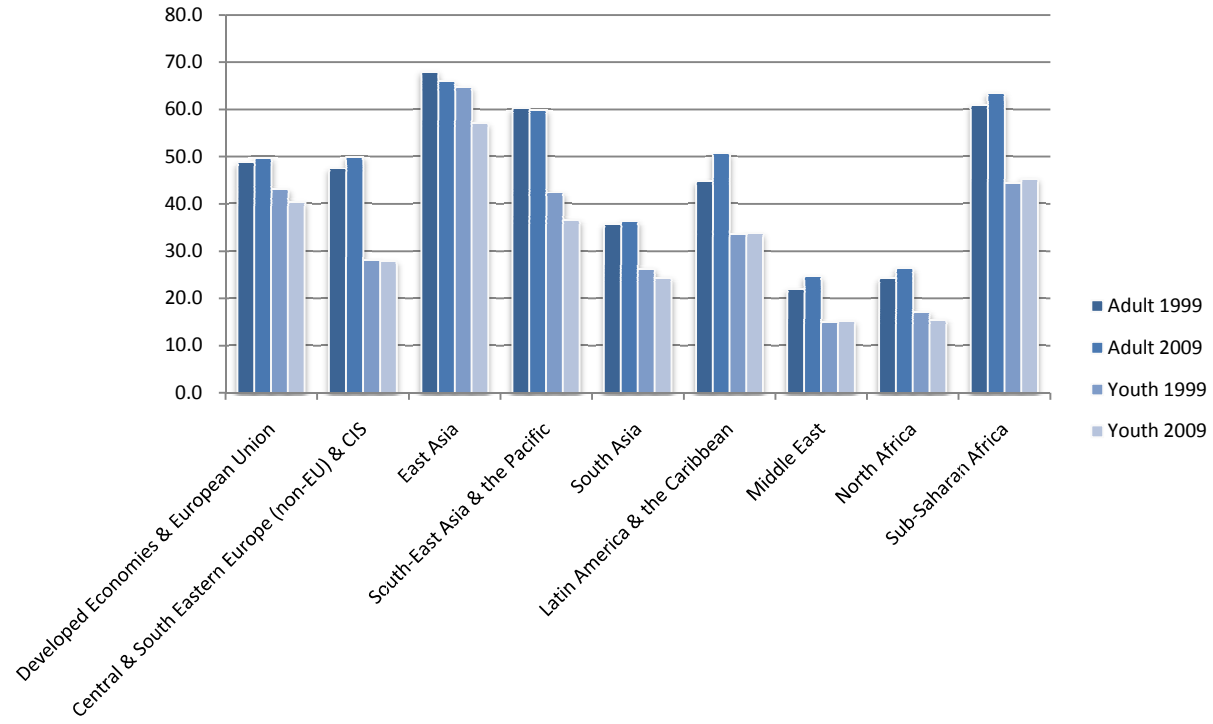
[22] ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 3rd Edition* (Geneva, 2003), Chapter 1, section B, "Female labour force participation rate and fertility".

[23] A.K. Ghose, N. Majid and C. Ernst: *The Global Employment Challenge* (Geneva, ILO, 2008).

sexes as more youth engage in education as an alternative to working[24] (see figure 8). In many countries, EPRs among female youth are decreasing while those of adults are increasing. There are exceptions (decreases among both youth and adults in East Asia, slight decrease among adults in South-East Asia & the Pacific, slight increase among youth in the Middle East and Sub-Saharan Africa) but for the most part, the two age cohorts behave in opposing manners, thus reminding us of the need to disaggregate indicators by age and to look carefully for diverging trends when conducting a labour market analysis. Which regions show the biggest increases in female EPRs?

The regional patterns of female EPR and the male-female gaps in employment will look familiar since they follow closely those of the LFPR. This makes sense given that it is employment that makes up the largest share of the labour force (see figure 1). Figure 9 shows the time trend 1991 to 2008 and the same kind of convergence to a median level that was discussed above in regards to the female LFPR. The biggest increases in female EPRs were seen in Latin American & the Caribbean, the Middle East and Africa. East Asia and South-East Asia & the Pacific showed decreases and the remaining regions showed little significant change. The factors that influence female EPRs are the same as those listed above in relation to the female LFPR. The influence of religious, cultural and social traditions is certainly one of the strongest factors behind female EPR trends (see box 3). Some of the other determinants, including reproductive choices, poverty and access to education were discussed in some detail above in connection to the LFPR, but it is worth repeating here that there are competing factors at play that can obscure the overall trends of female EPRs.

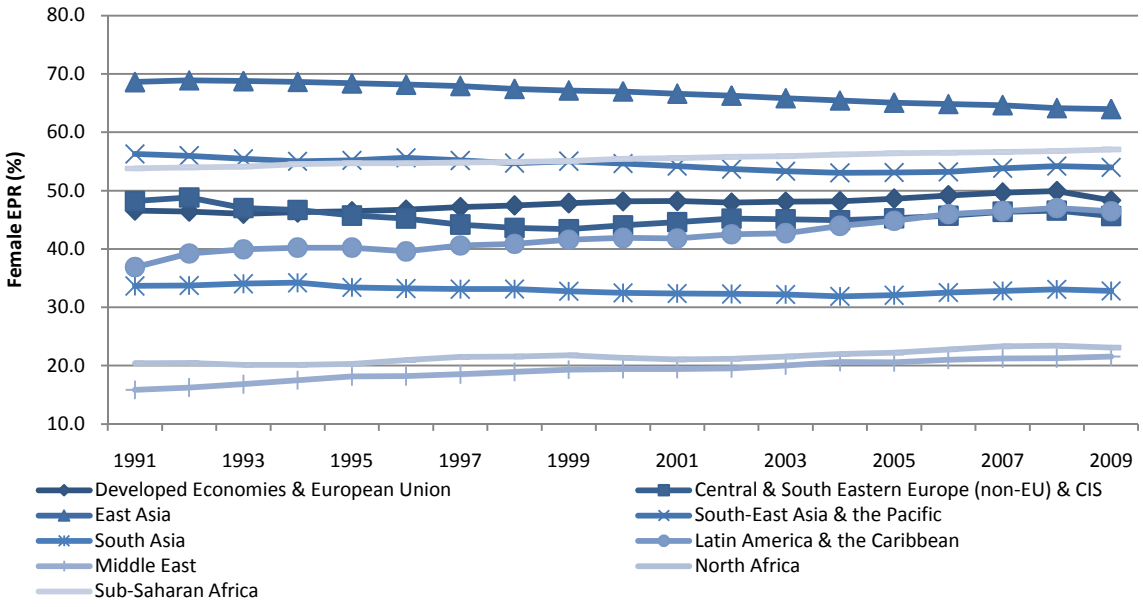
Figure 8. Youth and adult female EPR, by region, 1999 and 2009



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

[24] See ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Youth, October 2008* (Geneva, 2008); http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/pubs/lang--en/docName--WCMS_112573/index.htm; and KILM 6th Edition, op. cit., KILM 2 manuscript, "Trends" section, pp. 118-120.

Figure 9. Regional female employment-to-population ratios, 1991 to 2009



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

Box 4. Non-standard forms of work

Recent decades have seen a growing trend towards non-standard forms of work, with more part-time and temporary employment in developed economies and more informal employment in developing countries. Even formal work is becoming increasingly precarious with many enterprises relying on a labour force dominated by workers in atypical relationships (flexible, temporary, contract or home-based). There is a clear link between these less standard forms of work and income inequality, but to what extent is the growing prevalence of non-standard forms of work a reflection of choice or constraint? Since many of these jobs are held by females, one might assume that the "new" working arrangements provide a means of reconciling work and family responsibilities, at least in developed economies where the economic need is less desperate and females are more willing or able to accept the cost.

The following summarizes some of the trends over time with regards to non-standard forms of work:

Part-time employment
There has been a big increase in part-time employment in developed economies over the last 20 years, with shares much higher for women than men (see section 3.3.5 for more information).

The informal economy
Informal and formal work should not be understood as dichotomous, but as intimately linked and frequently overlapping. The ILC 2009 report on *Gender equality at the heart of decent work* noted that informal and formal work exists along a continuum, with informal work lying outside the regulatory framework. The informal economy includes both own-account workers and wage workers and cuts across all sectors. The informal sector has generally higher shares of females, although the lack of regular statistics on the topic makes it difficult to judge definitively (see section 3.3.4 for more information).

Home work
Home-based work can be a voluntary choice in developed countries. However, it is often a survival strategy in developing countries. Women engage in home work out of economic need and are forced to cope with the accompanying long hours, poor pay, limited access to social protection and associated safety and health problems. With globalization, home work is increasing, especially among women.

Source: ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, June 2009, pp. 111-117.

Country outliers

When looking at the regional numbers, the biggest male-female EPR gaps are seen in the Middle East, North Africa and South Asia (see table 2d in Annex 2). There are, however, some interesting cases found in the country-level data where the trends regarding female EPRs do not conform to the regional patterns. In East Asia, for example, the trend of decreasing female EPR is clearly driven by China, whereas all other economies in the region showed an increase over time (for example, Hong Kong, China, from 46.3 to 50.0 per cent over the period 1991 to 2008). Two countries whose female EPRs moved contrary to the regional trends are Sri Lanka in South Asia and the United Republic of Tanzania in Sub-Saharan Africa. These two countries were selected for profiling in section 4 in order to investigate the national circumstances there.

Indicator 4: Inactivity rate (KILM 13)

The inactivity rate represents the inverse of the LFPR and its trends. Where the female LFPR increases, the female inactivity rate decreases by the same amount, and vice versa. It is a measure of the share of the working-age population that is not working or seeking work. There are of course many reasons why some people do not participate in the labour force and not all of them necessarily reflect an unwillingness to work. Such persons can be sick, disabled, retired or studying; they may be caring for a family; or they may believe there are no jobs available. The latter category would qualify as "discouraged workers", assuming that they are also available for work.[25]

The share of women outside of the labour force remains the largest share in the distribution by main activity status in all regions but East Asia (see figure 2). Hence, its value as a gender-sensitive indicator is quite important and it merits careful scrutiny, both conceptually and numerically. Care should also be taken to be aware of an intuitive gender bias that can permeate the discussion of this indicator. Readers are cautioned to remember that "a high inactivity rate for certain populations should not necessarily be viewed as 'bad': for instance, a relatively high inactivity rate for women aged 25 to 34 years may be due to their leaving the labour force to attend to family responsibilities such as childbearing and childcare." In many countries, women can freely choose to stay at home because they can afford to not enter the labour market or prefer to tend to the household. Yet in some lesser-developed regions of the world, remaining outside of the labour force is not a choice for the majority of women but an obligation; it is likely that women would opt to work in these regions if it became socially acceptable to do so. This of course does not mean that these women remain at home doing nothing; most are heavily engaged in household activities. Regardless, since these responsibilities are not shared equally by men (although patterns are changing, particularly among developed economies), and currently no measurable economic value exists for such activities in the current system of national accounting (as discussed in boxes 1 and 11), an inadvertent negative attitude toward female inactivity persists.

Trends in female inactivity rates are not examined in greater detail here because they can be presumed to be the opposite of those of female LFPRs. Perhaps the most important finding related to the indicator is that more than six in ten women remain economically inactive in three regions: South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. (See table 2b.)

[25] The "available to work" criteria is not consistently applied in national definitions of discouraged workers.

3.2 Labour underutilization

3.2.1 The search for additional indicators

The labour force framework was not designed to make fine distinctions regarding the level of utilization, which poses challenges when it comes to the interpretative value of the indicators. The "buts" listed in table 1 identify the limitations of the indicators. Some are considered too broad and others too narrow. Employment, for example, is intended to measure the entire employed population from anyone working for over one hour per week. It includes certain categories of unpaid workers and covers both the formal and informal sectors; hence, it is a broad measure, and sometimes criticized as overly inclusive. Unemployment, on the other hand, measures only a total lack of work (everyone who does not work, is available to work and is actively seeking work) and is often criticized for being too narrow. In fact, numerous developing countries have already taken the decision to forgo the actively seeking criterion and thus report on what is known as "relaxed" unemployment.

The study of labour economics has become more refined today thanks in part to the "decent work" advocacy campaign of the ILO; policy-makers and researchers start to be interested in the ability of a country to provide not just employment for its working-age population, but sufficient (in volume) and decent (in conditionality) employment. Adding such an adjective (or adjectives) to the employment goal calls for renewed attention to defining the "grey area" of labour utilization – the area of underutilization.

Labour statisticians are taking up the challenge in a "working group on labour underutilization" following the recommendations of the ICLS. The objectives of the group are to come to agreement on the measurement of various forms of labour underutilization relating to sub-categories of employment (time-related underemployed, employed with low earnings, employed with underutilized skills) and inactivity (discouraged workers, other inactive persons available for work). Table 2 summarizes the additional components that may be covered in a broader concept of labour underutilization. These components and the indicators derived from them are a work in progress and not yet approved at the international level.

In a submission to the ICLS, the ILO Department of Statistics undertook an initial exercise in producing a broader indicator of labour utilization based on the components (a-e) listed in table 2, for a sample of countries and examining its added value. The paper shows that unemployment is, in fact, a relatively small part of labour underutilization, in some cases reaching less than 10 per cent, and that countries with low unemployment are more affected by other forms of underutilization. Conversely, countries with high unemployment rates are less affected by other forms.

As an indicator, the labour underutilization rate should make a very useful addition to the repertoire of labour market information for gender analysis. The assumption is that the new measure of labour underutilization of women would prove to be significantly higher than that of men, and the data produced in the pilot exercise strongly supports the assumption. In most of the countries analysed, one finds a larger difference between the results of the traditional unemployment rate and the new labour underutilization rate for women than men. So, while women already appeared to be the disadvantaged sex when looking at underutilization measured by unemployment alone, adding in the other elements of labour underutilization to the new measure makes the inequality even more clear (see table 3).

Table 2. Components of labour underutilization: "Refined" labour force framework

Component	Definition	General interpretation ("what does it indicate?")
Time-related underemployed (a)	Employed persons working less than a specified number of hours, who are willing and available to work more hours	Underutilization of the productive capacity of the employed population in terms of hours of work
Employed with low earnings (b)	(1) Full time workers whose total monthly earnings were below a specified threshold; (2) Persons working less than full-time with low hourly earnings; and (3) Persons working more than the typical number of hours for full-time work with low earnings	Inadequate earnings
Employed with underutilized skills (c)	Employed persons in jobs with skill requirements that are below the persons' educational level	Underutilization of the productive capacity of the employed population in terms of use of skills (the return on investment in their education and training is somewhat wasted)
Discouraged workers (d)	Persons not economically active who were available for work, had sought work over the past six-month period but did not actively seek work during the last four weeks because of their discouragement from past failure in finding work	Underutilization of the productive potential of an economy due to discouragement in the job search
Other inactives available for work (e)	Persons not economically active who were available for work but did not actively seek work during the last four weeks for reasons other than discouragement	Underutilization of the productive potential of an economy due to other reasons than discouragement (not knowing where or how to look for work, for example)
Labour underutilization	The sum of components (a) through (e) above + Unemployed (see table 1)	The degree of inadequate exchange between the supply and demand of labour

Table 3. Labour underutilization rate versus unemployment rate, seven available countries

Country	Date	Sex	Unemployment rate (%)	Labour underutilization rate (%)	Percentage point difference
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2006	Male	29.8	51.5	21.7
		Female	35.8	62.7	26.9
Mexico	2007Q2	Male	3.2	28.4	25.2
		Female	3.7	33.1	29.4
Moldova, Republic of	2007	Male	6.3	48.5	42.2
		Female	3.9	44.2	40.3
Panama	Aug. 2007	Male	4.4	42.2	37.8
		Female	7.8	50.0	42.2
Philippines	2003Q4	Male	5.6	36.1	30.5
		Female	6.0	48.2	42.2
Tanzania, United Republic of	2005/2006	Male	2.2	48.2	46.0
		Female	4.5	56.2	51.7
Turkey	2007	Male	9.8	27.4	17.6
		Female	10.2	36.3	26.1

Source: ILO: *Beyond Unemployment: Measurement of Other Forms of Labour Underutilization*, Room document 13, 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva, 24 November-5 December 2008.

Currently, the only elements of labour underutilization that exist within the framework of the KILM are the unemployment rate and the time-related underemployment rate. The trends for both are presented in section 3.2.2.

The concept of the "working poor", presented in KILM 20, is quite different from what is intended as the labour underutilization component "employed with low earnings" in its measurement approach and objectives (namely, the foreseen measure of inadequate income calls for income received directly from a job whereas working poverty takes household income as its base). The KILM indicator is also not currently disaggregated by sex, hence, disqualifying it as a gender indicator; however, an ongoing work item within the KILM programme relates to making use of alternative sources of information for working poverty that allow for disaggregation along a number of elements, including sex. An initial examination of some gender differences in the numbers are summarized in box 5.

Box 5. Working poverty by sex

The ILO, in cooperation with the World Bank, has recently expanded its efforts to analyse the linkages between employment and poverty with an aim of producing an international repository of national working poverty estimates based on household surveys instead of estimates derived from macroeconomic models. This effort and its rationale are analysed in Chapter 1, section B, in the KILM 6th edition ("Analysing poverty-employment linkages with household surveys: Towards an international working poverty database"). The main disadvantages of the "macro"-based working poverty estimates, on which the current estimates in KILM table 20 are based, are the over-simplified assumptions applied regarding the linkages between poverty and economic activity, the lack of disaggregation and the difficulties in applying country-level monitoring. The new "micro" methodology offers more reliable estimates disaggregated by various population groups and can be reproduced by countries in the production of their own national estimates for self-monitoring and analysis.

The KILM summarizes an initial analysis of some pilot data, finding that in seven of the eight countries analysed, the female working poverty rate was higher than the corresponding male rate, but only slightly. For example, in Burundi (1998), which had the highest working poverty rate (85.4 per cent), the female working poverty rate was 86.3 per cent compared to 84.3 per cent for men. The largest gender differences between the working poverty rates were found in Congo, Mali and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (with the full range of difference between 1.1 percentage points in Benin to 6.9 percentage points in Congo). Only in Niger (2005) was the male working poverty rate higher than the corresponding female rate, by 1.6 percentage points.

The "new" working poverty data set will appear as a new table in the KILM by mid-2010.

3.2.2 Trends in the underutilization of female labour

Indicator 5: Unemployment rate (KILM 8)

The unemployment rate is a widely used measure of the underutilized labour supply and provides a general reflection of the performance of the labour market and economy as a whole. It should not necessarily be used to infer economic hardship for the unemployed person but simply as the failure to find work. Critics recognize that focusing on unemployment alone (unfortunately, there seems to be a myopic focus on such in the media and in the political arena despite the fact that the share of the unemployed in the working-age population is "only" 3.6 per cent globally for women, and at most 5.5 per cent regionally; see figures 1 and 2) can result in a situation in which other areas of labour slack are ignored. This then results in the undercounting of the underutilized human resources of a country. Recognizing that there is not yet sufficient country-level information to analyse in depth the broader measure of labour underutilization, this section proceeds with an analysis of the only readily-available measure of persons who are without work, available to work and actively seeking work, i.e. the unemployed as defined in the standard labour

force framework.[26] A word of caution before proceeding: as an indicator, the unemployment rate (the number of persons unemployed as a percentage of the labour force) is more relevant to economies above a certain level of development, as poor people often cannot afford not to work (see "income connection" above in section 3.1.3).

- Are women more likely to be unemployed than men?

In the majority of countries with available data, unemployment rates (URs) were higher for females than males (113 countries out of 152). A review of the latest available country data in KILM table 8a (latest years after 2000), reveals the following:

- 9 countries where female URs exceeded males by more than 10 percentage points;
- 21 countries where female URs exceeded male URs by between 4.9 and 10 percentage points;
- 56 countries where female URs exceeded male URs by between 0.9 and 5 percentage points;
- 27 countries where female URs exceeded male URs by between 0.1 and 1 percentage point;
- 39 countries where male URs exceeded female URs by between 0 and 4.7 percentage points.

Six regions are represented in the list of economies with the highest unemployment gaps: Latin America & the Caribbean (Dominican Republic), Central & South-Eastern Europe (Kosovo), the Middle East (Jordan and Syrian Arab Republic), North Africa (Egypt), South Asia (Maldives) and Sub-Saharan Africa (Ethiopia, Mauritania and Sao Tome and Principe). On the other side, there is also a wide regional distribution seen in the countries where male rates exceeded female rates.

- What are the barriers that lead to female unemployment; is gender-based discrimination among them?

The explanations generally suggested for the higher unemployment rates for women are numerous. The KILM manuscript for the indicator suggests that "women are more likely than men to exit and re-enter the workforce for family reasons; there is a general 'crowding' of females into fewer occupations than men"; and of course the gender inequalities operating outside the labour market and embedded in societal attitudes. However, further studies also show that the gender-based differences in unemployment rates tend to be among the more educated workers in the majority of countries, and gender differences are lower among the less educated.[27] The unemployment by level of educational attainment indicator (KILM 14) is discussed in section 3.3.6.

The *GET for Women*, 2008, also offers an interesting explanation, at least for the higher female unemployment rates in the North Africa region (looking at the female-male unemployment rate gap by region, available as table 2c in Annex 2, we find that the gap is consistently the highest in this region and the Middle East, followed by Latin America & the Caribbean):

[26] It is important to note that many national definitions of unemployment exclude persons who want to work but do not actively seek work.

[27] KILM 6th Edition, op. cit., KILM 8 manuscript.

> The cause of high female unemployment rates in the region is twofold. On the one hand, some employers openly give preference to male jobseekers and, on the other hand, the women that have gained access to education often do not wish to take up the types of job that are available to them. Some employers do actually prefer female workers, but the jobs offered are low-skilled and low-paid. The overall result is that some women will remain unemployed while waiting for the "right" job (with some holding out for public sector work) and other women – the majority – have little choice but to fall outside of the labour force.[28]

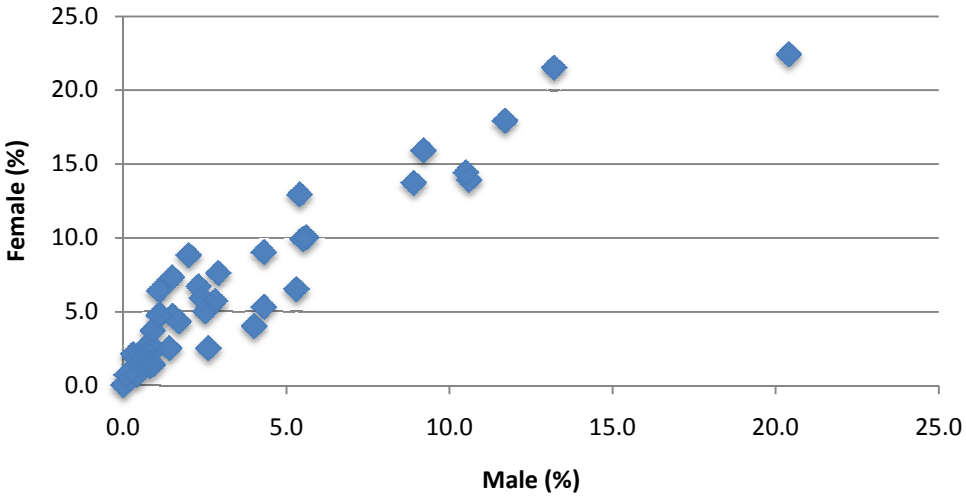
Long-term unemployment (seeking work for over one year) (KILM 10) is related to the personal characteristics of the unemployed, and high rates of long-term unemployment indicate serious problems for certain groups of the population, for example, older or unskilled workers. Are women among them? The majority of countries with available data showed higher incidences of long-term unemployment for males than females, probably because women would give up on the job search earlier than men and would thus fall into another indicator[29] (see figure 10a in the KILM 6th Edition). If data were systematically available on persons who are not working, available to work but not actively seeking work (the category of persons reintroduced to produce a "relaxed" unemployment rate; see section 3.2.1 for more information), one might find greater support for the assumption that it is women who give up the job search sooner than men.

Indicator 6: Time-related underemployment (KILM 12)

- Are women more likely to be (time-related) underemployed than men?
- Is time-related underemployment a significant issue in many countries?

Women bear a significantly larger burden of the only currently available measure of underemployment, time-related underemployment, with an overrepresentation in almost all countries with data (55 countries in total) (see figure 10).

Figure 10. Incidence of time-related underemployment by sex, latest years (after 1999)



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 12.

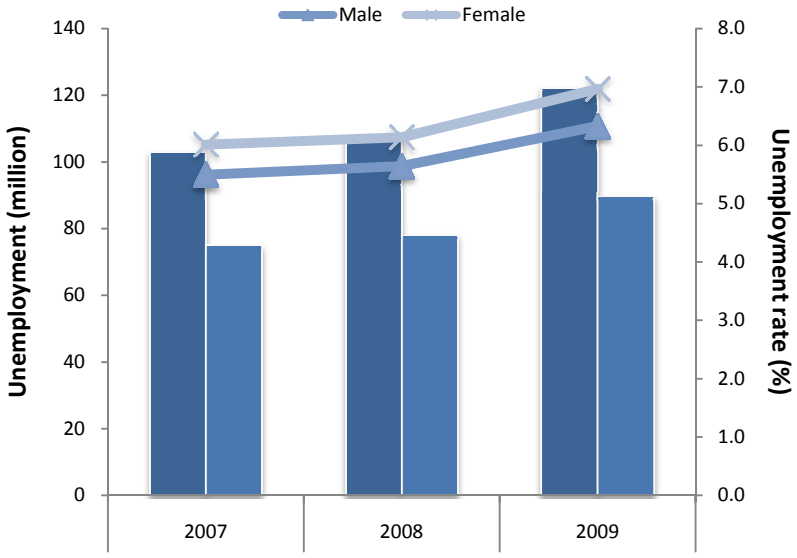
[28] ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Women, March 2008* (Geneva, 2008), p. 8.

[29] Data for this indicator in the KILM are almost exclusively for countries in the Developed Economies & European Union grouping, with limited coverage in CEE, Central America and the Caribbean.

Box 6. The current economic crisis and the gender impact (1): A gender balance in job loss?

The GET 2010 report focuses heavily on the current economic crisis with a section specific to the gender impact. It concludes that the economic crisis on the global level has impacted women and men more or less equally, resulting in very little difference in the gap in unemployment rates by sex between the 2007 and 2009 period. The global female unemployment rate increased from 6.0 per cent in 2007 to 7.0 per cent (1.0 percentage points) in 2009, slightly more than the male rate which rose from 5.5 to 6.3 per cent (0.8 percentage points).[1] The following figure shows the global and regional patterns over the three-year period for both men and women. The male and female trend lines for the unemployment rates seem to move almost in perfect parallel.

Global unemployment, numbers and rates, by sex, 2007-09



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

There were negligible increases in the male-female unemployment rate gaps in all regions but Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, where there was a positive gap (meaning the male rate exceeded the female rate already in 2008) that widened slightly in 2009, and East Asia and South-East Asia & the Pacific where there was no change. The largest increases in unemployment for both women and men – both the rates and nominal values – were in the regions of the Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS and Latin America & the Caribbean. Only in one region, the Middle East, did the nominal number of unemployed women increase more than the corresponding increase in male unemployment. As a result, the female unemployment rate increased from 14.4 to 15.0 per cent between 2007 and 2009 while the male rate remained constant at 7.7 per cent.

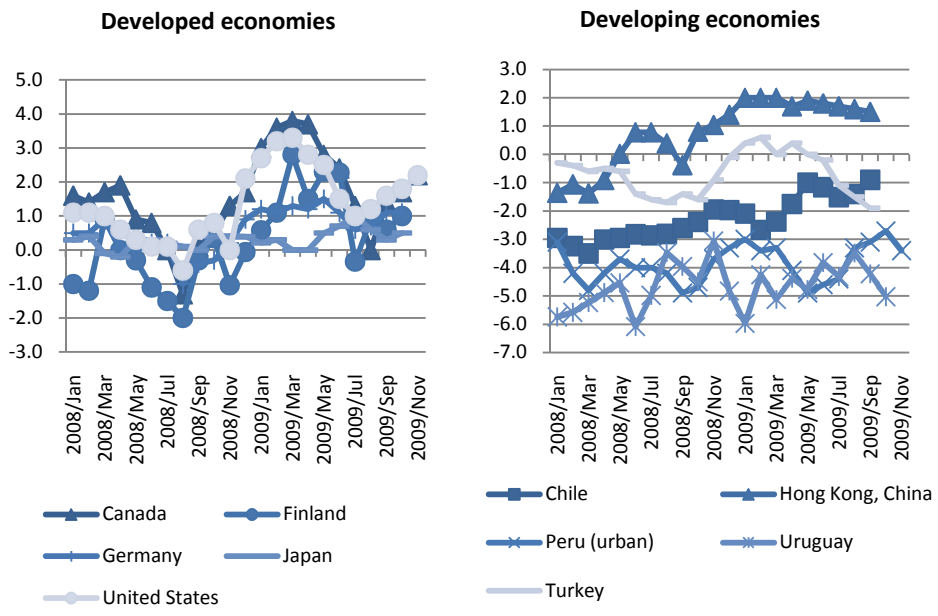
Do we see any more obvious gender impacts at the country level? The following figures show the female-male gaps in unemployment rates over monthly intervals between pre-crisis January 2008 and crisis period November 2009, with separate charts for selected countries in developed and developing economies. Among countries in the latter group, while there were certainly month-to-month variations, the unemployment gaps by sex have so far been more or less immune to the crisis. An exception is Hong Kong, China, being the only country shown to shift from a negative gap to a positive one, meaning that the male unemployment rate surpassed that of females, over the period. There also seems to be a slight narrowing of the gap occurring in Chile. But in general, neither men nor women in developing countries are being impacted to a greater extent than the other, at least in terms of job losses. In the developed economies, where the crisis impact has been relatively larger, there did seem to be a short period between approximately August 2008 and April 2009 when it looked like the job crisis was mainly a male one (see particularly Canada, Finland and the United States). But this trend and the related increases in the gap in unemployment rates by sex have been reversed in more recent months.

[1] 2009 unemployment rates are preliminary estimates based on a point estimate methodology utilizing available monthly and quarterly 2009 rates. A detailed description of the estimation methodology is available in *GET 2010*, Annex 4.

(cont.)

Box 6 (cont.)

Gap in monthly unemployment rate by sex (male-female), selected developed and developing economies, January 2008 to November 2009



Source: ILO LABORSTA database, "Main statistics (monthly): unemployment general level"; http://laborsta.ilo.org .

What seems to have happened is that the initial impact of the crisis hit the manufacturing, financial and construction sectors hard, the domain of predominantly male workers in developed countries. It was men in manufacturing that were among the first to experience job cuts. But the impact of the crisis and associated job losses have since expanded to other sectors, including service sectors where women are mainly employed (see section 3.3.3). Which brings us to an important point − the crisis impact on jobs is highly dependent on the sectoral distribution of employment. If the sectors that were hardest hit by the crisis were male-dominated sectors, then the unemployment numbers of males should rise faster than women, and vice-versa for female-dominated sectors. Box 7 looks more specifically at the influence of gender sectoral segregation on crisis outcomes.

As stated in the KILM 6th Edition, "Overlooking the underemployment component could also be misleading. While not technically unemployed, the underemployed are often competing for available hours of work and jobs. Because of the way in which unemployment figures are defined and measured (namely, the "main" activity of the respondent determines the resulting classification into employed, unemployed and inactive), these workers will not be included even though they may regard themselves as unemployed and may be actively seeking other work while currently employed. Consequently, a clearer picture of the underutilization of the productive potential of the country's labour force can be gained by adding the number of underemployed to the number of unemployed as a share of the overall labour force." Note that the new developments around the measure of labour underutilization, discussed in the previous section, would do exactly this.

Ignoring underemployment can lead to an underestimation of labour underutilization but also an overestimation in the valuation of employment gains. If an increase in employment is driven by an increase in the underemployed then the claims made for gains in female employment must take this into account. Since females bear the larger burden, the implications are significant.

In interpreting the data, one cannot help but consider the causal direction of growing incidences of labour underutilization of women. Is the relationship driven by the desire of women for less rigid work that offers greater possibility for family balance despite less hours and lower pay, or are they responding to the constraints of a discriminatory labour market where access to standard forms of work are limited? Either way the result is the same, women are valued (at least in the economic sense) less than men. This discussion will continue in relation to part-time work and the gender wage differentials in sections 3.3.5 and 3.3.7 below.

3.3 Female employment: Where and how women work

3.3.1 Introduction

This section looks at the structure of female (and occasionally male) employment in order to identify the different dynamics emerging. The focus will be on identifying what the increase in female labour force participation over time has really meant in terms of the well-being of women in the world of work. There have certainly been gains for women in their growing economic empowerment but there have also been costs. The portrait of the modern working woman will feed the final section 3.4 that summarizes a "new" gender gap. There has certainly been progress in narrowing the gender gap when it comes to engagement in economic activity but what does the male-female gap look like when it comes to accessing decent work? We should have a better idea after the following analysis of six additional employment-related measures. As stated in the KILM:

> The importance of employment indicators should come as no surprise to analysts of labour markets, since employment and the lack of it (where employment is the goal) are largely what labour market policies are all about. It is not sufficient, however, to discuss the quantity of employment alone, especially given the ILO's framework of the decent work agenda … which brings quality aspects of employment into the picture. To better assess working conditions, one needs to understand that the underlying concept of work is broad and encompasses all forms of economic activity, including self-employment, economic unpaid family work and wage employment in both the informal and formal sectors.

The indicators in this section will be examined to answer the following questions relating to where and how women work:

- Where are the main areas of difference between male and female employment statuses?
- Is there a higher likelihood for women than men to fall into vulnerable employment?
- What are the main sectors for female employment and what does this mean in terms of female welfare and gender equality?
- Do data support claims of a feminization of the informal sector?
- What are the trends regarding part-time employment and why is it so strongly a female domain in developed economies?
- Is part-time employment an opportunity or a cost for women?
- What is the educational distribution of the female labour force and how does it differ from that of men?
- In which occupations is there closer pay equity? Does the skills level of the occupation play a role?
- Are there obvious wage differences between male-dominated and female-dominated occupations?

3.3.2 Indicator 7: Status in employment (KILM 3)

The basic criterion for defining categories of status in employment is the assessment of economic risk/level of financial security of the worker that results as an explicit or implicit consequence of the type of employment contract and the strength of the institutional attachment between the person and the job.[30] The International Classification for Status in Employment (ICSE) defines the following three broad categories of status:[31]

(1) wage and salaried workers (employees);

(2) self-employed workers; and

(3) contributing family workers (unpaid).

There are three subgroups of the self-employed: (a) employers (i.e. self-employed with employees); (b) own-account workers (self-employed without employees); and (c) members of producers' cooperatives. Employment structures in terms of status are a strong indication of a country's level of development, and the traditional view is that a structural labour market transformation will accompany economic growth with shrinking numbers of low-income, largely rural and informal workers and growing numbers of higher-income wage and salaried workers. A high proportion of wage and salaried workers tends to indicate advanced economic development while large shares of contributing family workers and own-account workers tend to indicate low economic development and high levels of poverty.[32] The latter two statuses (own-account workers and contributing family workers) are added together as a measure of "vulnerable employment". The definition of vulnerable employment was an ILO response to the need to select indicators that measure a new employment-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) target, "to achieve full and decent employment for all, including women and young people".[33]

Figure 11 shows the distribution of male and female employment by status in employment in 2009. The gender differences are vast (as are the implications), as summarized here:

Wage and salaried workers: The global proportion of wage and salaried workers looks reasonably equal between males and females. The global shares were 47.3 per cent for women and 48.6 per cent for men in 2009,[34] compared to 42.8 and 44.9 per cent for women and men in 1999, respectively (see table 2f in Annex 2 for the additional 1999 data). The regional figures show the clear correlation with level of economic development.

[30] KILM 6th Edition, op. cit., KILM 3 manuscript, p. 145.

[31] http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/icsee.html.

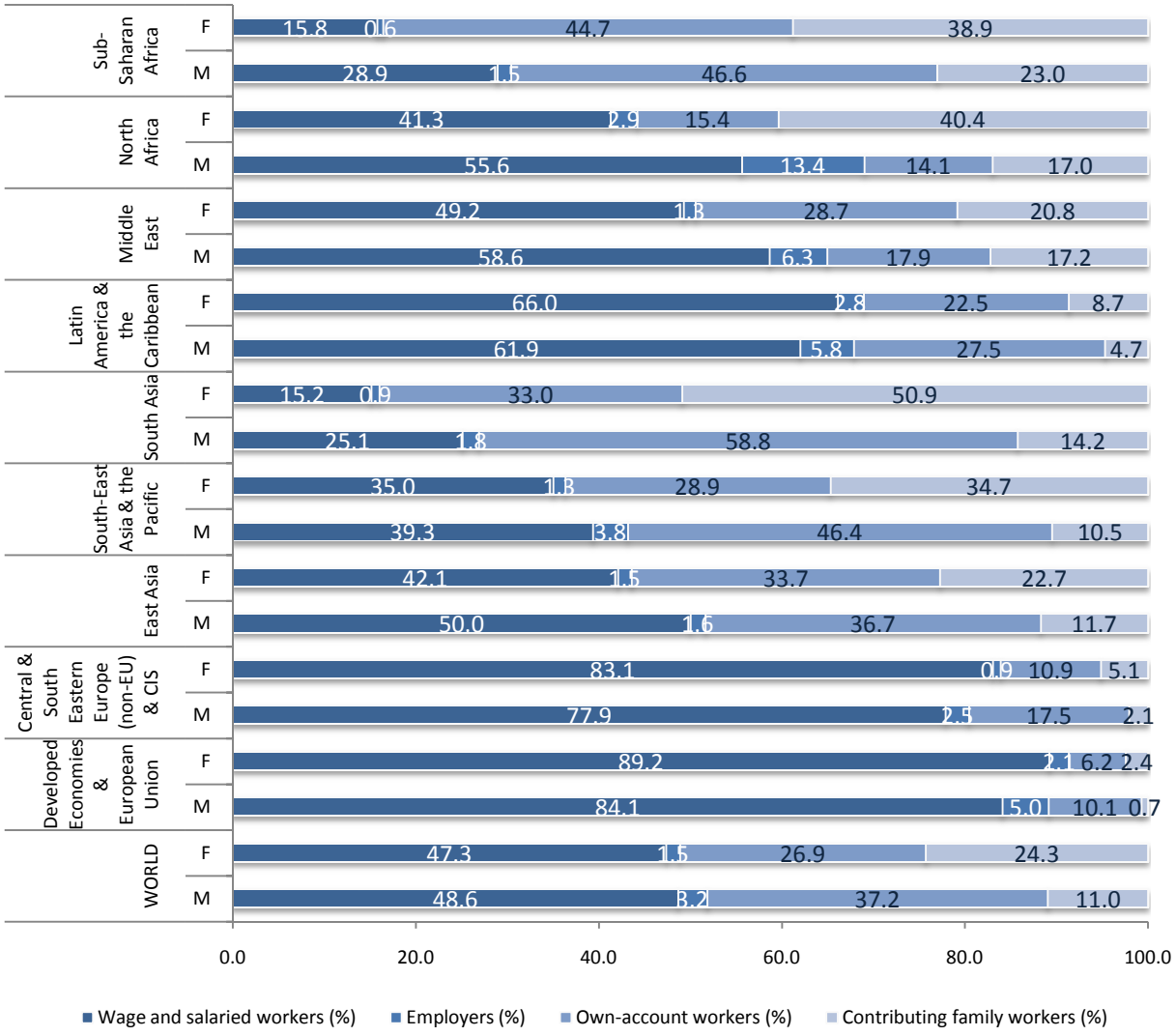
[32] See discussion around figures 3a and 3b in the KILM 3 manuscript, KILM 6th Edition, op. cit.

[33] Recognizing that decent work for all is central to addressing poverty and hunger, the UN Millennium Development Goal 1 now includes a target to "achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people". For a full history on the MDG target and information regarding the indicators selected for monitoring progress, see ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 4th Edition* (Geneva, 2007), Chapter 1, section A, "Decent employment and the Millennium Development Goals: Description and analysis of the new target".

[34] 2009 status in employment shares are preliminary estimates based on a methodology that applies different projection methods (scenarios) to existing data. The 2009 estimates shown in this report are based on a middle scenario, generated on the basis of the relationship between economic growth and vulnerable employment during the worst observed economic downturn in each country. Full details on the estimation methodology are provided in *GET 2010*, Annex 4.

Shares of total employment in wage and salaried work remained low in developing regions such as East Asia (46.4 per cent), South-East Asia & the Pacific (37.5 per cent), South Asia (22.3 per cent) and Sub-Saharan Africa (23.2 per cent). Regionally, in the Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, and Latin America & the Caribbean, the proportions of women in wage and salaried employment were slightly higher than the corresponding male shares. All other regions have higher male shares.

Figure 11. Global and regional distribution of total employment by status, by sex, 2009[35]



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

Employers: Men have a greater tendency than women to be the owner of a business with employees. North Africa and the Middle East showed the biggest gaps in male and female shares (10.5 and 5.0 percentage points, respectively), but Latin America & the Caribbean and the Developed Economies & European Union also showed significant gaps (3.0 and 2.9 percentage points). The smallest gaps were in East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

[35] 2009 estimates are preliminary. See footnote 34 for details.

Own-account workers: The regional patterns are diverse, but all regions except North Africa and the Middle East showed greater proportions of males in own-account work. More than one-fourth of both working women and men were eking out a living through self-employment in East Asia, Latin America & the Caribbean, the Middle East, South-East Asia & the Pacific, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the shares were as high as 46.6 and 44.7 per cent for men and women, respectively.

Contributing family workers: Figure 11 illustrates both the large regional differences as well as the enormous differences between male and female workers in terms of the share of contributing (unpaid) family workers. As an indicator, it is less relevant to the more developed economies, particularly those in the Developed Economies & European Union region. The picture for all regions of Asia is particularly striking with a much higher proportion of females in unpaid family work than males. After Asia, Africa and the Middle East showed the biggest differences.

- Where are the main areas of difference between male and female employment statuses?

Gender differences are not so significant when it comes to shares in wage and salaried work. There are large gender differences in shares of employers by sex but the overall importance of this status to overall employment is small (no more than 13.4 and 2.9 per cent for males and females, respectively, in North Africa). The most significant gaps are found in the statuses of own-account workers (higher for men) and contributing family workers (higher for women). Both statuses are sub-categories of "vulnerable employment", as stated above. What makes these workers more vulnerable? In general, own-account workers and contributing family workers are less likely to have formal work arrangements, access to benefits or social protection programmes. Thus, they are more "at risk" to economic cycles and poverty.[36]

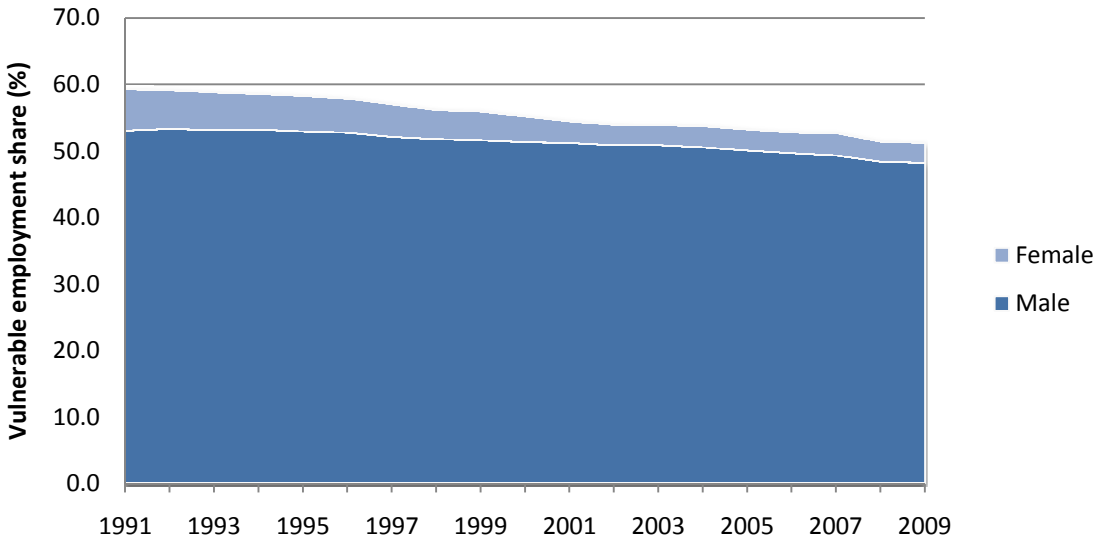
- Is there a higher likelihood for women than men to fall into vulnerable employment?

With own-account work as more of a male domain and contributing family work as a female domain, it is interesting to see where the overall balance rests when it comes to the share of employed persons in vulnerable employment (also called the vulnerable employment share). The time trends of male and female shares are shown in figure 12. The data show that, at the global level, women are slightly more likely than men to be in vulnerable employment but, over time, the gap between the sexes has been shrinking. Vulnerable employment shares are decreasing over time for both men and women, but at a faster pace for women. Between 1999 and 2009, the female share in vulnerable employment declined from 55.9 to 51.2 per cent while the male share declined from 51.6 to 48.2 per cent. To generalize, in low-income countries where job creation in the formal sector is a rare phenomenon, there is a strong tendency for both women and men to engage in self-employment activities; but at least the majority of self-employed men have the possibility of earning income for their efforts while 47.4 per cent of women (compared to 22.7 per cent of men) in the vulnerable employment category still received no direct pay as contributing family workers in 2009.[37]

[36] ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Women, October 2008* (Geneva, 2008), p. 3. The report also reminds us that "The indicator is not without its limitations; some wage and salaried workers might also carry high economic risk [see discussion related to informal employment in section 3.3.4] and some own-account workers might be quite well-off and not vulnerable at all."

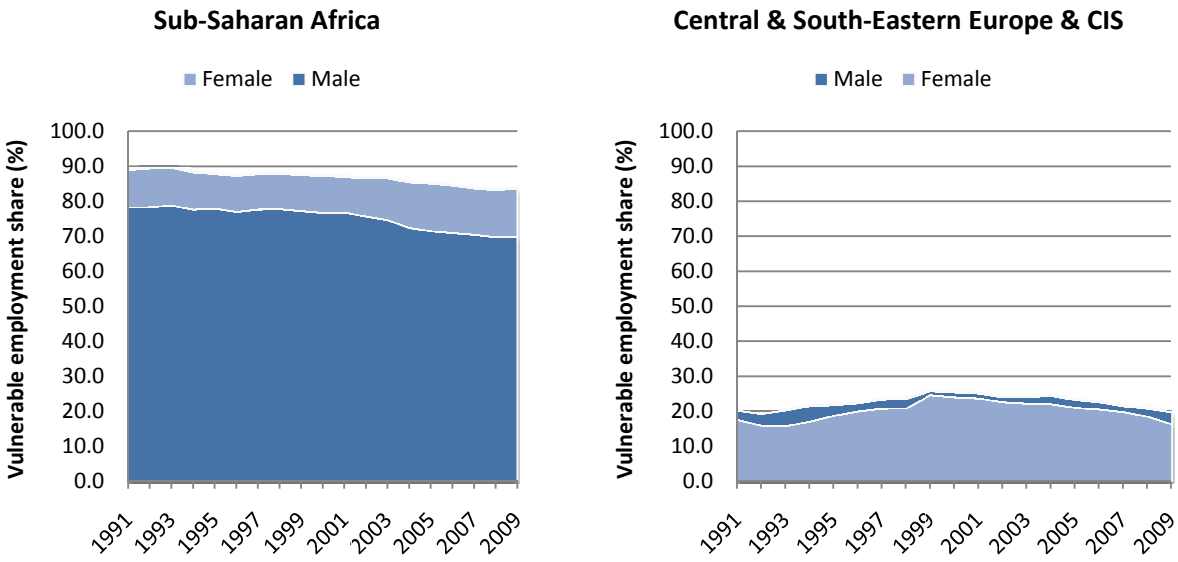
[37] Indeed, in many instances where women are engaged in unpaid work on their small landholdings, they are denied even the right to own the land that they work. UNIFEM report that "even in countries where women constitute the majority of small farmers and do more than 75 percent of the

Figure 12. Global shares of vulnerable employment in total employment, by sex, 1991 to 2009[38]



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

Figure 13. Shares of vulnerable employment in total employment in Sub-Saharan Africa and Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, by sex, 1991 to 2009[39]



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

agricultural work, they are routinely denied the right to own the land they cultivate and on which they are dependent to raise their families". UNIFEM: "Women's Land & Property Rights"; http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/women_poverty_economics/land_property_rights.php.

[38] 2009 estimates are preliminary. See footnote 34 for details.

[39] 2009 estimates are preliminary. See footnote 36 for details.

Now, let us contrast the trends in vulnerable employment in two diverse regions. Figure 13 shows the male and female shares in vulnerable employment in the two regions, Sub-Saharan Africa and Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS. What is interesting here is first, the difference in the size of the shares, with shares of workers in vulnerable employment approximately four times higher in Sub-Saharan Africa compared to Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS. Second, the gender patterns are reversed, with a stronger female tendency toward vulnerable employment in Sub-Saharan Africa and a slightly stronger male tendency in Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS.

3.3.3 Indicator 8: Employment by sector (KILM 4)

Information on the distribution of employment according to three broad sectoral groupings – agriculture, industry and services – is given in KILM table 4a and the more-detailed 1-digit sectoral breakdowns are available in tables 4b and 4c.[40] The information on employment by sector can be used in the design of economic and social policies, for example, by ranking employment growth by sector when considering the development of targeted sectoral policies. It is also an important indicator of economic development and shows significant disparity in sectoral growth patterns between developed and developing countries. The relationship between sectoral employment and economic development (measured using GDP) generally indicates a shift from agriculture to industry to services, although some countries have moved directly from dominant shares in agricultural employment to services and have not undergone the intermediate shift to industry.

- What are the main sectors for female employment and what does this mean in terms of female welfare and gender equality?

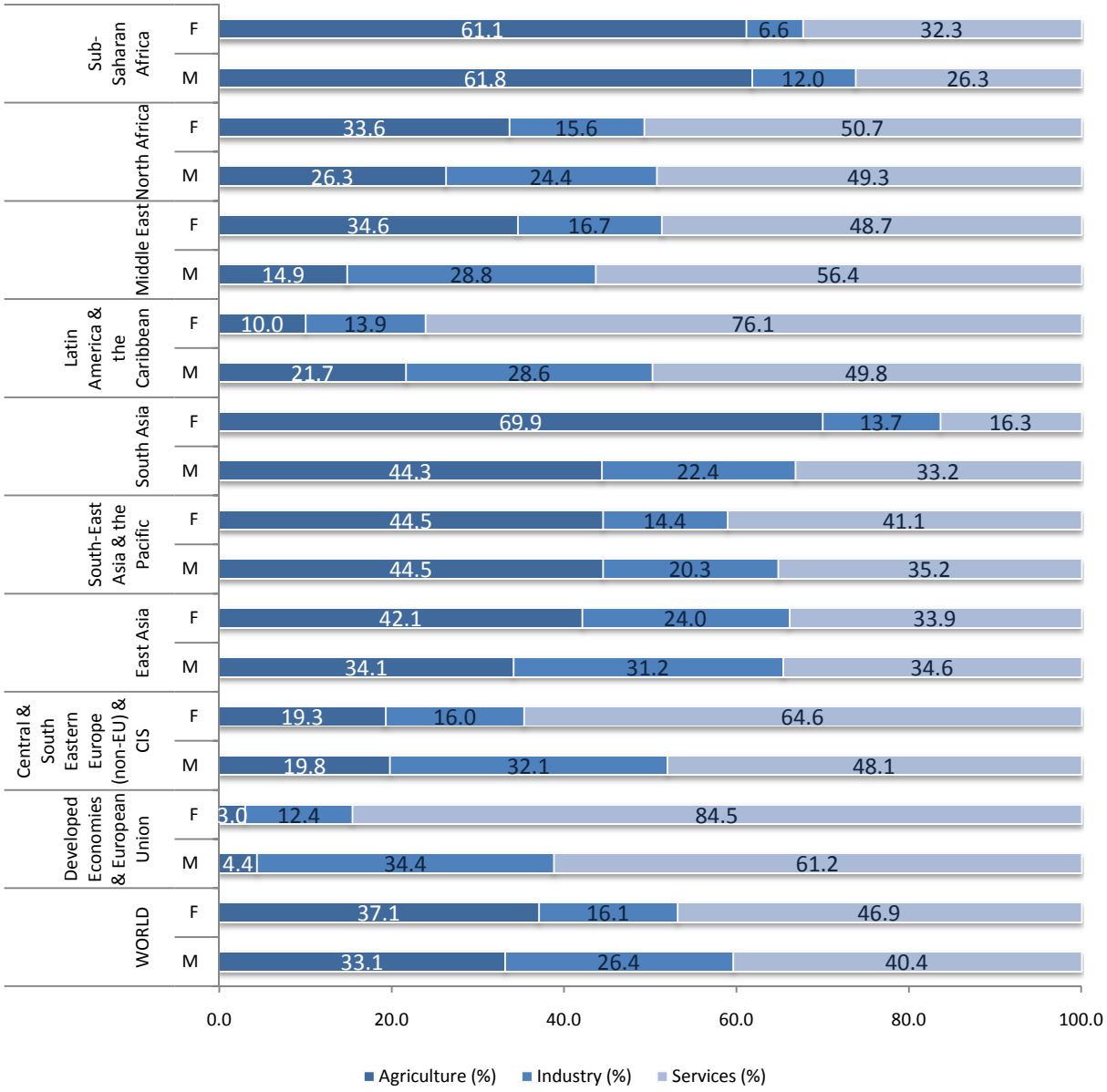
As a gender-relevant indicator, looking at the distribution of employment by sector provides a clear picture of the very different composition of female and male employment. There is a clear segregation of women in sectors that are generally known to be lower-paid (this finding will be further supported in the discussion relating to occupational wages below in section 3.3.7). Figure 14 shows the global and regional distribution of employment by sector for men and women. At the global level, whereas ten years ago, agriculture was still the main employer for women, the services sector now provides the majority of female jobs. Already, here there are interesting implications regarding the welfare of women workers – for example, women in most regions are more likely than men to work in agriculture, mainly in subsistence-level agriculture under harsh conditions with little or no economic security.

The dominant share of employment for both women and men in 2009 was in agriculture in East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia & the Pacific and Sub-Saharan Africa. The female shares in agriculture exceeded those of males in the former two regions but in the latter two regions shares were more or less the same. In the services sector, shares at or above 50 per cent for females were seen in the Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, Latin America & the Caribbean and North Africa, with the share in the Middle East just slightly below. The male

[40] Since 1980, two different ISIC systems have been used. A slight majority of countries continue to use Rev. 2 instead of Rev. 3. These can have large effects at the detailed levels of classification, thus data remain separated in the two tables according to the classification revision applied. The different classifications and the migration from one to the other should not significantly impact the calculations of the aggregated sectors shown in table 4a.

dominance in industrial employment is made clear in all regions, but especially in Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS, Latin America & the Caribbean and the Middle East. In the remaining regions (East Asia, North Africa, South-East Asia & the Pacific, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa) male employment shares in industry were higher than female shares but the difference was to a degree of less then 10 percentage points.

Figure 14. Global and regional distribution of employment by aggregate sector, by sex, 2008



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2009.

Looking at employment by the more detailed sectoral categories, the gender-based differences become much more obvious. Figure 15 shows the female share of sectoral employment by category for 37 developed economies and figure 16 shows the same for 21 developing Asian economies. The six sectors dominated by women (over 50 per cent) in the developed economies are: (1) private households with employed persons, (2) health and social work, (3) education, (4) hotels and restaurants, (5) other community, social and personal services, and (6) finance intermediation. The developing Asian economies have five sectors where the female share exceeds 50 per cent and the list is almost identical to that of the developed economies: (1) private households with employed persons, (2) education, (3) health and social work, (4) hotels and restaurants, and (5) financial intermediation. What is different between the two regions is the strong presence of women in manufacturing in Asian economies (median female share was 47 per cent). Although agriculture remains a main employer in many Asian economies, it was only in six of the 21 economies that the share of female agricultural workers outnumbered the corresponding male share.

There is clear evidence in these charts that female workers are concentrated in services sectors that are characterized by low pay, long hours and oftentimes informal working arrangements. And even within these sectors where women dominate, it would rarely be women who would hold the upper level, managerial jobs. With regard to the health-care sector, a main employer of women (predominantly in nursing), the ILC report states that "women are poorly represented in the higher echelons".[41] The category of "private households with employed persons" is particularly interesting. Among such household-based workers are maids, cooks, waiters, valets, butlers, laundresses, gardeners, gatekeepers, stable lads, chauffeurs, caretakers, governesses, babysitters, tutors, secretaries, etc.[42] There are numerous gender issues that arise out of the dominance of females in domestic work, all carefully outlined in the ILC report. The report states that "since domestic work is often regarded as an extension of women's traditional unpaid household and family responsibilities, it is still mostly invisible, undervalued and unprotected".[43] Conditions of such work can be poor mainly because domestic workers remain beyond the reach of national social protection schemes.

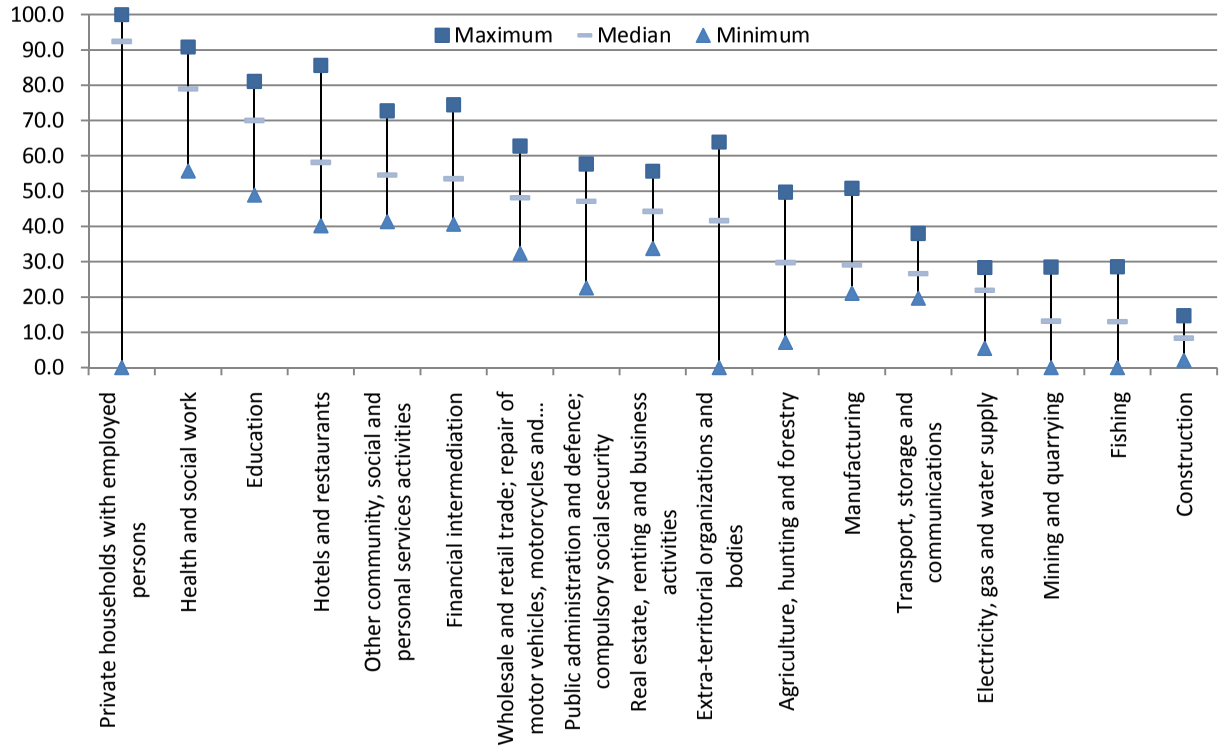
Stalwart gender sectoral and occupational segregation remains a real impediment to progress towards the principles of gender justice. Policy objectives to promote gender equality should aim to fight against the tendency toward a discrimination- or exploitation-based definition of "women's work". At the same time, it is important to broaden access for women to employment in an enlarged scope of industries and occupations while also encouraging male employment in sectors traditional defined as "female". At the same time, policy objectives should focus on raising the quality of work in all sectors, extending social protection, benefits and security to those in non-standard forms of work.

[41] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, op. cit., p. 123.

[42] UNSD website, ISIC Rev. 3.1 code 9500, detailed structure and explanatory notes; http://unstats.un.org/unsd/cr/registry/regcs.asp?Cl=17&Lg=1&Co=9500.

[43] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, op. cit., p. 36.

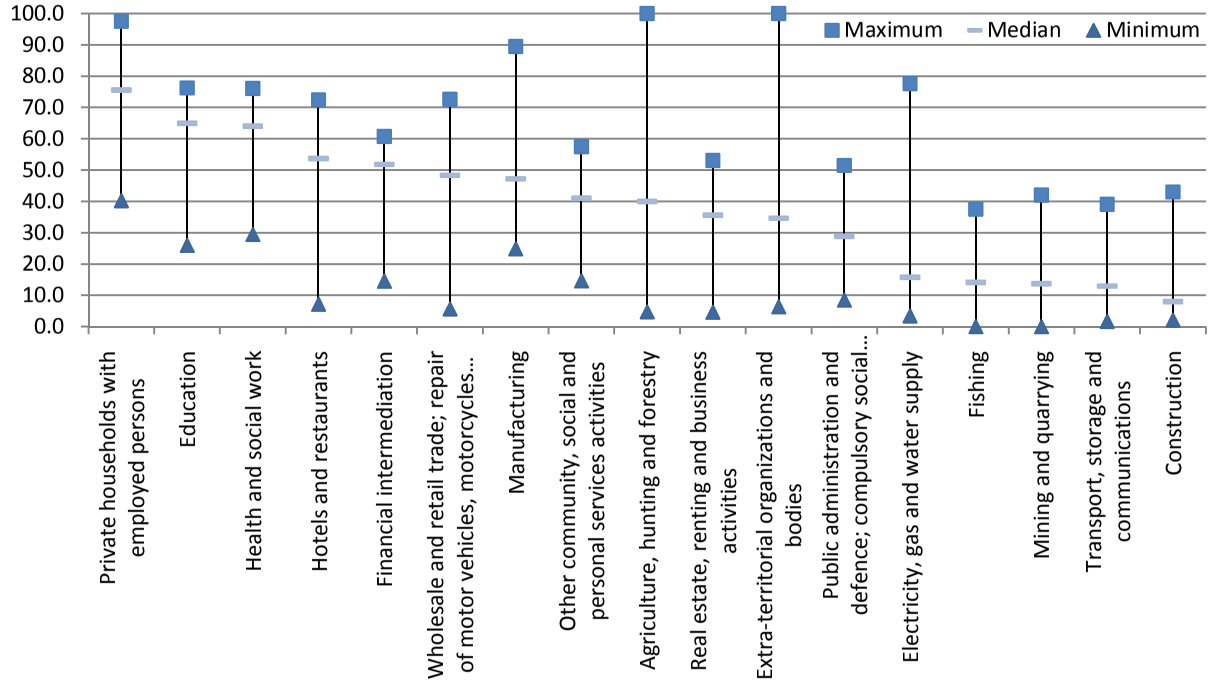
Figure 15. Female share of employment by 1-digit sector in 37 developed economies, minimum, maximum and medians (latest years)



Note: In some cases the lowest number is 0; the empty columns do not indicate a lack of data.

Source: Constructed from KILM 6th Edition, table 4b (ISIC Rev. 3).

Figure 16. Female share of employment by 1-digit sector in 21 Asian economies, minimum, maximum and medians (latest years)



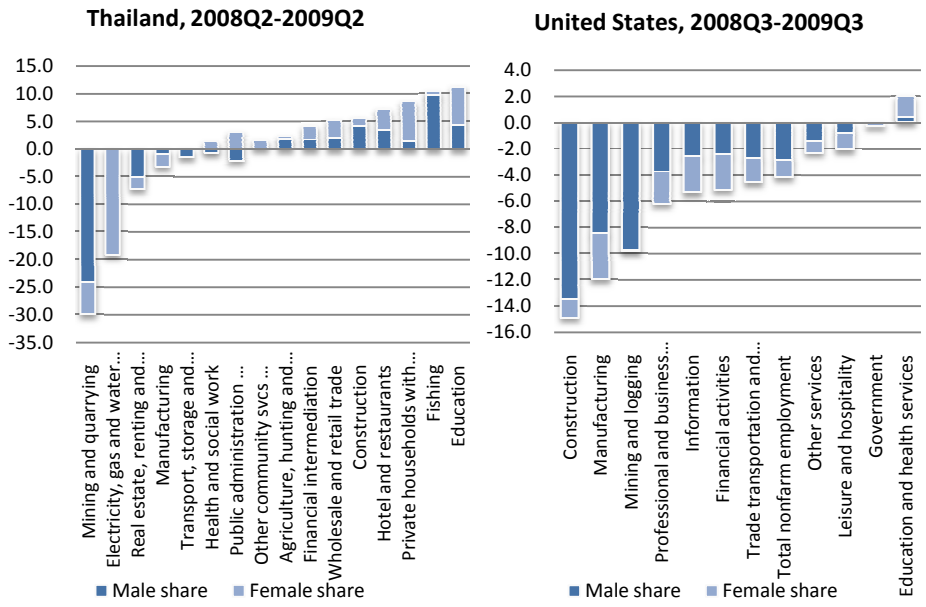
See note and source for figure 15.

Box 7. The current economic crisis and the gender impact (2): Gender job segregation as determinant of gender differentials

This box explores the relationship between the sectoral distribution of employment, the gender distribution within sectors and the economic contraction brought with the current economic crisis. The theory is that there should be some evident shift in gender differences in labour market indicators when one of the key sectors hit – manufacturing – was either male- or female-dominated in terms of workers. The two countries compared are the United States, where in 2008Q3 (at the onset of the crisis), manufacturing employment was 71 per cent male, 29 per cent female, and Thailand where in 2008Q2, the corresponding split was 46/54. The analysis for each country is based on the quarter where the employment loss in manufacturing was the greatest – second quarter 2009 in Thailand and third quarter 2009 in the United States − and comparing the situation one year earlier.

The following figures show the distribution of employment change in the respective periods by sector, indicating the relative male-female shares of the loss (or gain) within each sector. For example, in the worst hit sectors in the United States – construction, manufacturing and mining – nearly all job losses were among men. In contrast, in Thailand, the sectoral "losers" were (in order of biggest decrease) mining, electricity, gas and water, real estate and business services, manufacturing and transport, storage and communication. In three of the five sectors, the losses were mainly (or entirely, in the case of transport, storage and communication) male. It was only in manufacturing and electricity, gas and water that more women lost their jobs than men (the distribution of employment decline in manufacturing was 72 per cent female, 29 per cent male).

Employment change by sector in Thailand (2008Q2-2009Q2) and the United States (2008Q3-2009Q3)



Note: Non-seasonally adjusted data. Data for the United States refer to non-farm employees only.

Sources: National Statistical Office of Thailand, Report of the Labour Force Survey, Ministry of Information and Communication Technology, Bangkok; http://service.nso.go.th/nso/nso_center/project/search_center/23project-en.htm; and Bureau of Labor Statistics, US Department of Labor, Current Employment Statistics, Table B-1. Employees on nonfarm payrolls by industry sector and selected industry detail; http://www.bls.gov/webapps/legacy/cesbtab1.htm.

What one really needs to know, though, is the dynamics within the overall changes in employment. The following table shows the overall employment losses by sex, and the same for manufacturing, and then the unemployment gains for the same periods in the two countries. In Thailand, we see that although employment grew overall, there were losses in certain sectors (already identified) and that the male employment loss was cumulatively greater than the female loss. The female loss was highly concentrated in manufacturing, whereas the male employment losses were spread across numerous sectors.

(cont.)

Box 7 (cont.)

	Thailand (2008Q2-2009Q2)			United States (2008Q3-2009Q3)		
	Total	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**
Overall employment change	840	471	369	-5,742	-3,943	-1,798
- employment losses (number of sectors)	-306 (5)	-184 (7)	-164 (4)	-6,118 (10)	-4,037 (9)	-2,098 (10)
- employment gains (number of sectors)	1,145 (12)	654 (10)	533 (13)	376 (1)	93 (2)	299 (1)
Manufacturing employment loss (thousands)	-180	-51	-129	-1,602	-1,135	-467
Proportion of manufacturing employment in total employment (%), early quarter	15.1	12.8	17.9	9.8	13.7	5.7
Unemployment change (thousands)	148	46	102	5,571	3,589	1,982
Unemployment rate change (percentage points)	0.4	0.2	0.5	3.7	4.4	2.7
Labour force change (thousands)	-87	129	-216	-330	-451	120

See notes and sources above.

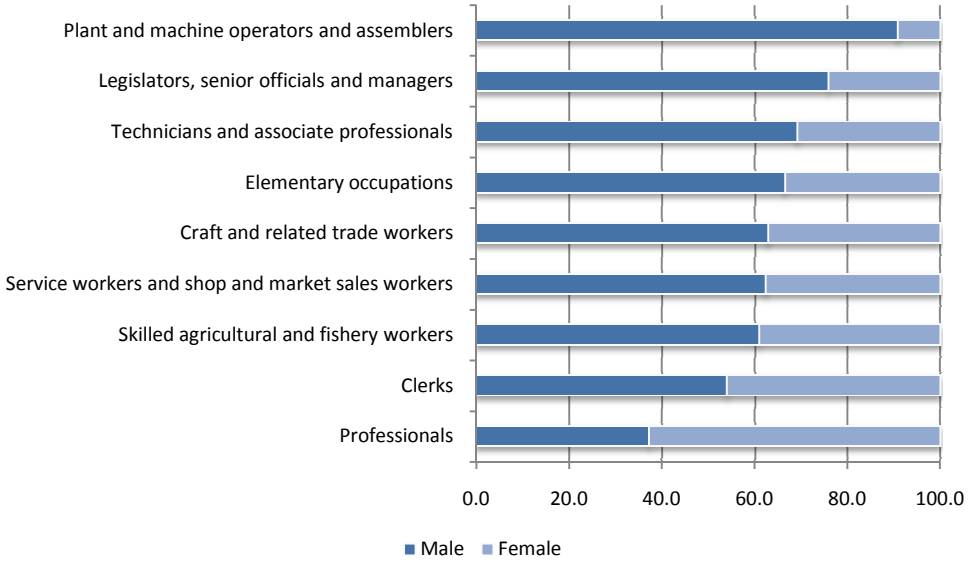
So, if in both of the countries, the decreases in employment numbers were worse for men than women, why is it that the female unemployment numbers in Thailand increased so much more than the corresponding figures for males? The seeming contradiction may be explained by the fact that the crisis hit the manufacturing sector hard, a sector that engaged 18 per cent of the female work force before the crisis struck. Female manufacturing workers are likely to be low-skilled and relatively interchangeable. If down-sized, they would face stiff competition in finding new work when the supply of female unskilled labour is higher than the demand. They would have little option open to them but to get in a job queue and hope for a quick recovery or take up less desirable, informal employment. The recently unemployed male would seem to have a wider variety of sectors open to him and might, therefore, stand a better chance at finding work. In the United States, the results are more straightforward. With huge overall employment decreases, spread throughout all sectors but sharper in the male-dominated sectors, it makes sense that male unemployment and the unemployment rate increased more than the female.

There is another element at play here though and this is the labour force, the denominator of the unemployment rate. In Thailand, the labour force decreased for women but not for men. This trend reflects a common occurrence in more traditional, patriarchal societies; during times of economic recession, females who are mostly presumed to be secondary breadwinners are more likely to fall outside of the labour force than to undertake a prolonged job search. The decrease in the labour force is one factor in the higher female unemployment rate. But in the United States, the contrary is true. It was the male labour force that decreased while the female labour force increased. In this case, what could be happening is that as some male breadwinners are losing their jobs and facing difficulties in finding new ones, their wives are forced to take up work where they can get it to keep the household afloat. The one sector where female employment increased over the period was education and health care, one of the sectors most resilient to the business cycle.

Box 8. Employment by occupation

The classification of employment by occupation is not currently a KILM indicator, although it will be added to the next edition. The indicator offers greater depth to an analysis of female labour market trends. Specifically, it is with this indicator that the so-called "glass ceiling", which prevents women (and other disadvantaged groups) from reaching the top levels of management, becomes evident. Data on employment by occupation are currently available for a significant number of countries in the ILO Department of Statistics database, LABORSTA (http://laborsta.ilo.org). We reproduce here a brief analysis of employment by occupation data for Sri Lanka as a demonstration of the clear-cut inequality of male-female representation across occupations.

Employment by occupation (based on ISCO-88) in Sri Lanka, by sex, 2008



Source: ILO Department of Statistics, LABORSTA database, table 2c: Total employment by occupation; http://laborsta.ilo.org.

The 2008 data for Sri Lanka showed that women were concentrated mostly in the professional and clerical categories. The former may be due to the increasing concentration of women in the legal, teaching and nursing professions, but also to the fact that it is the public sector that dominates female employment in the country. Top-level occupations – categories: senior officials and managers and technicians and associate professionals – are clearly dominated by males.

3.3.4 Indicator 9: Informal employment

- Do data support claims of a feminization of the informal sector?

Informal and formal work should not be understood as dichotomous but as intimately linked and frequently overlapping. The ILC gender equality report notes that informal and formal work exists along a continuum, with informal work lying outside the regulatory framework. Given that formal wage labour is not widely present for many parts of the world, classification into "formal" and "non-formal" is not always relevant or useful. Yet, there is no avoiding the widespread hunger for information about the informal sector and informal employment and a need to place the issue on the table as one of the main areas of contention between the developed and developing worlds. We read, for example, that the current economic crisis has led to major increases in informal economy jobs, with the proliferation of outsourcing, subcontracting and casual work.[44] We also hear again and

[44] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, op. cit., p. 114.

again about the dominance of women in the informal economy. Can either claim be backed up with hard data? Unfortunately, the answer to this is "not yet"; sufficient country-level data on informal employment is not yet available.

As explained in the KILM manuscript for the "employment in the informal sector" indicator (KILM 7), informal employment is a relatively recent concept (see the KILM 6th Edition, box 7b). It exists as a reaction to criticisms that the only currently available measure of informality, employment in the informal sector, excluded aspects of informality that can exist outside of informal sector enterprises as currently defined. Casual, short-term and seasonal workers, for example, could be, for all intents and purposes, informally employed – lacking social protection, health benefits, legal status, rights and freedom of association – but because they are employed in the formal sector are not considered within the measure of employment in the informal sector. The ILO Department of Statistics and the 17th ICLS took up the challenge for the development of a statistical definition and measurement framework of informal employment to complement the existing standard of employment in the informal sector. The 17th ICLS defined informal employment as the total number of informal jobs, whether carried out in formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or households, during a given reference period. Included are:

1. own-account workers (self-employed with no employees) in their own informal sector enterprises;
2. employers (self-employed with employees) in their own informal sector enterprises;
3. contributing family workers, irrespective of type of enterprise;
4. members of informal producers' cooperatives (not established as legal entities);
5. employees holding informal jobs as defined according to the employment relationship (in law or in practice), jobs not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits (paid annual or sick leave, etc.); and
6. own-account workers engaged in production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household.

The development of a measure for informal employment has big implications for both gender analysis and policy-making (hence, the more technical discussion allotted to the topic in this report). First, as more and more countries incorporate measurement of the concept into their statistical frameworks, we should have more data from which to support or defend the claim to a dominance of women in the informal economy. According to a forthcoming report, "It is often assumed that more women are found earning a living in the informal economy than men, but accurate statistics show wide variation across countries when applying the measure of employment in the informal sector. Among the 12 countries surveyed, it was only in three (Ecuador, Mali and South Africa) that women were more likely to be engaged in the informal sector than men.[45] When looking at the broader measure of informal employment, however, most countries did show greater shares of women than men."[46]

Looking at the six categories to be included in the measure of informal employment, even without hard data, one can guess at the gender dimensions within each. Categories 1

[45] The difficulty in backing up the assumption is further supported in the recent analysis of KILM 7 data; see figure 7b in the "Trends" section, KILM 6th Edition, op. cit.

[46] ILO: *Decent work and the informal economy: A consolidated reader*, Chapter 3, Measuring the informal economy: Statistical challenges (tentative title), forthcoming 2010.

and 2, own-account workers and employers, are likely to be more male than female (see section 3.3.2). Categories 3 and 6, contributing family workers and own-account workers engaged in production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household, will be more female than male. Category 4, members of producers' cooperatives could be mixed but this is likely to be a nominal number anyway. The big unknown remains category 5, employees holding informal jobs.

Category 5 is an extremely interesting and very important addition. In essence, "employees holding informal jobs" is where we add in all jobs characterized by an employment relationship that is not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits (for example, paid annual or sick leave). Casual workers would be captured within the group, as would many temporary and part-time workers – all of whom work in situations that tend to attract females seeking to earn some income while maintaining the household and childcare responsibilities. If measured within the "status in employment" indicator only, the workers in such situations are classified as wage and salaried workers – a statistic that is given a positive value in the interpretation. If, however, "employees in informal jobs" becomes a measurable sub-category of the status group, following the guidelines designed by the 17th ICLS,[47] and data are increasingly collected and disseminated by national statistical offices, labour market researchers will gain immensely in the ability to locate and analyse the additional area of worker vulnerability.

When it comes to the importance of the new measure to policy-making, we know that national policies are better informed when the magnitude of informal work, as well as the conditions found therein, is known. Since the informal economy is generally recognized as entailing a missing legal identity, poor work conditions, lack of membership in social protection systems, incidence of work-related accidents and ailments, and limited freedom of association, generating statistics that count the number of persons within the group will certainly broaden the knowledge base concerning the extent and content of policy responses required. And if women prove to be more vulnerable to informal employment, as the initial review of data hints, then gender-specific policies would be called for as well.

3.3.5 Indicator 10: Part-time workers (KILM 5)

From a gender perspective, part-time work is one of the most important indicators to describe the characteristics of the female labour force, along with status and sector. Unfortunately, though, it is an indicator that has little relevance in many developing economies, where the institutional structures for formal (time-bound) working arrangements are less common and where hours of work might be driven by a need to maximize income in the face of poverty. In general, one can assume that where the share of wage and salaried workers in total employment is small (in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, for example; see section 3.3.2 above), the issue of part-time work is not overly important. For countries in the Developed Economies & European Union, Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS and Latin America & the Caribbean, on the other hand, the indicator remains highly relevant, especially for women. In fact, access to part-time work has been an important driver of the increase in the economic engagement of women in these regions over the last 20 years.

[47] ILO: *Guidelines concerning a statistical definition of informal employment*, adopted by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva, 2003; http://www.ilo.org/global/What_we_do/Statistics/standards/guidelines/lang--en/docName--WCMS_087622/index.htm.

Box 9. The current economic crisis and the gender impact (3): Beyond unemployment

Already, the current economic crisis has been diligently dissected in the research community. Some studies focus on the causal factors, others on the impact and still others look for commonalities between this economic crisis and previous ones. The gender impact of the crisis also remains a topic of interest. One such study specific to the Asian region is a very thorough, recent ILO report, "Asia in the Global Economic Crisis: Impacts and Responses from a Gender Perspective".[1] One of its main findings is that "the casual and contract labourers, temporary workers, rural migrant and seasonal workers, and employees in subcontracted and small-scale enterprises have suffered the heaviest blows during the first wave of job cuts."[2] Such workers are especially vulnerable in the face of job losses since they are typically not subject to any forms of social protection. In terms of identifying why the crisis will impact men and women differently, the report points to gender-based job segregation (see the discussion in box 7), the fact that women make up a greater share than men of the "buffer workforce" listed above, a stronger tendency for women than men to fall outside of the labour force rather than continue with the job search (the so-called "male breadwinner bias"), the shift to informal employment for both sexes but probably more so for women than men, and an "added worker" effect if women take up work to help the family to withstand the crisis and the possible negative consequences when it comes to children's welfare.

Another interesting gender analysis of the crisis, this time specific to the European Union, is a European Commission report, "Analysis note: Gender equality and recession".[3] This paper posits that when looking at the traditional statistics such as employment and unemployment, this crisis, like many in the past, will show little overall change to the status quo of gender differentials. But the author warns that, "as with other areas of labour market performance the statistics often disguise feminised patterns of behaviour shaped by national rules and norms around labour market activity as well as the constrained labour supply decisions women face ...".[4] One example of "feminised patterns of behaviour" is a situation in which both a male and female spouse lose their jobs. The tendency in such a case would be for the female to stay home and concentrate on household duties, allowing the husband to concentrate on the job search. And women have been found to be slower to return to work as economic recovery settles in. One also cannot ignore the risks of an increased marginalization of female labour as women take up part-time and flexible jobs, which dominate the available work opportunities during a recession. Men are less likely to "settle" for such work, but will rather hold out as unemployed until a full-time "real job" becomes available. Many of these part-time female workers will be working shorter hours involuntarily and will therefore qualify as time-related underemployed, an area of labour slack to be included in the wider measure of labour underutilization mentioned in section 3.2. If the measure of labour underutilization becomes more widely available at the country level, it would be an interesting exercise to review the data over the course of the recession. The suspicion is that this is where the real gender impact of the economic crisis will show up.

The main theme of the author is a very important one: "gender equality should not be a fair weather policy priority". He reminds us that many of the gains made toward gender equality in the EU, particularly under the framework of the European Employment Strategy, have been driven by policy interventions such as reconciliation policies that help women to balance work with family responsibilities. In the face of budget cuts, such programmes might be seen as expendable. And employers too might be tempted to limit policies and initiatives that aid women.[5] Both possibilities must be fought against by raising awareness of the overall gains that come with gender equality. The economic crisis offers a possibility, the author says, to refocus attention on redressing some lingering inequalities. He finishes with an outline of "guidelines for a gender mainstreamed response to the recession". Let us hope that they are brought to the attention of policy-makers as they begin to outline their recovery strategies.

[1] ILO: *Asia in the global economic crisis: Impacts and responses from a gender perspective*, Technical note, Responding to the Economic Crisis – Coherent Policies for Growth, Employment and Decent Work in Asia and Pacific, Manila, Philippines, 18-20 February 2009; http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_101737.pdf.

[2] ibid., p. 1.

[3] M. Smith: *Gender equality and recession*, Analysis note, May 2009; http://grenoble-em.academia.edu/marksmith/Papers.

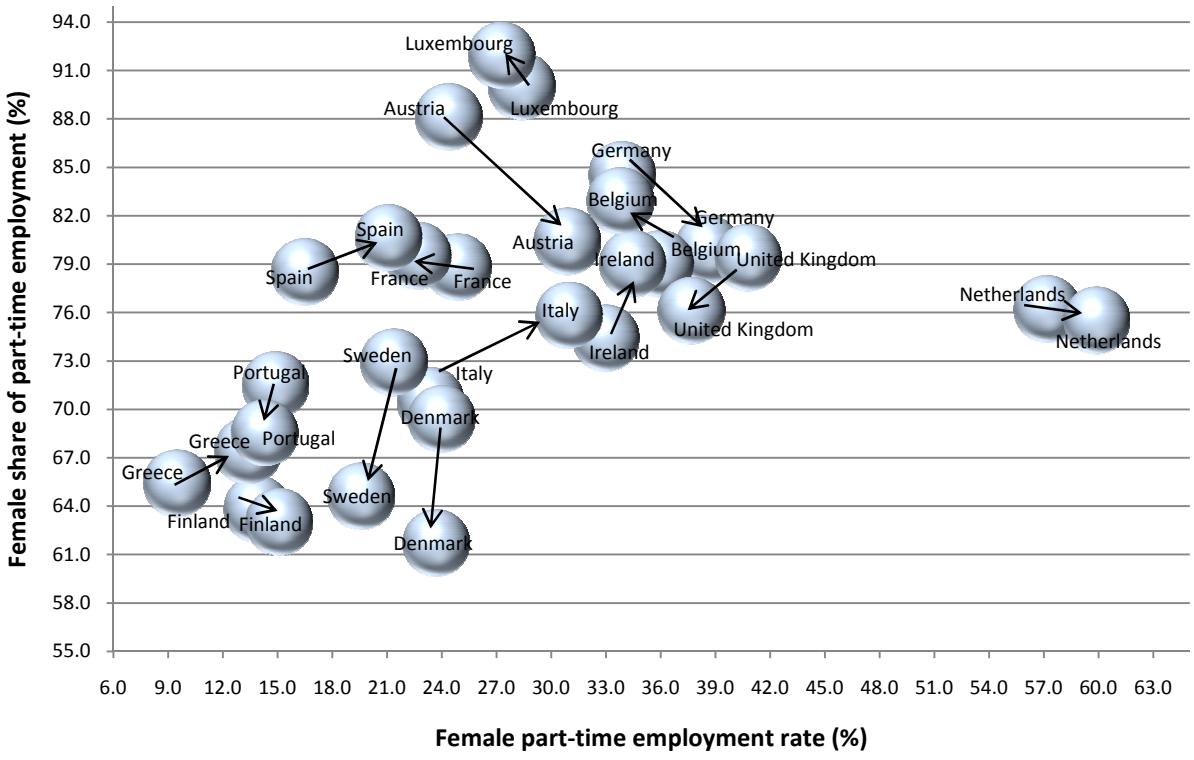
[4] ibid., p. 9.

[5] ibid., p. 17.

- What are the trends regarding part-time employment and why is it so strongly a female domain in developed economies?

Figure 17, an update of figure 5b in the KILM 6th Edition, looks at the trends in female part-time work in 15 EU countries. The figure shows the relationship between female part-time employment rates (share of part-time workers in total employment) and the female share in total part-time employment, and also builds in a time element to show how the two variables and their relationship has changed over the period 2000 to 2008. One can pull out many interesting findings from here: first, part-time employment rates were particularly high in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In these countries, at least one out of three working women was engaged in part-time work in 2008. In all the countries, part-time work is clearly a female domain (with the female share ranging from 62 per cent in Denmark to 92 per cent in Luxembourg). In Denmark, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom, the female share of part-time employment decreased over the period while female part-time employment rates decreased as well, indicating that fewer women in these countries are selecting part-time over full-time work and also that the increase in male part-time workers exceeded that of female part-time workers over the period. In Greece, Ireland, Italy and Spain, the situation differs. In these countries, both the female share of part-time employment and female part-time employment rates increased over time. These trends cement the fact that in the majority of countries found in the area of southern Europe, part-time work continues to be strongly a female domain. In the remaining countries (less France, Luxembourg and Belgium), the numbers showed an increase in female part-time employment rates accompanied by slight declines in the female share indicating that men in these countries (Austria, Finland, Germany and the Netherlands) have also started to take up part-time employment.

Figure 17. Female part-time employment rates and female shares of total part-time employment between 2000 and 2008, 15 EU countries



Note: The arrows denote the movement in the related two variables between the 2000 to 2008 period.

Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 5.

- Is part-time employment an opportunity or a cost for women?

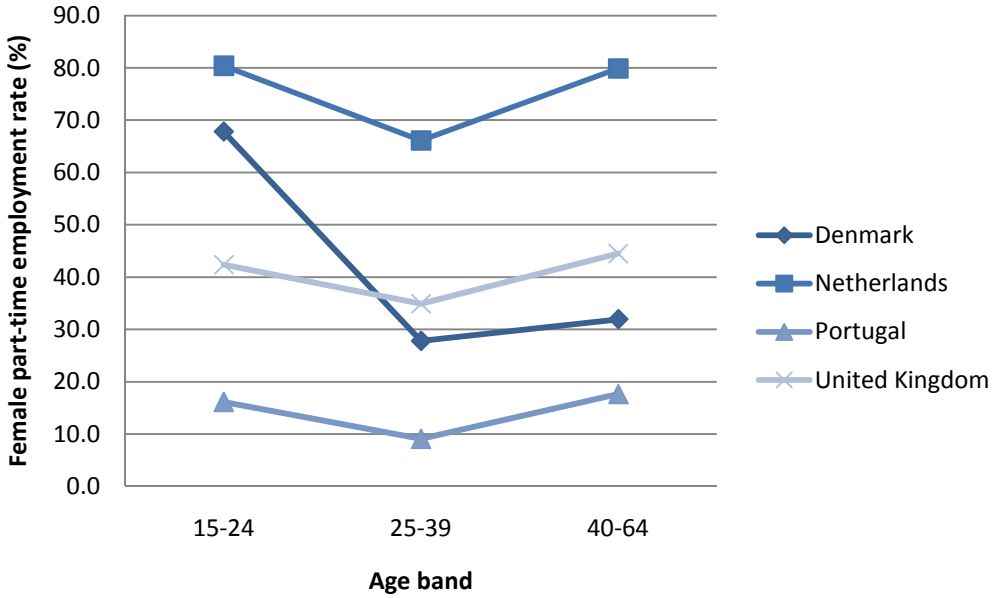
An important question of relevance to this section is whether or not women take up part-time work entirely voluntarily or because there are no viable alternatives (either in placement opportunities or for balancing family responsibilities)? The high incidences of time-related underemployment for some women, discussed above in section 3.2, tend to lend support to the second premise over the first. So, presuming many women take up part-time work as an only alternative, what are the costs to them in terms of lower pay, lack of benefits (social security, etc.), representation and voice, and their ultimate career paths? From a gender perspective, does the increase in part-time work perpetuate the marginalization of females? As highlighted in the ILC report on gender equality, the issue of part-time work raises an interesting quandary: given that some women currently working part-time might not have entered the labour force at all had the option not been available, and would have thus remained economically inactive, it is difficult to deem the phenomenon of part-time work as a "bad" thing, despite the costs involved. As stated in the report, "the issue raises questions as to how to achieve gender equality without reinforcing gender inequality".[48] Part-time work is one of the variables that make female engagement in labour markets unique. Family remains a top priority for many women and working short hours allows them to care for children and also earn some income. It is important to remember that when freely chosen and well protected, part-time work is certainly not a negative phenomenon.

Figure 18 reveals some interesting dynamics in national female labour markets that are played out during the childbearing years. Here we have selected four European countries to examine the female part-time employment rates over the life span and find some important differences. First, as already shown above, female part-time work in the Netherlands is a common occurrence, certainly more so than in the other countries. Box 10 investigates the possible reasons why. Second, there is a significant range of differences in rates across the four countries. It would be an interesting exercise to identify if some of the same institutional factors found to be associated with high incidences of part-time employment among women in the Netherlands are lacking in the other countries, especially Portugal where very few women engage in part-time work, or if there are other explanatory factors at play there.

Looking across the age groups, women (and men) are most likely to engage in part-time work at both the younger and older age extremes. This makes sense given that the youth cohort (15-24 years) contains many persons still in education. Working a limited number of hours allows youth to combine work with their studies. As women age, perhaps having finished with their studies, they will be more likely to take up full-time as opposed to part-time work, hence the dip associated with the age cohort 25 to 39 years. There is then another slight upturn in the part-time employment rates associated with the older age band, 40 to 64 years. This cohort could contain women who are returning to work after dropping out to care for their now-grown children. Many older women returning to the labour market after years of absence find it easier to adjust to part-time work, especially given that they are likely to still maintain the bulk of household and childcare responsibilities. What is interesting to note is the significant drop across the age bands 15-24 and 25-39 years in Denmark, a decrease that is much more severe than in the other countries. This seems to signify that part-time work among women in Denmark is "naturally" around the 30 per cent line and that the high rates among youth are really just a blip caused by the practical need to combine work and studies.

[48] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, op. cit.

Figure 18. Female part-time employment rates by age groups in Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom, 2008



Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, online database, "Full-time and part-time employment - LFS series (lfsa_empftpt)".

3.3.6 Indicator 11: Educational attainment of the labour force (KILM 14)

Although the educational attainment indicator here relates to the labour force rather than to employment specifically, we include it in this section as an important indication of the skills base of both men and women in the labour force (of which the employed take up the majority share; see figure 1). The indicator also serves as a necessary bridge to the topic that will follow, that of the gender differentials in occupational wages.

- What is the educational distribution of the female labour force and how does it differ from that of men?

There are some interesting findings when it comes to the educational attainment of the labour force for men and women. In many countries, the female labour force is generally better educated than the male labour force. This statement was supported in the analysis surrounding figure 14b in the KILM 6th Edition. The figure plots the male and female labour force shares across three education levels – primary or less, secondary and tertiary – for all the countries with available data in 2007. The figure confirms that, for both sexes, the highest shares of the labour force by educational attainment were those with either primary- or secondary-level education, which indicates that the bulk of labour supply is still working with low- or medium-level skills. The figure also shows that in most countries (44 of the 53 with comparable data) a higher proportion of the female labour force had attained tertiary education while a larger share of men than women in the labour force were educated at the primary level or below.

Does the fact that an economically active woman is more likely to hold a tertiary degree than a man mean that we are making good progress in the fight for equality in the world of work? No. It simply means that there is a stronger tendency for a more educated women to remain economically active than a less educated woman. After the lengthy and costly investment in years of education, the opportunity cost in becoming inactive is much greater for the highly educated. The educated person will put up a greater fight to utilize their productive potential. And the fact that it is a fight, much more so for women than men,

becomes apparent when we look at another indicator, the unemployment rate by educational attainment (KILM table 11b). Many of these highly educated women who are trying to utilize their skills, trying to get into the labour market, are unable to. The data show a much greater tendency for the educated woman, at both the tertiary and secondary levels, to face unemployment than a man with the same education level (confirmed in figures 11d and 11e in the KILM 6th Edition).

Box 10. Why are there so many female part-time workers in the Netherlands?

During the last decades, the Dutch labour market has been characterized by high rates of female part-time employment. In 2008, the maximum female part-time employment rate among the European Union was that of the Netherlands at 59.9 per cent. Why are so many Dutch women attracted by the option of part-time work? There is evidence of both push and pull factors. It appears that initially women were driven to take up part-time work because of the limited access to childcare facilities in the country. With the shift from a manufacturing- to a service-based economy, demand for female labour increased after the 1950s, but the lack of a family support system for working mothers drove women to take up part-time opportunities only. Portegijs and Keuzenkamp draw attention to the 1950s when part-time jobs were offered to married women because of inadequate numbers of young female staff.[1]

In subsequent years, the Dutch Government, recognizing a need to maintain traditional values without undermining the female desire (or financial push) to participate in economic activities, has intervened through laws and policies that protect the legal position of part-time workers. A series of laws and collective agreements instituted in the early 1990s have created a situation in which part-time workers are subject to a statutory minimum wage and minimum holiday allowance, equal treatment in wages, overtime payments, bonuses and training.[2] Thus, part-time employment has become not just an "only" option for Dutch women but a "desirable" option that allows them to balance work and family life without sacrificing the benefits that were traditionally a full-timer privilege only. Other European countries have experimented with similar initiatives to regularize part-time employment in keeping with the ILO Part-time Work Convention (C175) and European Community directive (EC directive 97/81/EC of 15th December 1997) but still part-time employment has not taken off to the same extent as in the Netherlands. The real difference may lie in the fact that part-time employment has become culturally and socially accepted in the Netherlands, while it is still associated with marginalization in some other countries.

Booth and van Ours raise the question of whether the current situation of high female part-time employment rates is a stepping stone to a higher proportion of women in full-time jobs. According to their results, part-time employment in the Netherlands is here to stay, at least in the near future, since overall job satisfaction of partnered women relates positively with their engagement in part-time work.[3]

1 W. Portegijs and S. Keuzenkamp: *Nederland deeltijdland* [Netherlands part-time country], Sociaal and Cultureel Planbureau, Den Haag, 2008.

2 N. Bosch, A. Deelen and R. Euwals: *Is Part-time Employment Here To Stay? Evidence from the Dutch Labour Force Survey 1992-2005*, Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA) Working Paper 3367 (IZA, Bonn, 2008).

3 A.L. Booth and J.C. van Ours: *Part-Time Jobs: What Women Want?*, Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA) Discussion Paper 4686 (IZA, Bonn, 2010).

Both supply and demand elements are explanatory variables behind the growing wage gap between low-skilled and high-skilled occupations (see section 3.3.7 below); the demand for workers with tertiary-level education and higher skills, which are in relatively short supply, pushes up their wages, and vice versa for workers with lower-level education. With this theory, is there not then another contradiction in the persistence of gender wage differentials (also discussed below) given that we now find that the female labour force is generally better educated than the male? Again, no, and the reason has to do with the volume of the female educated labour supply in comparison to that of the corresponding educated male labour force. In terms of numbers, the male labour force outnumbers the female labour force by a factor of between 1.2 and 3 depending on the region, and the same should be more or less true when it comes to the respective educated labour forces. Yes, women are making great progress in gaining access to education and, yes, the trend is for more women to become economically active, but in terms of numbers alone, the balance is still strongly in favour of men. And the volumes will certainly have a big impact on the gender wage differentials. Perhaps the women with higher education are working and

receiving decent salaries, but there are simply not enough of them yet to counterbalance the volume of educated, highly-paid men.

3.3.7 *Indicator 12: Occupational wage and earning indices (KILM 16) and gender differentials*

Pay differentials remain one of the most persistent forms of inequality between males and females in the world of work. Many factors contribute to the gap and it is difficult to distinguish between differences resulting from labour market characteristics (skills, education, participation rates, etc.) and direct or indirect discrimination. Efforts to address the problem need to deal with labour market inequalities and also the more fundamental attitudes to the role of men and women in society, the value of female or male skills and the demands of balancing work and family/household responsibilities.

The KILM 16 indicator offers a rare collection of occupational wage and earning nominal and real indices across 19 occupations, available by sex for many countries. The data set, therefore, offers researchers a rare opportunity to compare wages and earnings at the nominal levels between the sexes. Data are based on the ILO October Inquiry, a worldwide examination of wage rates, earnings and hours of work for a possible set of 159 occupations differentiated in 49 industry groups (together with information on retail prices of 93 food items) and conducted with reference to the month of October of each year.[49] Undertaking the analysis is not an easy task; there are numerous limitations in the data that hamper comparability across sexes, occupations and countries.[50] But a careful weeding out of the comparable data elements can still yield interesting and valuable information on gender wage differentials and the different pay scales of low-skill versus high-skill occupations.

The selected occupations for KILM tables 16a (wages) and 16b (earnings) are:

(1) labourer in construction;
(2) welder in metal, manufacturing;
(3) professional nurse;
(4) first-level education teacher;
(5) computer programmer in the insurance sector;
(6) accountant in the banking sector;
(7) field crop farm worker;
(8) garment cutter in apparel manufacturing;
(9) sewing-machine operator in apparel manufacturing;
(10) stenographer/typist in printing and publishing;
(11) office clerk in printing and publishing;
(12) power distribution and transmission engineer in electric and power;
(13) salesperson in grocery wholesale trade;

[49] For further information, see ILO: *Statistics on occupational wages and hours of work and on food prices: October Inquiry Results* (Geneva, various years); the latest results are also available in CD-ROM format and on the LABORSTA online database at: http://laborsta.ilo.org.

[50] See ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 4th Edition* (Geneva, 2005), Chapter 1, section B, "Global trends in wages by sector and occupation", box B1, for details on some of the problems with the data set.

(14) salesperson in grocery retail trade;
(15) hotel receptionist;
(16) room attendant or chambermaid;
(17) motor bus driver;
(18) urban motor truck driver; and
(19) refuse collector.

Box 11. Unpaid care work

Estimates show that the value of unpaid care work (also called unpaid household work) can be equivalent to at least half of a country's GDP.[1] As noted in the ILC report on gender equality in 2009, governments depend on unpaid care work to reduce the financial burden on the State. It is females that perform most of this work and this reality poses one of the biggest barriers to equality for women. The care economy is a complex concept – broadly defined as "looking after the physical, psychological, emotional and developmental needs of one or more other people". It spans public and private spheres and cuts across the formal and informal sectors. Although much care is provided through the health services sector, itself a large employer of females, unpaid care work is underestimated and almost totally excluded from gross national product (GNP).

As stated in the executive summary, a broader policy approach to gender equality in the world of work would incorporate the challenging task of valuing unpaid care work. No one would challenge that there is value in caring for the children who will be the drivers of future progress and no one would challenge that there is inherent fulfilment in having the value of one's work recognized. Amartya Sen refers to this as "the recognition aspect".[2] What many people continue to challenge, however, is the incorporation of household production activities into the SNAs and the labour force framework for measuring employment.[3] The compromise approach seems to be in the development of a system of measuring the value of unpaid household work that parallels the standard SNA-determination of economic activity.

[1] ILO: *Gender equality at the heart of decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 98th Session, Geneva, June 2009, p. 123.

[2] A. Sen: "Inequality, Unemployment and Contemporary Europe", in *International Labour Review* (Geneva, ILO, 1997), Vol. 136, No. 2; as quoted in A.S. Young: "Employment statistics as social statistics: Some challenges", EUROSTAT Conference on Modern Statistics for Modern Societies, Luxembourg, 6-7 December 2007.

[3] See A.S. Young, ibid., for more details on the continuing debate.

Previous analysis

The KILM 4th Edition contained a "key issues in the labour market" section specific to the topic of occupational wage differences between men and women between 1996 and 2003 in selected developed and developing countries using KILM indicator 16.[51] The main findings of the report showed a negative relationship between female labour force participation and the gender wage differentials, as well as an association between high unemployment and high pay differentials, though not for all regions. It showed that globalization had in general narrowed the pay differentials, particularly in low-skilled occupations, but that in the EU there was a large and widening gap.

In the investigation of pay difference by general skill levels, the section included a global ranking of occupations according to average monthly wage and found, not surprisingly, a prevailing wage premium for more technically-skilled workers. The average wages in the top five occupations were more than double the average in the remaining

[51] ibid.

14 occupations.[52] The study also concluded that the inequality in wages and earnings since the 1980s has been rising – the wages of high-skilled workers have increased while those of low-skilled workers have grown more slowly, remained stagnant or decreased.

Current analysis

- In which occupations is there closer pay equity? Does the skills level of the occupation play a role?

In the review of the KILM's occupational wage data undertaken for this report, the findings were not always what we would expect. For example, where one would expect to find greater wage equality in the high-skill occupations (since the education and training is presumably comparable), this is not reflected in the data (see figure 18). Gender wage differentials are calculated as the difference between the male and the female nominal wage (with wage measured in the same time frame and average hours worked differing by less than two) as a percentage of the male nominal wage.

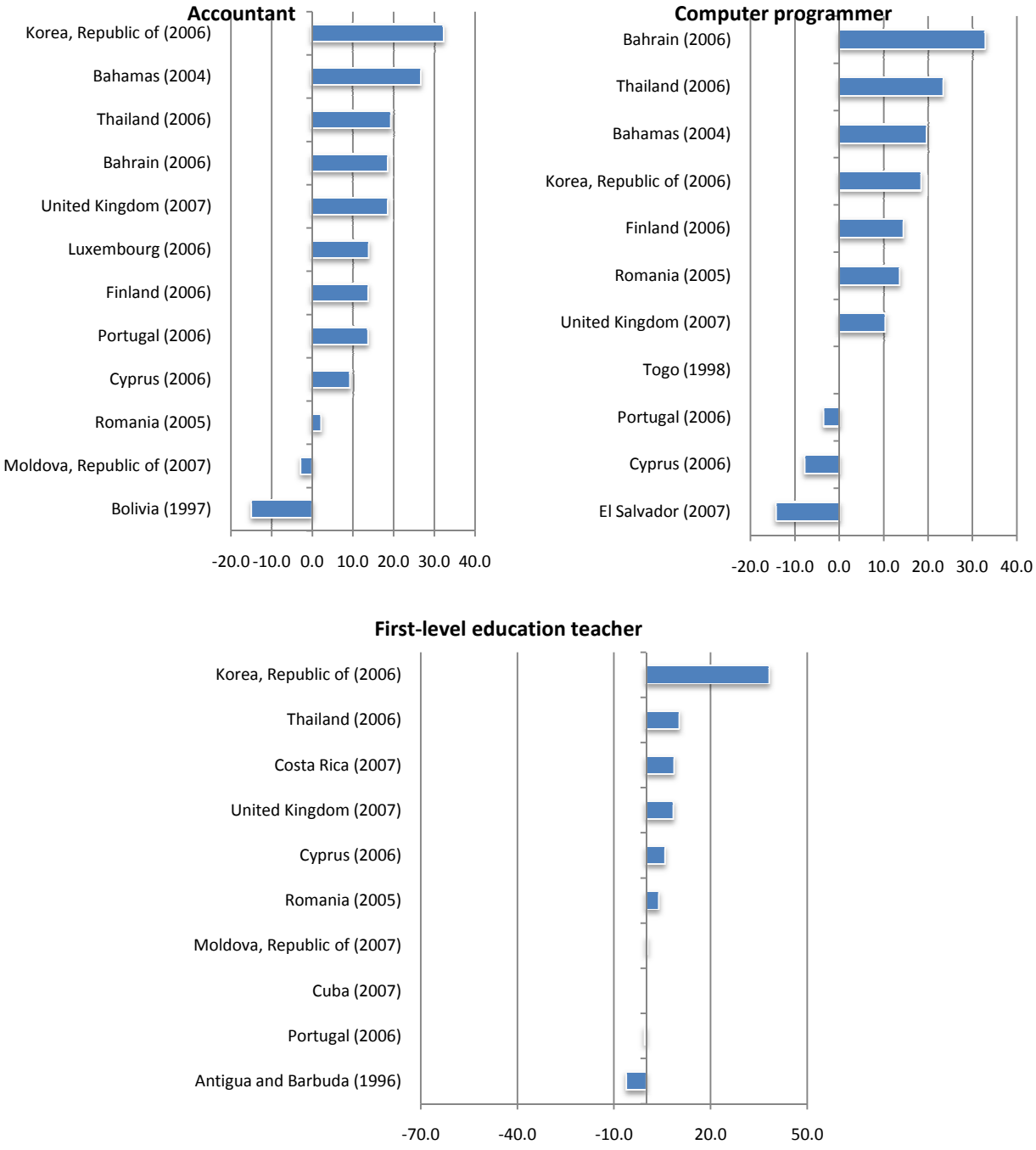
It is often claimed that this type of wage gap can be attributable more to labour market characteristics than discrimination; for example, females may earn less due to shorter tenure or shorter hours. However, if we look at some of the reasons for shorter tenure, such as taking a career break to raise a family or working part-time to balance family responsibilities in the absence of structured childcare support, the gender dimension still remains a central issue. Regardless, this critique does not apply to the analysis undertaken here since our analysis compared only nominal wages measured according to the same time element for men and women and applying the same actual hours worked (or less than 2 hours of difference).

The following series of figures (figures 19-21) demonstrates clearly that male-female pay differentials are firmly present in all the occupations and across all skills bases.[53] The occupations showing the lowest differentials were first-level education teacher, professional nurse and office clerk – all occupations that are likely to be dominated by females. The gender wage differential for the occupations at the highest skills level (university degree) reached as high as 32 per cent for computer programmers (in Bahrain) and 33 per cent for accountants (in the Republic of Korea). For the mid-skills level (secondary-school level) occupations, the gender wage differential for salespersons reached over 40 per cent in Bolivia, with the majority of countries in the range of 10-30 per cent. Even hotel receptionists and professional nurses – traditional female occupations – had large gaps, although there were also more incidences where wages in these occupations were higher for women than men. The countries that consistently showed high wage gaps between the sexes were Kazakhstan, Lithuania, the Republic of Korea and Thailand.

[52] The top five occupations at that time were: power distribution engineer, accountant, computer programmer, first-level education teacher and professional nurse.

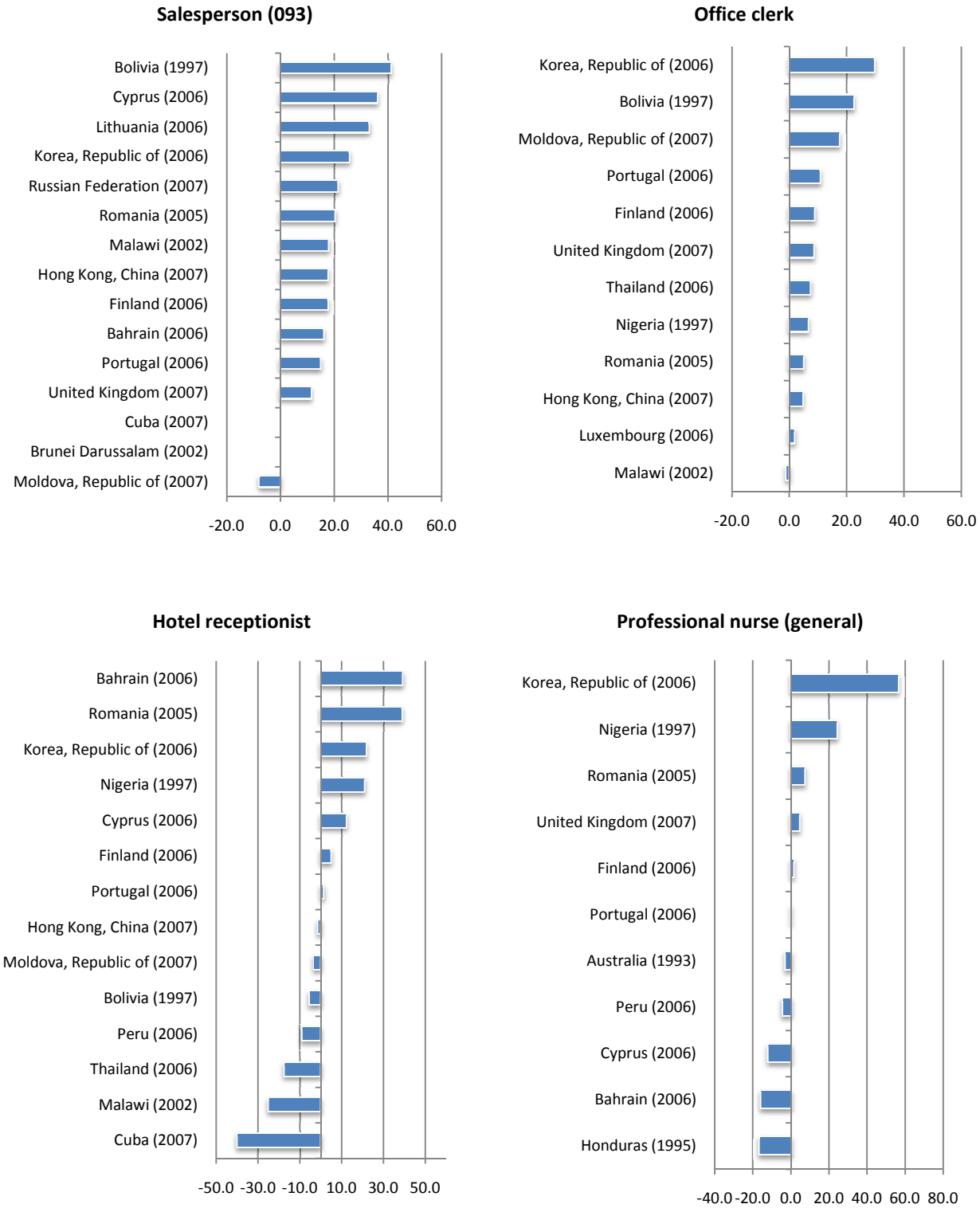
[53] Occupations are tentatively categorized according to the educational levels and professional qualifications which are expected of the person performing the tasks and duties of each occupation, as described in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). See KILM 6th Edition, op. cit., KILM 16 manuscript, for more information.

Figure 19. Gender wage differentials of professional-level occupations (ISCO skill level 4, university degree)



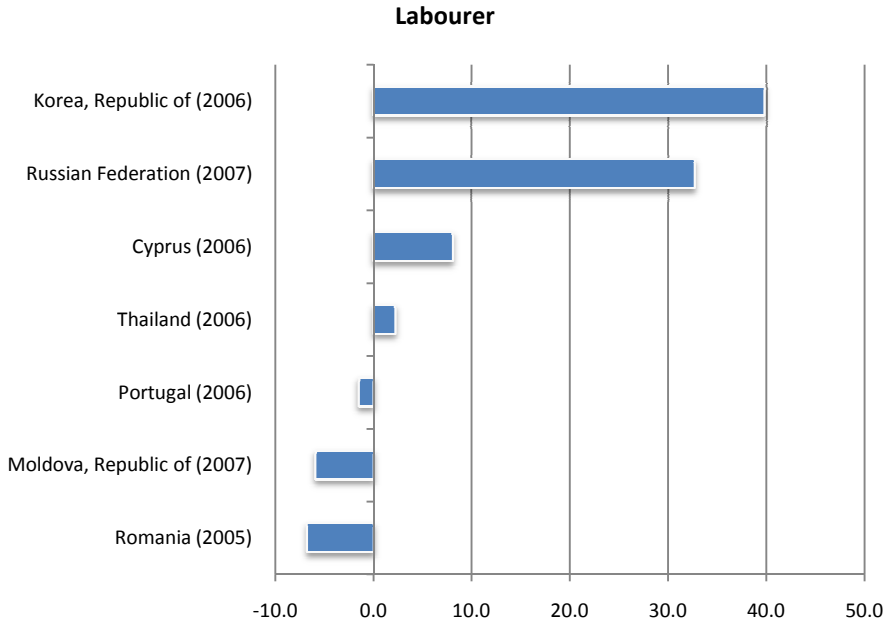
Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 16a.

Figure 20. Gender wage differentials of sales/clerk occupations (ISCO skill level 2, secondary education)



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 16a.

Figure 21. Gender wage differentials of unskilled occupations (ISCO skill level 1, primary education)



Source: KILM 6th Edition, table 16a.

Table 4. Comparing average earnings and earning differentials across male- and female-dominated occupations, selected countries, latest years

	Male-dominated occupations	Female-dominated occupations	Gender wage differential (%)
	Earnings (in national currency)	Earnings (in national currency)	
Cuba (3 female occupations, 2007)	2.0	2.0	0.0
Thailand (2006)	11'870.8	11'275.5	5.0
Poland (2006)	2'307.5	2'183.8	5.4
Finland (2006)	2'566.2	2'162.5	15.7
Latvia (2005)	253.5	212.3	16.3
Jordan (2006)	248.0	200.3	19.2
Romania (2005)	869.7	670.8	22.9
United Kingdom (2007)	438.6	327.4	25.4
Australia (2006)	1'140.0	849.3	25.5
Korea, Republic of (2006)	2'216'099.0	1'596'338.0	28.0
Portugal (2006)	1'061.5	745.1	29.8
Slovakia (3 female occupations, 2006)	18'598.8	11'971.0	35.6
Peru (5 male occupations, 2006)	1'642.4	1'040.9	36.6
Moldova, Republic of (2007)	2'844.4	1'617.8	43.1

Source: Author's calculations based on the KILM 6th Edition, table 16b.

- Are there obvious wage differences between male-dominated and female-dominated occupations?

Another means of demonstrating how occupational segregation influences wage differentials is to group the occupations according to male-dominated or female-dominated status and then look at the difference in average pay (in this case, the KILM 6th Edition earnings table 16b was used) across the two categories. The six occupations deemed to be sufficiently male-dominated are: labourer, welder, power distribution and transmission engineer, motor bus driver, urban motor truck driver and refuse collection. The four female-dominated occupations selected are: professional nurse, sewing-machine operator, stenographer/typist and room attendant or chambermaid. The analysis was based on 14 countries with available recent data. Table 4 shows the results. In the majority of countries there is evidence of a strong wage bias toward male-dominant occupations. The gender wage differential between the two categories of occupations was greater than 20 per cent in eight of the 14 countries.

3.4 Summarizing the trends

The findings in this report suggest that a "new" gender gap is growing. It is less one based on numbers alone – the gap between the number of economically active men and women has been slowly decreasing – and one based more on inequity in the quality of employment. The women who choose to enter the labour market are generally highly educated but still face a difficult time in finding work. For those who do attain work, they are generally segregated in poorly-paid, insecure, home-based or informal employment, partly as a result of lingering discrimination among employers and partly in response to the female need to combine family responsibilities with paid employment. As a result, the earning potential of women continues to be well below that of men.

In general, the trends analysed throughout the report confirm a situation vis-à-vis female employment whereby the sectors where women work, the types of work they do, the relationship of women to the job and the wages they receive are all indicative of a lingering gender disparity. The unfortunate fact remains that engaging in the labour market brings women less gains than the typical working male (monetarily, socially and politically).

The major causes of female inequality are found in the socio-cultural traditions of countries, but also remain deeply embedded in employment structures and the system of economic measurement. What is needed is a broader paradigm of gender equality in relation to employment, one that promotes developments that can ensure that the same gains are brought to women as to men; that empowers women to the same degree as men. The report advocates that countries increase their efforts in the promotion of gender justice in the world of work, exploring innovative policy approaches to challenging labour market biases. Countries where female labour force participation is low, for whatever reasons, can do more to dissolve the barriers to entry. In other countries where the problem is less one of equal opportunity in gaining employment and more in equity in the quality of employment, they can push for the development of a more innovative policy approach, one that goes beyond standard labour market interventions and deals directly with the unique constraints of working women.

4. Country profiles

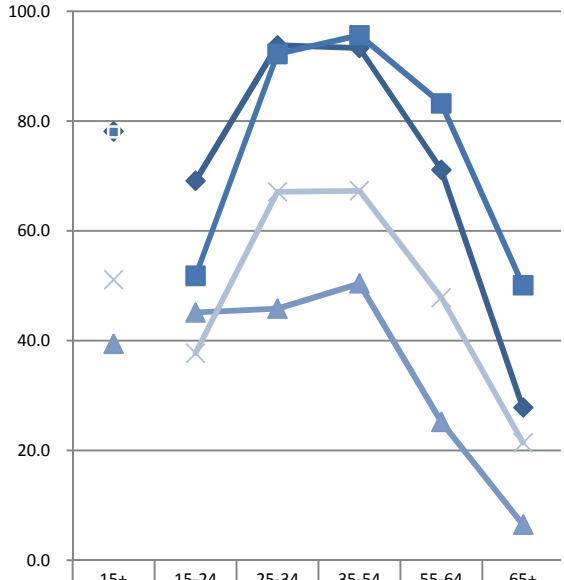
Ten country profiles are presented in this section. The aim here is to demonstrate how even a brief analysis of a limited number of labour market indicators can tell a lot about the gender dimensions of the world of work in a country. Each country offers an interesting case of female labour market trends. The process for selecting the countries to highlight was one of looking at the general trends within indicators and finding "outliers", i.e. countries that somehow differed from the general regional trends. Some countries showed trends that magnified the regional trend; for example, Ireland, where the growth in the female LFPR during recent decades was higher than the average in the region. Other countries moved contrary to the regional trends; Sri Lanka and the United Republic of Tanzania fit this category (see the discussion on female employment-to-population ratios (EPR) in section 3.1.3). Some countries were added to give a better regional balance. Finally, Finland was selected because of its high ranking in certain gender-specific ratings. Perhaps the trends shown for Finland are demonstrative of certain "good practices" in establishing an institutional framework for promoting gender justice.

The profile of each country utilizes charts to display the results of up to seven labour market indicators: labour force participation rate (KILM 1), educational attainment of the labour force (KILM 14), total and youth unemployment rate (KILMs 8 and 9), status in employment (KILM 3), employment by sector (KILM 4), part-time employment (KILM 5) and the gender wage differential based on occupational wage data in KILM 16. The KILM 6th Edition served as the basis for all information (latest available year and a year as close as possible to ten years prior, subject to data availability). Not all countries have data for all seven indicators in which case only the available subset is shown.

The country profiles and their page numbers are as follows:

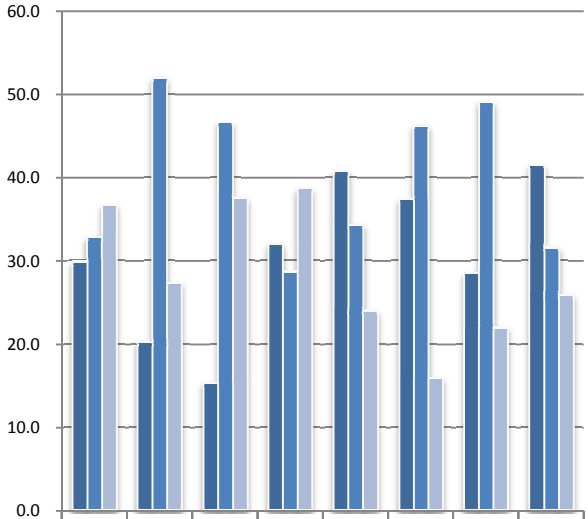
Argentina

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



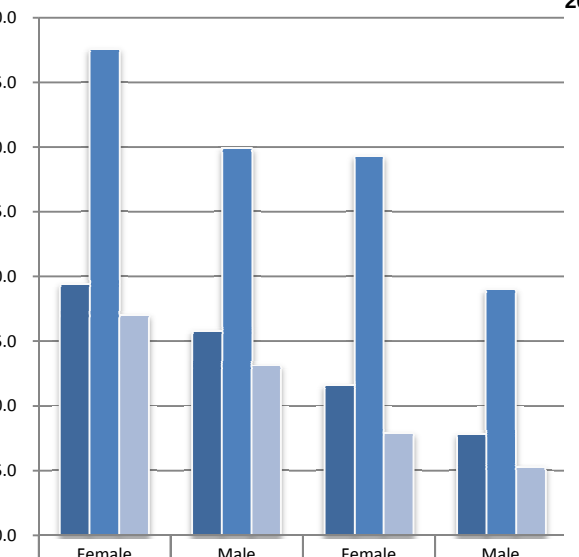
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	78.1	69.1	93.8	93.3	71.1	27.8
Male 2008	78.0	51.8	92.2	95.6	83.2	50.1
Female 1980	39.4	45.1	45.8	50.4	25.2	6.5
Female 2008	51.1	37.7	67.1	67.3	47.8	21.4

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2006



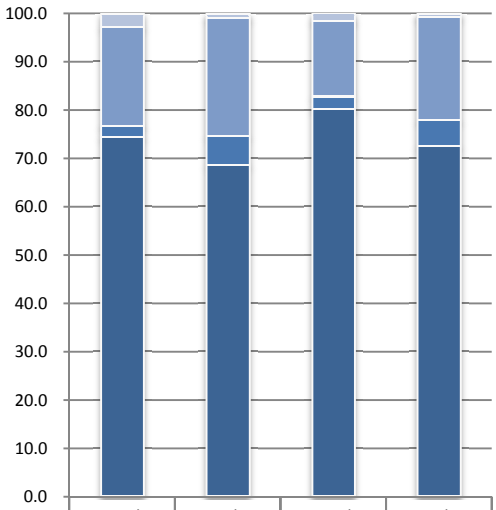
	Female				Male			
	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	29.9	20.2	15.3	32.0	40.8	37.4	28.5	41.5
Secondary	32.8	51.9	46.6	28.7	34.3	46.2	49.1	31.6
Tertiary	36.7	27.3	37.5	38.7	24.0	15.9	22.0	25.9

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1996 and 2006



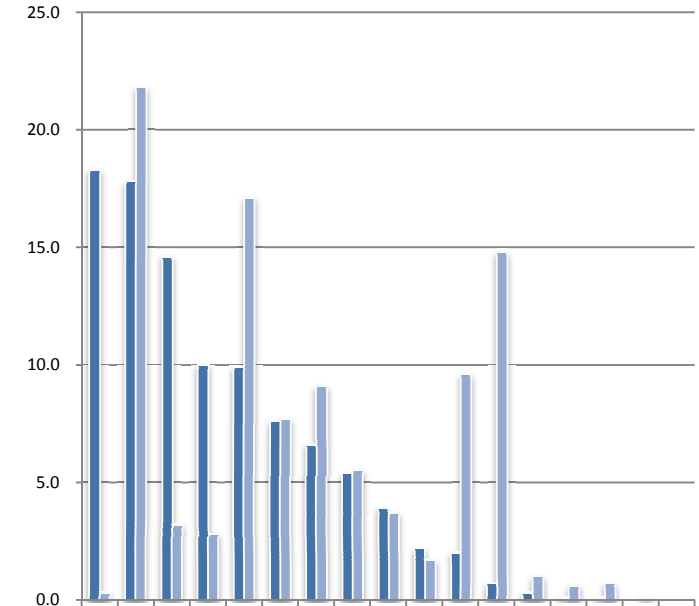
	1996		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (10+)	19.4	15.8	11.6	7.8
Youth (15-24)	37.6	29.9	29.3	19.0
Adult (25+)	17.0	13.1	7.9	5.3

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1996 and 2006



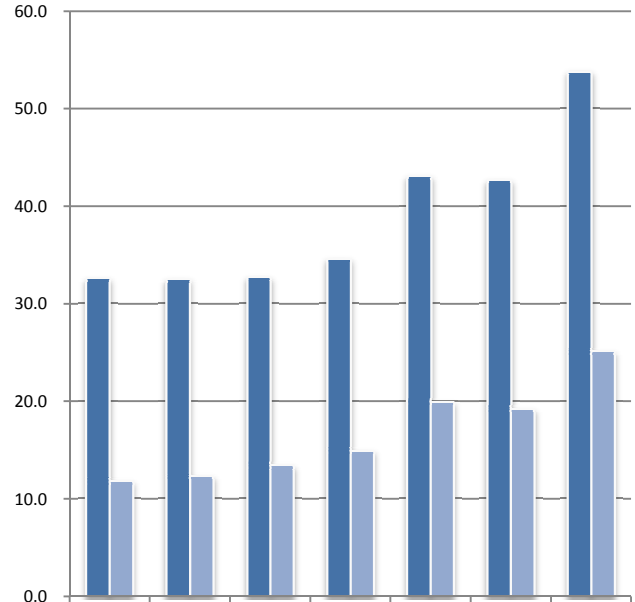
	1996		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	2.8	1.0	1.6	0.7
Own-account workers	20.4	24.4	15.7	21.4
Employers	2.4	6.0	2.5	5.3
Employees	74.3	68.5	80.2	72.5

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2006



	P	G	M	N	D	L	K	O	H	J	I	F	A	C	E	B	Q
Female	18.3	17.8	14.6	10.0	9.9	7.6	6.6	5.4	3.9	2.2	2.0	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Male	0.3	21.8	3.2	2.8	17.1	7.7	9.1	5.5	3.7	1.7	9.6	14.8	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.0

Part-time employment rate (%), 1998-2004



	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Female	32.6	32.5	32.7	34.6	43.1	42.7	53.8
Male	11.8	12.3	13.4	14.9	19.9	19.2	25.1

; and water supply, **F**-Construction, **G**-
ls and restaurants, **I**-Transport, storage
dministration and defence; compulsory
s activities, **P**-Private households with

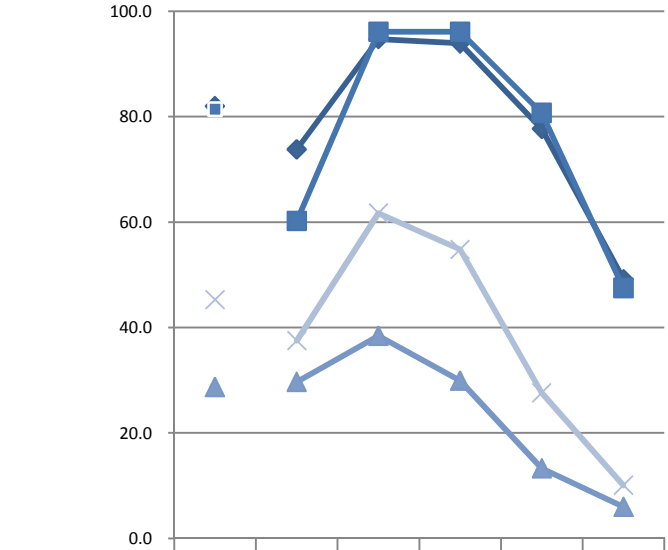
Main findings

- Total female LFPRs (15+) in 2008 was 51.1 per cent, compared to 78.0 per cent for men. Female LFPRs have shown a huge increase between 1980 and 2008 for all age groups but particularly among prime-age women (25-54 years). The gap between male and female economic activity has narrowed significantly over the period, but male LFPRs in 2008 still remained approximately 20 percentage points above females across all age bands.
- Women with a low level of education (primary level) are less likely to be economically active than men of the same education level. There is greater likelihood of finding a female in the labour force holding a tertiary degree than a male. Women with at least a secondary-level education are more likely to take the decision to engage in economic activity.
- Total unemployment rates (10+) are higher for women than for men, with an increasing female-male gap between 1996 and 2006. Both men and women saw significant drops in rates over the period. Youth unemployment is higher than the total for both sexes, but the ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rates were higher for women.
- The majority of workers in Argentina are engaged as wage and salaried workers in formal enterprises. The main differences are in the proportion of men and women in the employment statuses of employers and own-account workers, both of which showed higher shares for men.
- The segregation of women in the typical female sectors is evident. The largest share of female employment are in trade, education and health services but there are also a substantial number of females in the manufacturing sector, one typically considered to be a male domain.
- Female engagement in part-time work is on the rise. The male tendency to take up part-time work is also increasing but the share of male part-time workers remains much lower than the female.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for Argentina are based on an annual labour force survey, covering 28 urban agglomerations.

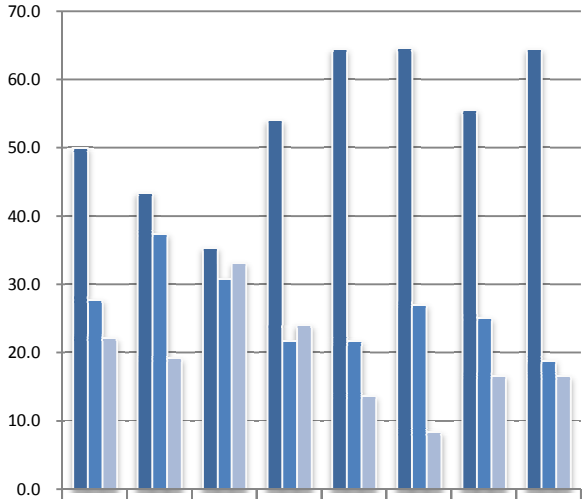
Costa Rica

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



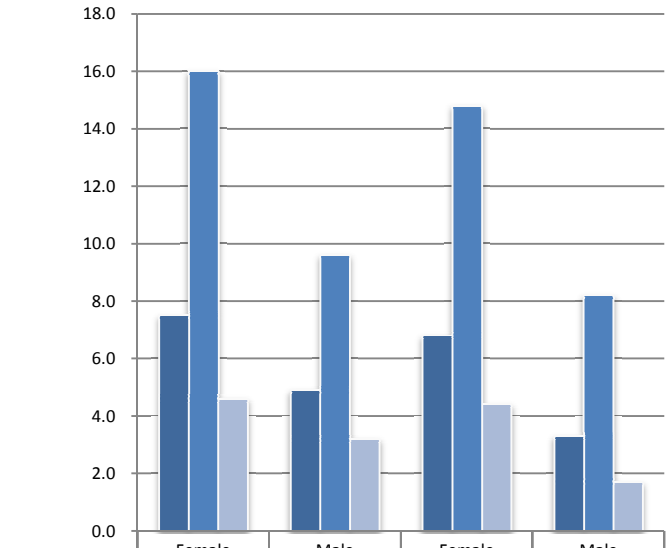
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	82.0	73.8	94.7	93.9	77.7	49.2
Male 2008	81.4	60.2	96.1	96.1	80.7	47.5
Female 1980	28.7	29.7	38.4	29.9	13.3	6.0
Female 2008	45.3	37.5	61.7	54.8	27.6	10.1

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2007



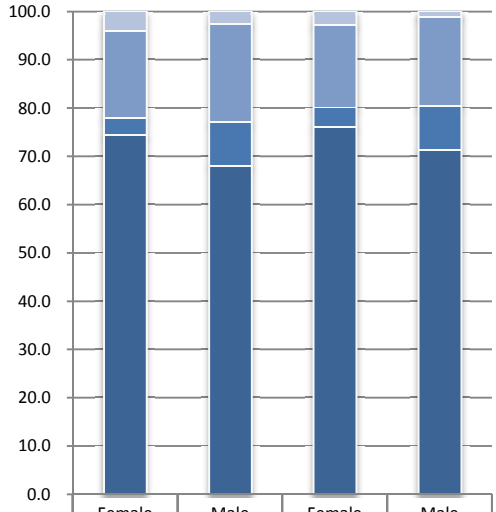
	Female				Male			
	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	49.9	43.4	35.3	54.0	64.4	64.6	55.5	64.4
Secondary	27.7	37.4	30.8	21.6	21.6	27.0	25.0	18.8
Tertiary	22.1	19.1	33.1	24.0	13.6	8.3	16.6	16.5

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1997 and 2007



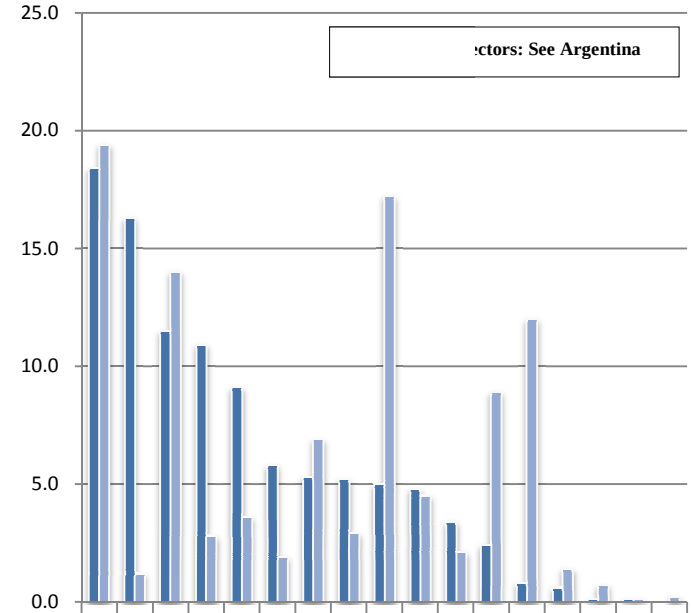
	1997		2007	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (12+)	7.5	4.9	6.8	3.3
Youth (15-24)	16.0	9.6	14.8	8.2
Adult (25+)	4.6	3.2	4.4	1.7

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1997 and 2007



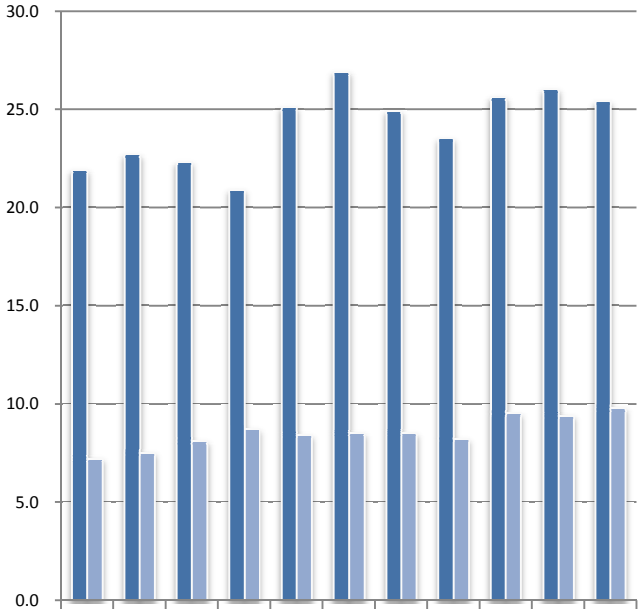
	1997		2007	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	4.1	2.6	2.8	1.3
Own-account workers	18.0	20.3	17.1	18.4
Employers	3.6	9.1	4.0	9.1
Employees	74.3	68.0	76.1	71.3

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2007



	G	P	D	M	H	N	K	O	A	L	J	I	F	E	B	Q	C
Female	18.4	16.3	11.5	10.9	9.1	5.8	5.3	5.2	5.0	4.8	3.4	2.4	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.0
Male	19.4	1.2	14.0	2.8	3.6	1.9	6.9	2.9	17.2	4.5	2.1	8.9	12.0	1.4	0.7	0.1	0.2

Part-time employment rate (%), 1993-2003



	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Female	21.9	22.7	22.3	20.9	25.1	26.9	24.9	23.5	25.6	26.0	25.4
Male	7.2	7.5	8.1	8.7	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.2	9.5	9.4	9.8

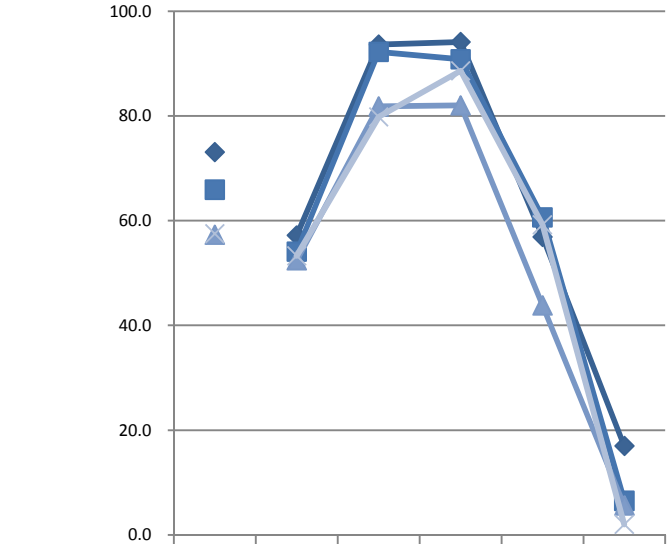
Main findings

- Total female LFPR (15+) in 2008 was 16.6 percentage points higher than the rate in 1980. Increases occurred over the period for all age groups but were especially high for prime-age women (25-54 years old). The difference between male and female LFPRs decreased over this period but in 2008 it still remained large at around 37 percentage points across all age groups.
- The majority of both the female and male labour force in Costa Rica holds a primary degree. Women of all age groups with a degree higher than primary are significantly more likely to be economically active than men of the corresponding age group. For example, a woman aged 25 to 29 years, holding a tertiary degree is two times more likely to be engaged in the labour market than a man of the same characteristics.
- Total unemployment rates (12+) are higher for women than men and the gap between the two has decreased between 1997 and 2007. Still the female rate at 6.8 per cent in 2007 was slightly more than double the male rate of 3.3 per cent.
- The majority of the female and male employed population in Costa Rica is wage and salaried workers (employees). The shares of contributing family workers and own-account workers, the two sub-categories of vulnerable employment, decreased between 1997 and 2007 for both women and men.
- Wholesale and retail trade was the main sector employing women in Costa Rica in 2007, followed by private households with employed persons (i.e. female domestic workers) and manufacturing. Men were highly concentrated in agriculture and construction.
- The share of part-time employment among women is almost three times higher than the share among men, which remained below 10.0 per cent between 1993 and 2003. Still, the male part-time employment rate increased by 2.6 percentage points over the period. Female rates, in contrast, increased by 4.5 percentage points.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for Costa Rica are based on an annual household survey.

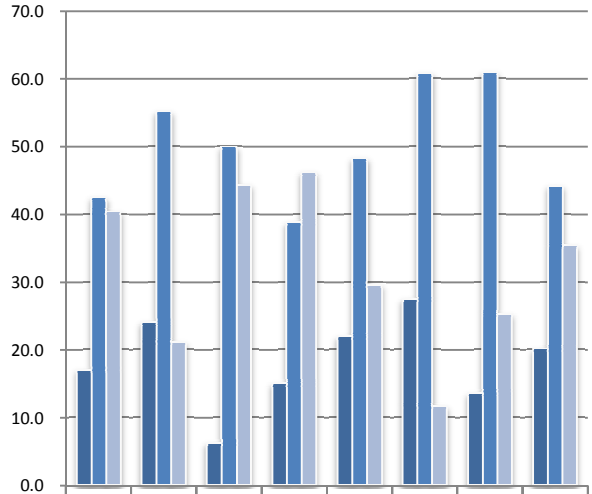
Finland

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



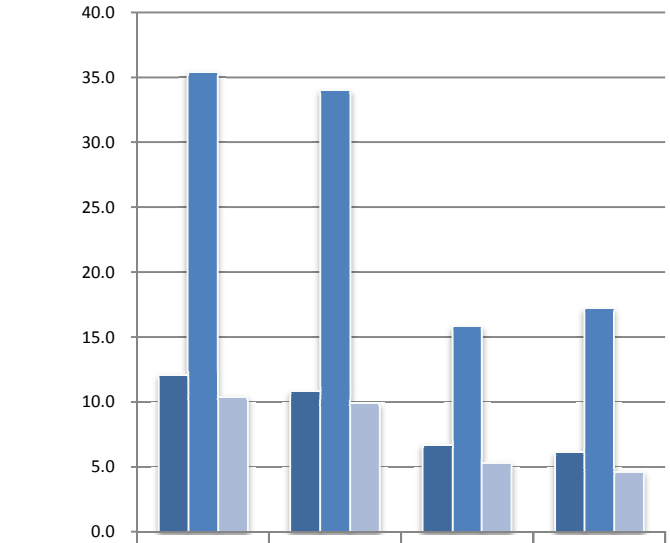
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	73.1	57.2	93.6	94.1	56.9	17.0
Male 2008	65.9	54.1	92.2	90.8	60.6	6.5
Female 1980	57.3	52.4	81.8	82.0	43.8	5.6
Female 2008	57.5	53.3	79.8	88.6	59.2	2.0

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2007



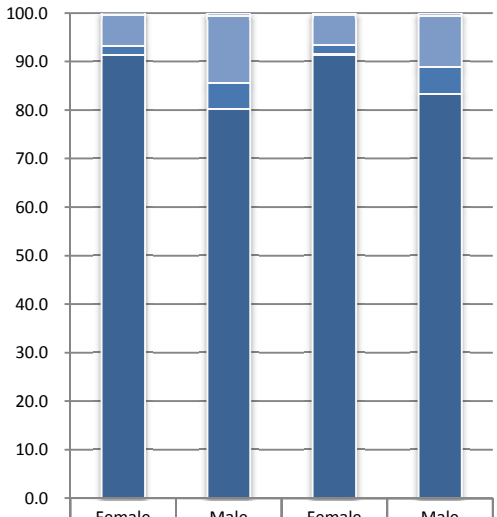
	Female				Male			
	Total (15-74)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30-74)	Total (15-74)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30-74)
Primary or less	17.1	24.1	6.3	15.1	22.0	27.5	13.6	20.2
Secondary	42.5	55.2	50.0	38.8	48.3	60.8	61.0	44.2
Tertiary	40.4	21.1	44.4	46.2	29.6	11.7	25.3	35.4

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1998 and 2008



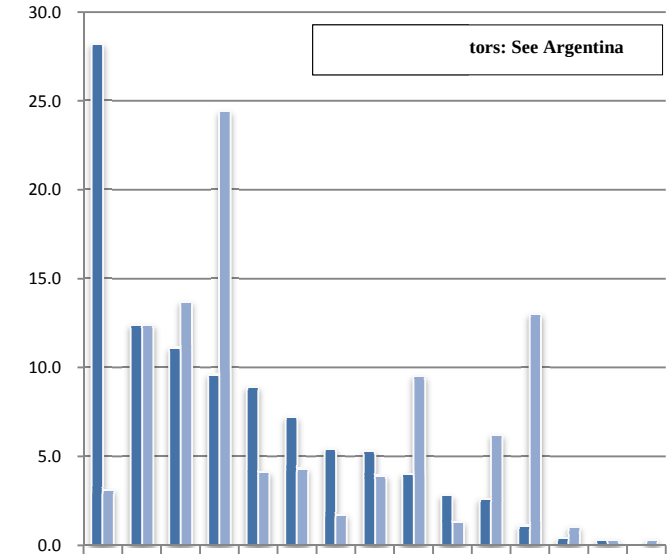
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (15+)	12.1	10.8	6.7	6.1
Youth (15-24)	35.4	34.0	15.8	17.2
Adult (25+)	10.4	9.9	5.3	4.6

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1998 and 2008



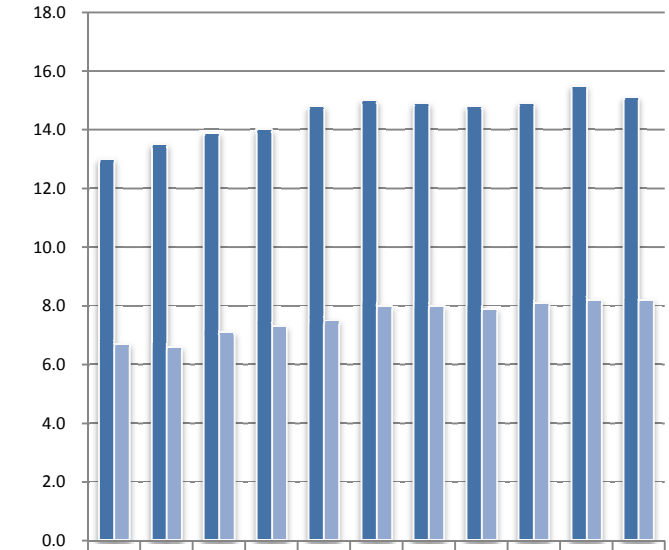
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6
Own-account workers	6.4	13.8	6.2	10.6
Employers	2.0	5.3	1.9	5.5
Employees	91.2	80.2	91.4	83.3

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2008



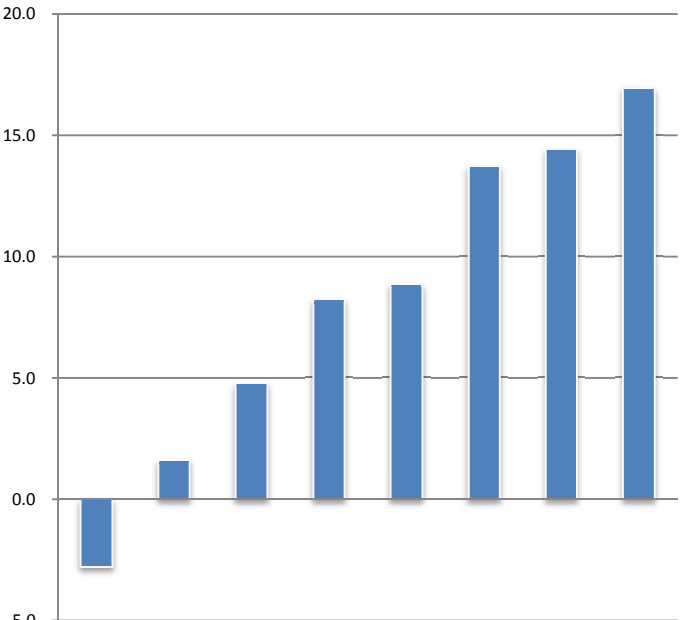
	N	G	K	D	M	O	H	L	I	J	A	F	E	P	C
Female	28.2	12.4	11.1	9.6	8.9	7.2	5.4	5.3	4.0	2.8	2.6	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.0
Male	3.1	12.4	13.7	24.4	4.1	4.3	1.7	3.9	9.5	1.3	6.2	13.0	1.0	0.3	0.3

Part-time employment rate (%), 1998-2008



	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Female	13.0	13.5	13.9	14.0	14.8	15.0	14.9	14.8	14.9	15.5	15.1
Male	6.7	6.6	7.1	7.3	7.5	8.0	8.0	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.2

Gender wage differential in selected occupations (%), 2006



	Room attend-ant or chamber - maid	Prof. nurse (general)	Hotel recept-ionist	Garment cutter	Office clerk	Accoun-tant	Com-puter progr.	Steno-grapher-typist
GWD	-2.8	1.6	4.8	8.2	8.9	13.7	14.4	17.0

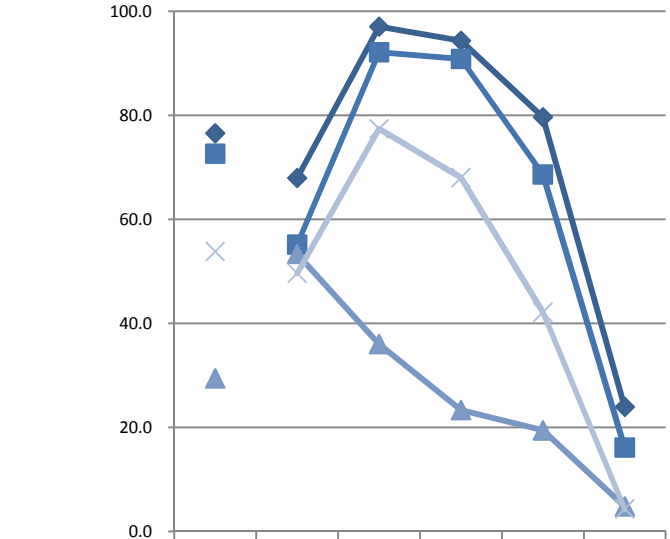
Main findings

- Total female LFPR (15+), already comparatively high at 57.3 per cent in 1980, barely moved over the period, finishing at 57.5 per cent in 2008. The male LFPR, in contrast, showed a decrease of 7.2 percentage points over the period. Like in other Scandinavian countries, there is near equality in the share of economically active women and men. The gap increased slightly as women entered the child rearing years (25-34 years) but, as women reach the 35-54 age cohort, they re-enter the labour force and reach again near parity with the economically active men.
- The majority of the Finnish labour force, both male and female, is educated to at least the secondary level. The share of adult women in the labour force with tertiary degrees is slightly higher than the corresponding share for males (46.2 and 35.4 per cents, respectively).
- Unemployment rates decreased substantially for all age groups and sexes between 1998 and 2008. The total female unemployment rate (15+) at 6.7 per cent exceeded that of the male at 6.1 per cent in 2008, but the opposite was true for the youth rates (15.8 per cent for young women and 17.2 per cent for young males).
- In 2008, nine out of ten employed women were wage and salaried workers (employees) compared to eight out of ten males. The distribution of total employment by status in employment showed little change between 1998 and 2008.
- Slightly more than one in four working women in Finland were engaged in the health and social work sector. For men, in contrast, the largest sector was manufacturing.
- The share of women in part-time employment was nearly double that of males, but still relatively low at 15.1 per cent in 2008. Part-time employment rates for both sexes have increased slightly between 1998 and 2008.
- Women tend to be paid less than men in the occupations with comparable data for men and women. Only for room attendants were wages more favourable for women.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9, 14a and 16a. Data for Finland are based on the European Labour Force Survey.

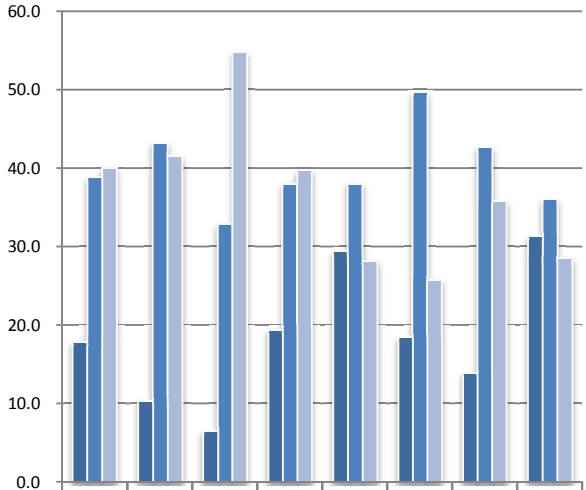
Ireland

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



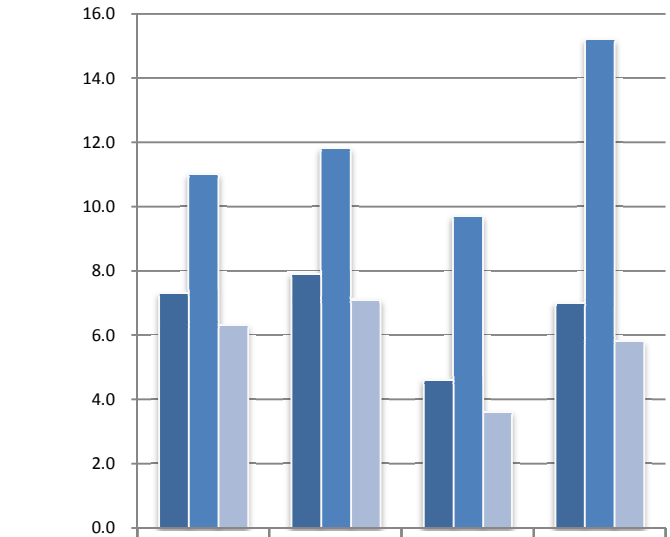
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	76.5	67.9	97.0	94.3	79.6	23.9
Male 2008	72.6	55.1	92.1	90.8	68.6	16.1
Female 1980	29.4	53.3	36.0	23.3	19.4	4.8
Female 2008	53.8	49.6	77.4	68.0	42.1	4.3

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2007



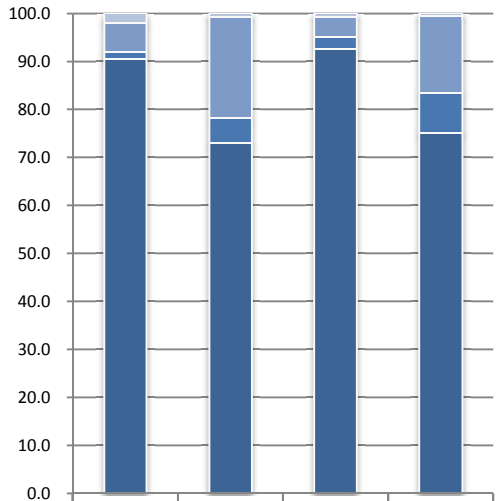
	Female				Male			
	Total (15-64)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (15-64)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	17.8	10.3	6.5	19.4	29.4	18.4	13.9	31.3
Secondary	38.8	43.2	32.8	37.9	38.0	49.7	42.6	36.0
Tertiary	40.0	41.5	54.8	39.7	28.1	25.7	35.8	28.5

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1998 and 2008



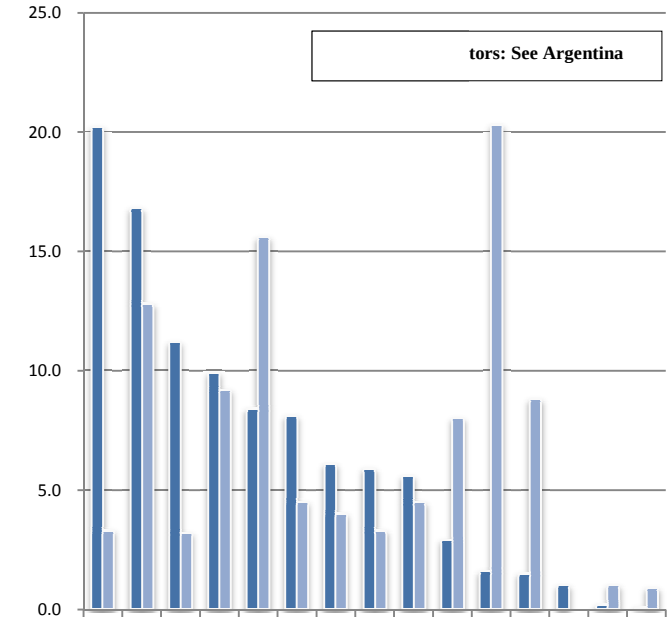
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (15+)	7.3	7.9	4.6	7.0
Youth (15-24)	11.0	11.8	9.7	15.2
Adult (25+)	6.3	7.1	3.6	5.8

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1998 and 2008



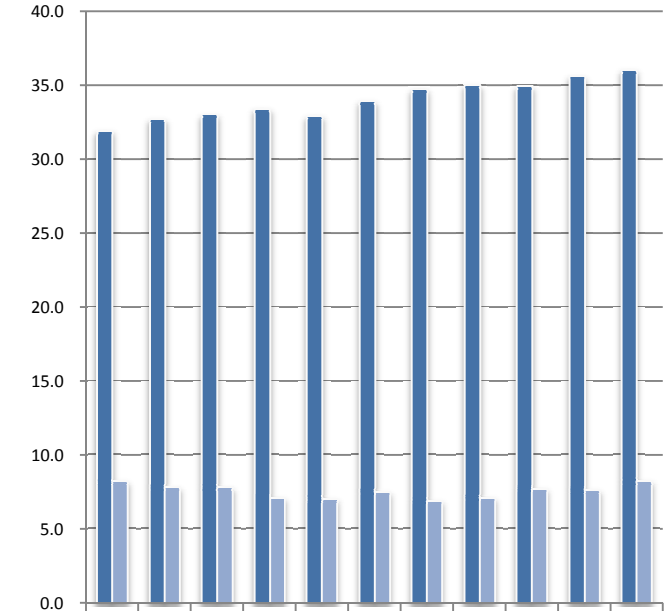
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	2.0	0.9	0.8	0.6
Own-account workers	6.1	21.0	4.3	16.2
Employers	1.5	5.3	2.4	8.3
Employees	90.4	72.8	92.5	74.9

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2008



	N	G	M	K	D	H	O	J	L	I	F	A	P	E	C
Female	20.2	16.8	11.2	9.9	8.4	8.1	6.1	5.9	5.6	2.9	1.6	1.5	1.0	0.2	0.1
Male	3.3	12.8	3.2	9.2	15.6	4.5	4.0	3.3	4.5	8.0	20.3	8.8	0.0	1.0	0.9

Part-time employment rate (%), 1998-2008



	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Female	31.9	32.7	33.0	33.4	32.9	33.9	34.7	35.0	34.9	35.6	36.0
Male	8.2	7.8	7.8	7.1	7.0	7.5	6.9	7.1	7.7	7.6	8.2

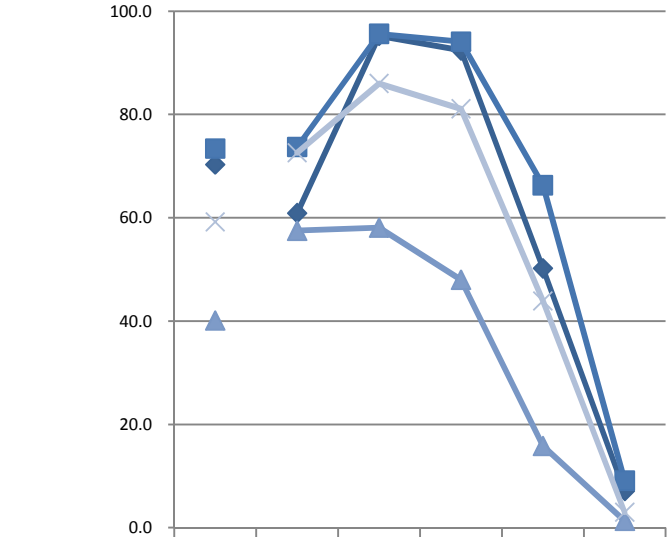
Main findings

- Total female and male LFPRs (15+) moved in opposite directions between 1980 and 2008; the female rates increased for all demographic groups but youth (15-24 years) and elderly (65+) while male rates showed decreases for all age bands. Thus, the gap between male and female LFPRs narrowed (53.8 per cent for women and 72.6 per cent for men in 2008).
- There has been a dramatic change in the behaviour of Irish women in the child rearing years (aged 25-34) over the 28-year period. In 1980, it appeared that Irish women left the labour force, never to return, as soon as they had children. By 2008, this was no longer the case. The peak of female labour force participation was among 25-34 year-olds in 2008. The rate declined slightly in the 35-54 age cohort but still women in this age group were three times more likely to be economically active in 2008 than a woman in 1980.
- The more educated the adult woman, the more likely she is to in the labour market. For adult men, labour force participants in 2007 were more likely to be educated to the secondary level or below.
- Unlike in most other countries, the unemployment rates of men across all age groups were higher than those of women. The total female unemployment rate in 2008 was 4.6 per cent compared to 7.0 per cent for men. The biggest gap was among the youth cohort where the male unemployment rate was 5.5 percentage points higher.
- Total unemployment rates (15+) decreased between 1998 and 2008 but more so for women than men and more so for adults than youth. As a result, the youth-to-adult ratio of unemployment rates increased by 1 percentage point for both sexes.
- The tendencies of employment statuses are quite different between men and women. A strong majority of women are wage and salaried workers (employees), with little change in the shares between 1998 and 2008 (90.4 and 92.5 per cents, respectively). Although men are also most likely to be employed as wage and salaried workers, there are also sizable shares of own-account workers (16.2 per cent) and employers (8.3 per cent).
- One in four working women in Ireland was engaged in the health and social work sector in 2008. Other services sectors are also strongly represented among female workers, in particular wholesale and retail trade, education and real estate, renting and business services. The main three sectors employing male workers, in contrast, are construction, manufacturing and wholesale and retail trade.
- As much as 36 per cent of working women in Ireland work part time. The female part-time employment rate in 2008 was higher than the EU average (20.1 per cent) and it has increased slightly since 1998. The male part-time employment rate has been relatively stable at around a much lower 8 per cent over the period.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for Ireland are based on the European Labour Force Survey.

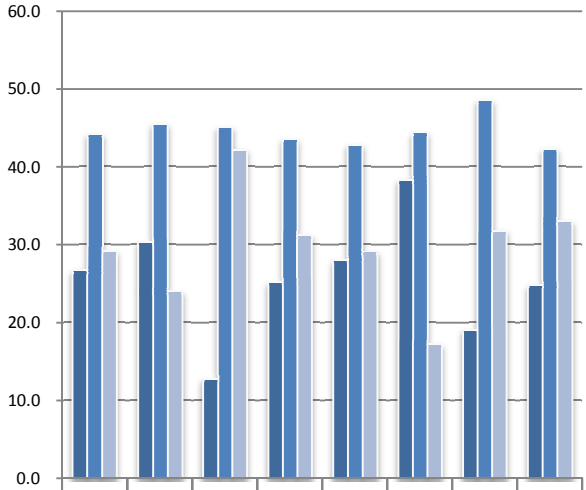
Netherlands

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



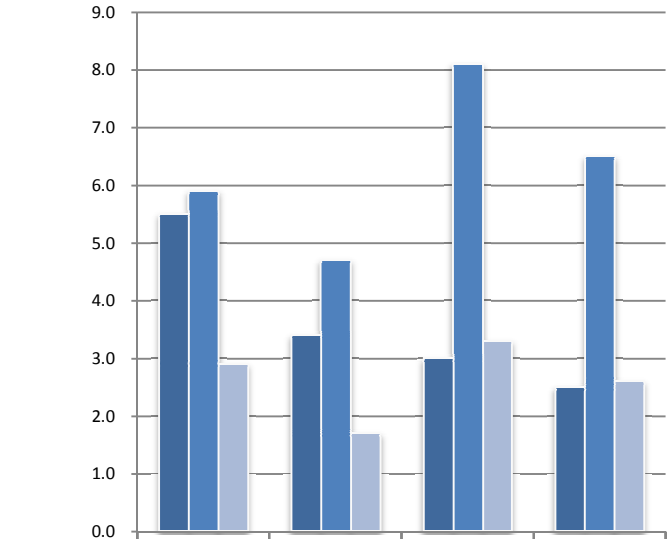
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	70.3	60.9	95.2	92.4	50.2	7.1
Male 2008	73.4	73.7	95.6	94.1	66.3	9.1
Female 1980	40.1	57.5	58.1	48.0	15.8	1.3
Female 2008	59.2	72.6	86.0	81.1	43.9	3.0

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2005



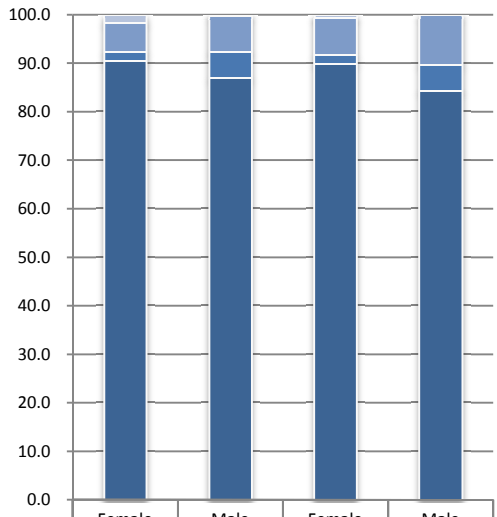
	Female				Male			
	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	26.7	30.3	12.8	25.2	28.0	38.3	19.1	24.8
Secondary	44.2	45.5	45.1	43.6	42.8	44.4	48.6	42.3
Tertiary	29.2	24.0	42.2	31.2	29.1	17.2	31.8	33.0

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1998 and 2008



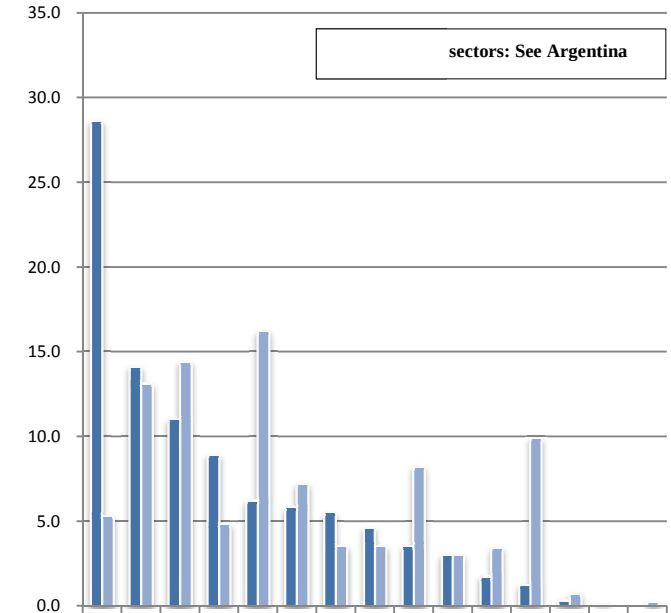
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (15+)	5.5	3.4	3.0	2.5
Youth (15-24)	5.9	4.7	8.1	6.5
Adult (25+)	2.9	1.7	3.3	2.6

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1998 and 2008



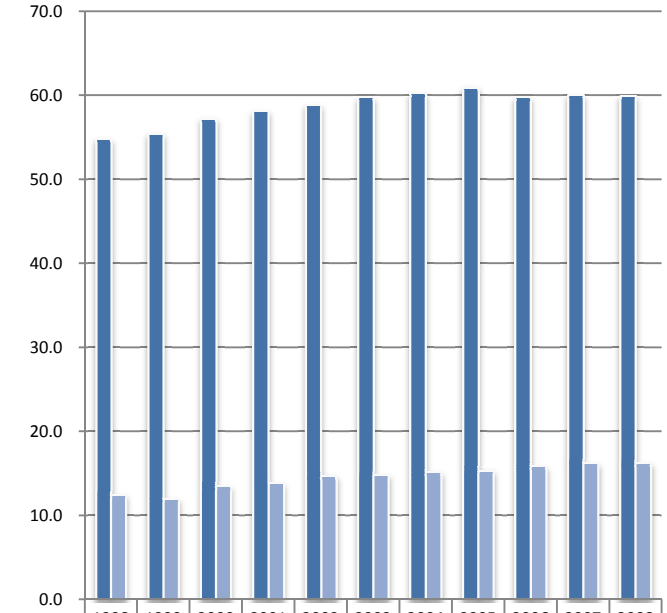
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	1.8	0.2	0.8	0.2
Own-account workers	5.9	7.4	7.5	10.2
Employers	1.9	5.4	1.8	5.4
Employees	90.4	86.9	89.9	84.2

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2008



	N	G	K	M	D	L	O	H	I	J	A	F	E	P	C
Female	28.6	14.1	11.0	8.9	6.2	5.8	5.5	4.6	3.5	3.0	1.7	1.2	0.3	0.1	0.0
Male	5.3	13.1	14.4	4.8	16.2	7.2	3.5	3.5	8.2	3.0	3.4	9.9	0.7	0.0	0.2

Part-time employment rate (%), 1998-2008



	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Female	54.8	55.4	57.2	58.1	58.8	59.7	60.2	60.9	59.7	60.0	59.9
Male	12.4	11.9	13.4	13.8	14.7	14.8	15.1	15.3	15.8	16.2	16.2

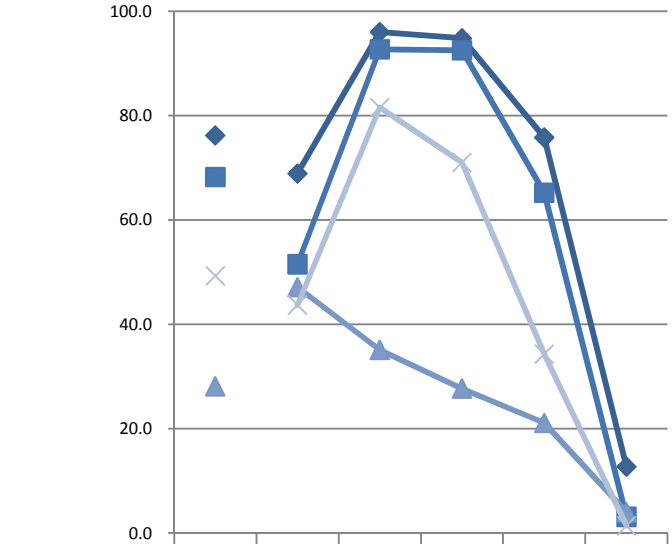
Main findings

- Between 1980 and 2008, the labour force participation rates of both men and women increased but the increase was much sharper for women (19.1 percentage points). Like in Ireland and many other countries where female LFPRs were quite low in 1980 and increased quickly thereafter, it is among the prime-age women (aged 25-54 years) that the patterns of economic activity have changed dramatically over the 28-year period. Dutch women are no longer stopping economic engagement as a rule when they become mothers. The strong presence of part-time employment in the country creates an environment in which women can find a balance between work and family life. (See box 10.)
- The male and female labour force are remarkably similar when it comes to the levels of education. Women and men with a tertiary degree were equally likely to be engaged into the labour market. Both men and women with a secondary degree were the most likely to be economically active in 2005.
- Total unemployment rates (15+) decreased between 1998 and 2008 but the female rate (3.0 per cent) remained higher than the male (2.5 per cent). The youth-to-adult ratio of unemployment rates did not change significantly and remained around 2.5 for both sexes.
- Nine out of ten employed women and eight out of ten employed men were wage and salaried workers (employees) in 2008. Men were more likely than women to be employers and own-account workers. Between 1998 and 2008, the share of female wage and salaried workers declined slightly with the difference explained by a gain in the share of female own-account workers (7.5 per cent in 2008).
- The vast majority of female employment is concentrated in the health and social work sector. The wholesale and retail trade sector and real estate, renting and business activities are the second and third main employers of both women and men in the country.
- Part-time employment is clearly a female domain in the Netherlands, although male part-time employment rates did increase slightly between 1998 and 2008. Female part-time employment rates (59.9 per cent in 2008) are consistently the highest in the European Union.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for the Netherlands are based on the European Labour Force Survey.

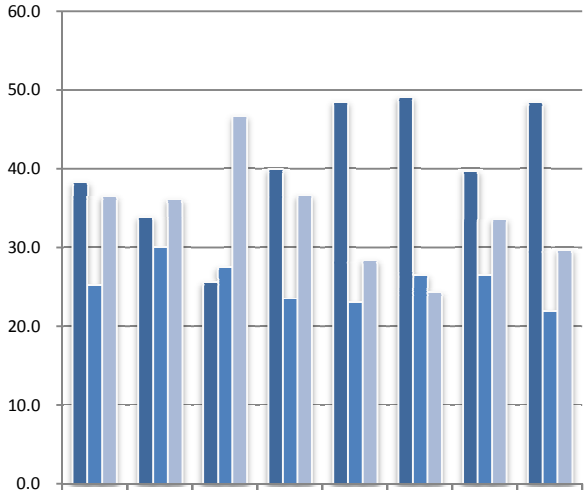
Spain

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



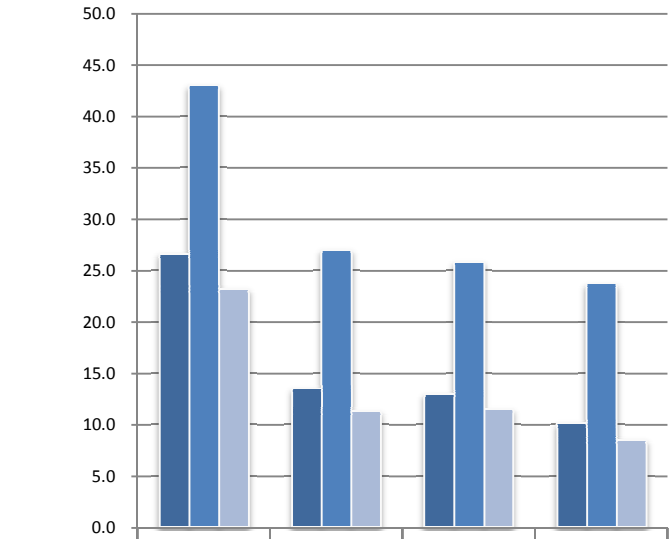
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	76.2	68.9	96.0	94.8	75.8	12.7
Male 2008	68.2	51.5	92.7	92.5	65.2	3.1
Female 1980	28.1	47.1	35.1	27.7	21.1	4.0
Female 2008	49.3	43.7	81.5	71.0	34.3	1.4

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2007



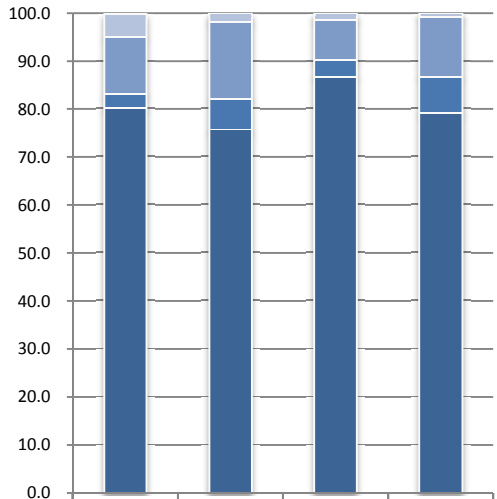
	Female				Male			
	Total (16+)	Youth (16-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (16+)	Youth (16-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	38.3	33.9	25.6	39.9	48.5	49.1	39.7	48.4
Secondary	25.2	30.0	27.5	23.5	23.0	26.5	26.5	21.9
Tertiary	36.5	36.1	46.7	36.6	28.4	24.3	33.6	29.7

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1998 and 2008



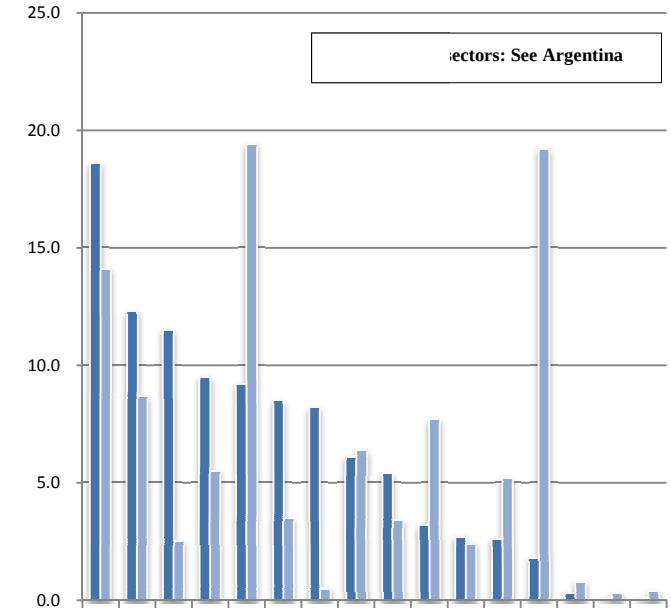
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (16+)	26.6	13.5	13.0	10.1
Youth (16-24)	43.0	27.0	25.8	23.7
Adult (25+)	23.2	11.3	11.5	8.5

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1998 and 2008



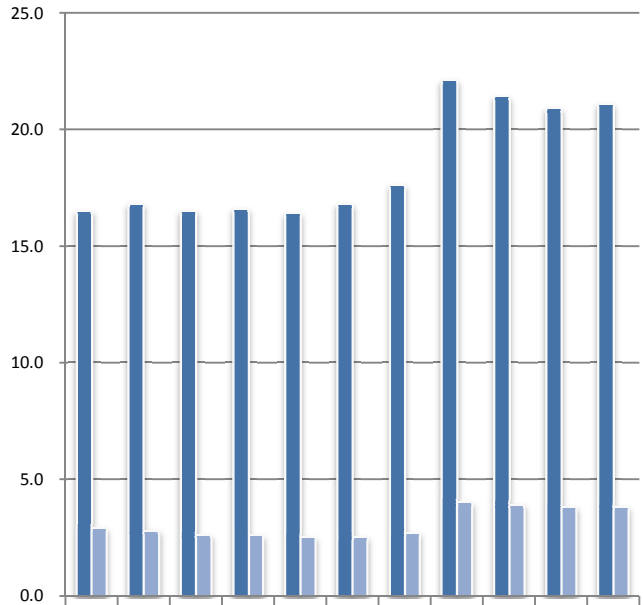
	1998		2008	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	4.8	1.7	1.4	0.8
Own-account workers	11.8	16.1	8.4	12.6
Employers	3.0	6.4	3.5	7.4
Employees	80.1	75.7	86.7	79.2

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2008



	G	K	N	H	D	M	P	L	O	I	J	A	F	E	B	C
Female	18.6	12.3	11.5	9.5	9.2	8.5	8.2	6.1	5.4	3.2	2.7	2.6	1.8	0.3	0.1	0.1
Male	14.1	8.7	2.5	5.5	19.4	3.5	0.5	6.4	3.4	7.7	2.4	5.2	19.2	0.8	0.3	0.4

Part-time employment rate (%), 1998-2008



	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Female	16.5	16.8	16.5	16.6	16.4	16.8	17.6	22.1	21.4	20.9	21.1
Male	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8

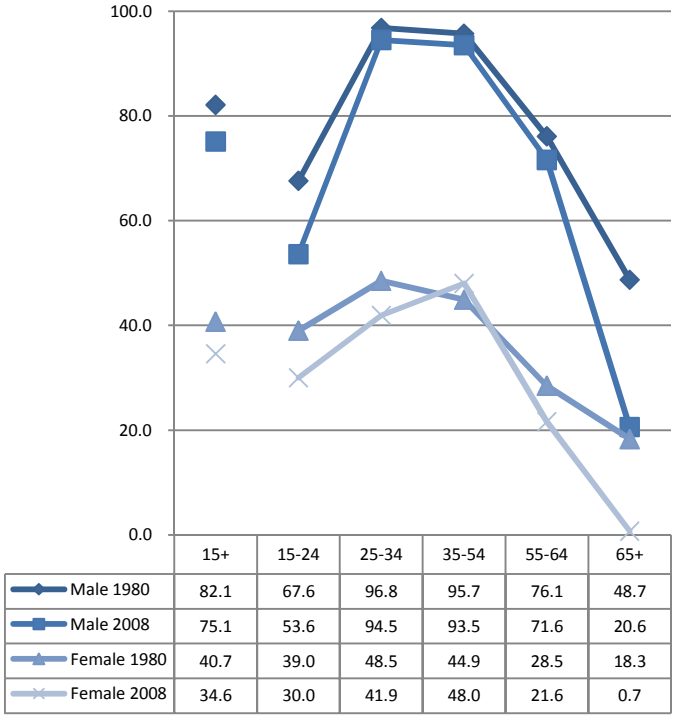
Main findings

- The year 1980 marked a starting point for the transition of females from inactivity to increasing engagement in economic activity. Total female LFPR (15+) was well below the regional average in 1980 at 58.1 per cent. By 2008, it had increased to 49.3 per cent, a rate more or less on par with the regional average (53.2 per cent). The LFPR of women in the 25-34 and 35-54 age groups more than doubled over the period 1980-2008. At the same time, male LFPRs among all age cohorts decreased, resulting in a smaller male-female gap.
- The education levels of both men and women in the Spanish labour force are mixed but, for both sexes, the share of persons with primary-level education was slightly higher. The female labour force had a slightly higher share of tertiary degree holders than the male labour force (36.5 and 28.4 per cents, respectively).
- Comparing the years 1998 and 2008, the Spanish unemployment rates (16+) decreased significantly for both sexes but more so for women. The unemployment rate for women decreased by half from 26.6 to 13.0 per cent but remained higher than the male rate throughout.
- Wage and salaried employment is the strongest status option in Spain for both men and women. Men were more likely than women to be self-employed, with or without employees.
- Female workers are engaged primarily in services; the four largest sectors in 2008 were: wholesale and retail trade; real estate, renting and business activities; health and social work; and hotels and restaurants. Men were primarily engaged in manufacturing and construction.
- Few men engage in part-time work in Spain while for females the part-time option attracts approximately one female worker in five. Between 2004 and 2005 the female part-time employment rate increased by 4.5 percentage points and it remained around 21 per cent in the years after.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for Spain are based on the European Labour Force Survey.

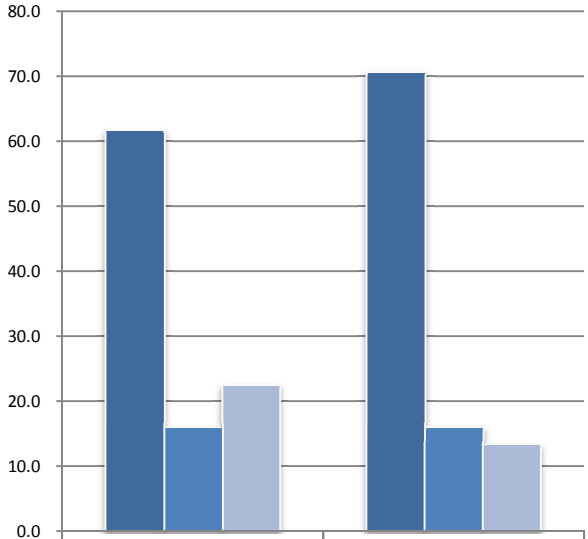
Sri Lanka

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



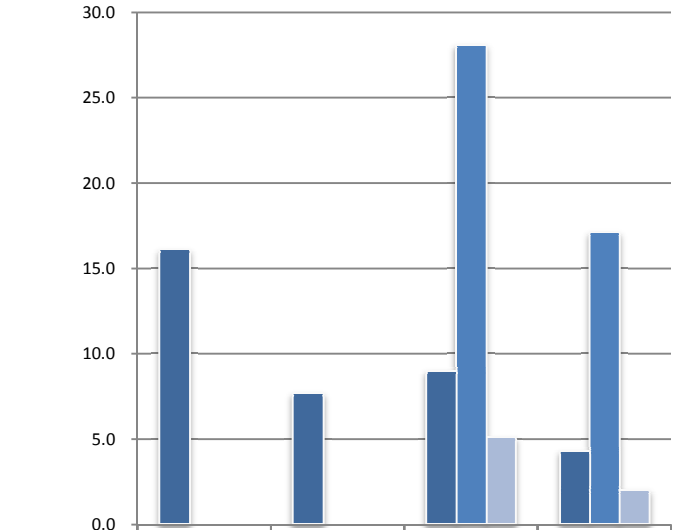
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	82.1	67.6	96.8	95.7	76.1	48.7
Male 2008	75.1	53.6	94.5	93.5	71.6	20.6
Female 1980	40.7	39.0	48.5	44.9	28.5	18.3
Female 2008	34.6	30.0	41.9	48.0	21.6	0.7

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2007



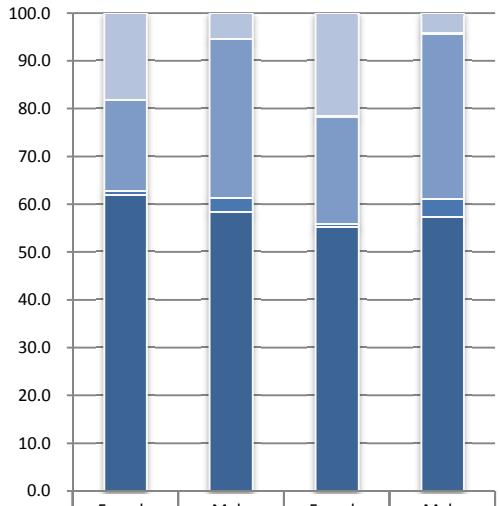
	Total (15+) Female	Total (15+) Male
Primary or less	61.7	70.7
Secondary	15.9	16.0
Tertiary	22.5	13.3

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1997 and 2007



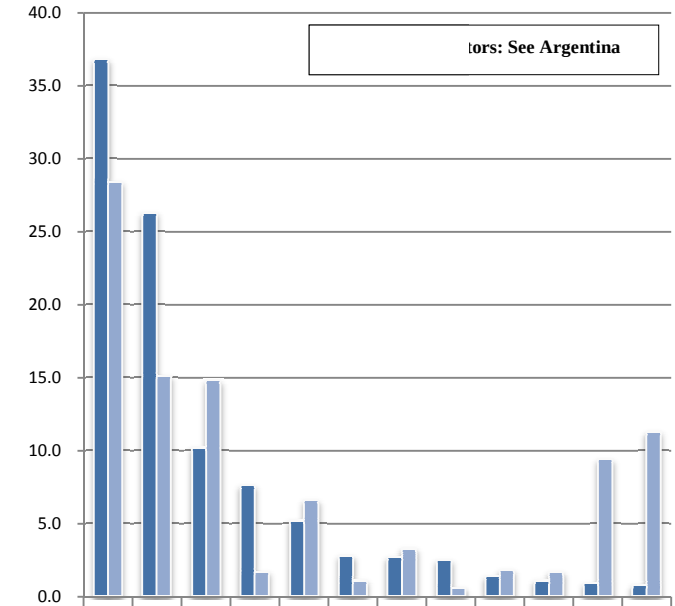
	1997 Female	1997 Male	2007 Female	2007 Male
Total (10+)	16.1	7.7	9.0	4.3
Youth (15-24)			28.1	17.1
Adult (25+)			5.1	2.0

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1997 and 2007



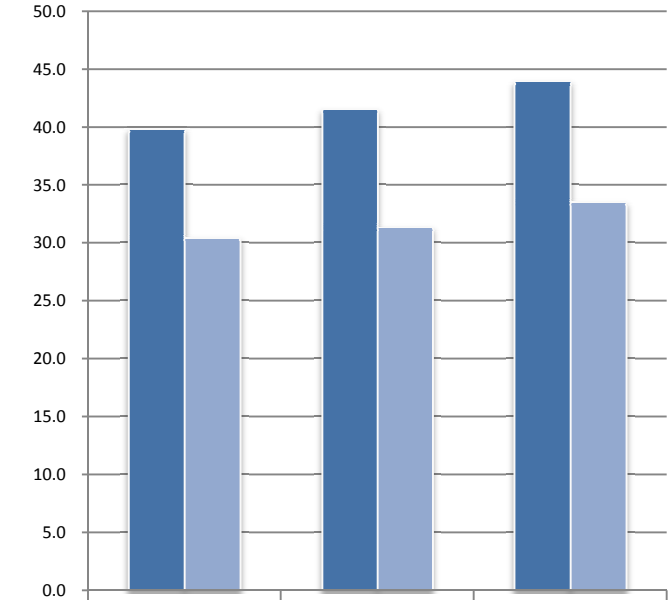
	1997 Female	1997 Male	2007 Female	2007 Male
Contributing family workers	18.3	5.5	21.7	4.4
Own-account workers	19.0	33.2	22.5	34.5
Employers	0.9	3.0	0.7	3.9
Employees	61.8	58.3	55.1	57.2

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2007



	A	D	G	M	L	N	J	P	H	O	I	C
Female	36.8	26.3	10.2	7.6	5.2	2.8	2.7	2.5	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.8
Male	28.4	15.1	14.8	1.7	6.6	1.1	3.3	0.6	1.8	1.7	9.4	11.3

Part-time employment rate (%), 1996, 1999 and 2003



	1996	1999	2003
Female	39.8	41.5	43.9
Male	30.4	31.3	33.5

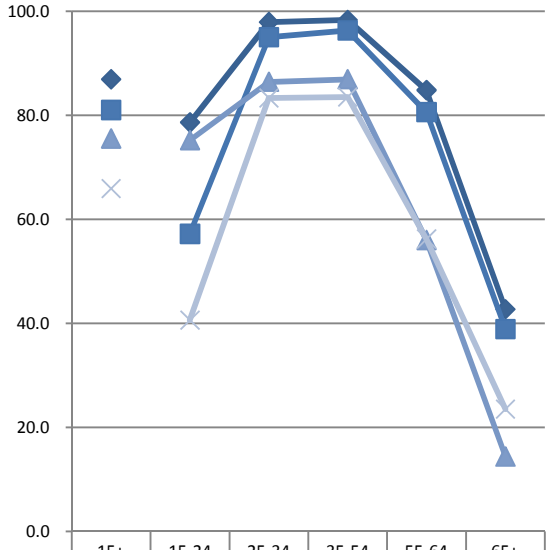
Main findings

- Total female LFPR (15+) remained slightly less than half of the male LFPR throughout the period 1980-2008. The female rate in 2008 was 34.6 per cent, a decrease from the rate of 40.7 per cent in 1980. Only among females aged 35-54 years did the LFPR increase. Male LFPRs also decreased over the period regardless of age cohort. The most drastic drops occurred for elderly men and women (65+), 28.1 and 17.6 percentage points, respectively.
- There is not significant gender difference in the distribution of labour force by educational attainment. An economically active person in Sri Lanka in 2007 was more likely to hold a primary degree. The female labour force contained a slightly higher share of higher educated persons than the male labour force.
- Total unemployment rates (10+) for both sexes decreased between 1997 and 2007. The female-male gap narrowed from 8.4 percentage points in 1997 to 4.7 points in 2007. In 2007, the ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rates was 5.5 points for women and 8.6 points for men.
- Slightly more than half of men and women were engaged in wage and salaried work in 2007 (55.1 per cent for women and 57.2 per cent for men). While men showed a slightly greater tendency to take up own-account work than women (34.5 and 22.5 per cent, respectively), women were much more likely than men to engage in unpaid contributing household work. As much as 21.7 per cent of female employment was contributing family work in 2007, an increase of 3.4 percentage points from 1997.
- Similar to other Asian economies (and strongly contrasting the services-driven female employment in developed economies), agriculture and manufacturing remained the main employers of women in Sri Lanka. The two sectors also took up the two largest shares of male employment although men were also heavily represented in other industrial sectors.
- In the years with available data, female workers showed a slightly higher tendency to work part time than men, but the difference was not substantial (43.9 per cent for women in 2003 compared to 33.5 per cent for men).

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for Sri Lanka are based on a quarterly labour force survey, excluding the Northern and Eastern provinces.

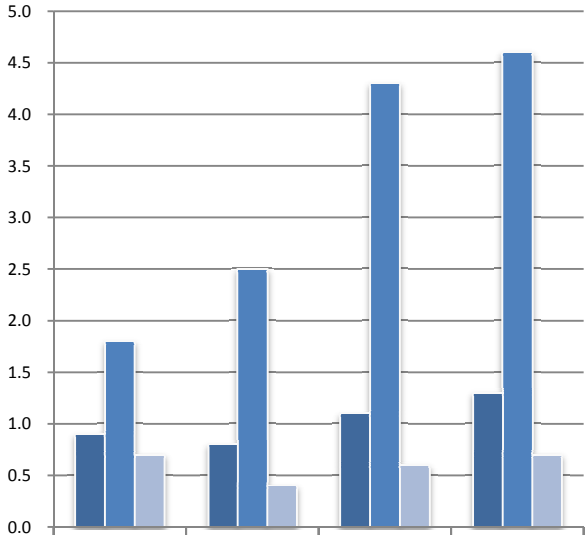
Thailand

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



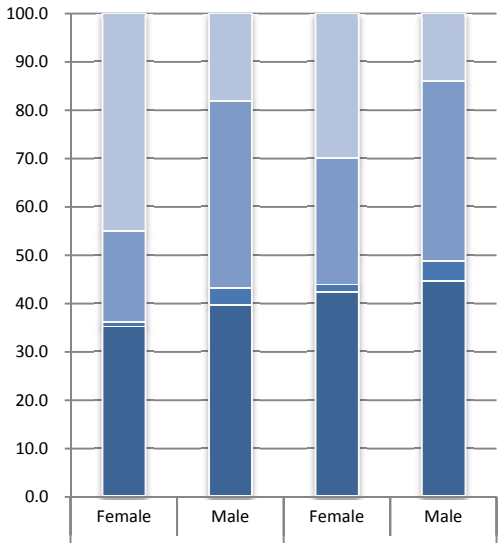
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	86.9	78.6	97.9	98.3	84.8	42.7
Male 2008	81.0	57.2	95.0	96.3	80.6	38.9
Female 1980	75.5	75.2	86.4	86.9	56.0	14.4
Female 2008	65.9	40.6	83.3	83.5	56.2	23.5

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1997 and 2007



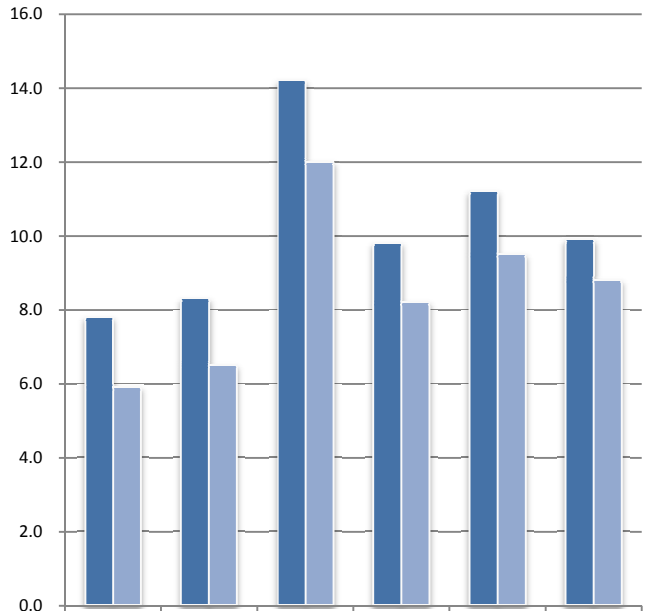
	1997		2007	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (15+)	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.3
Youth (15-24)	1.8	2.5	4.3	4.6
Adult (25+)	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.7

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 1997 and 2007



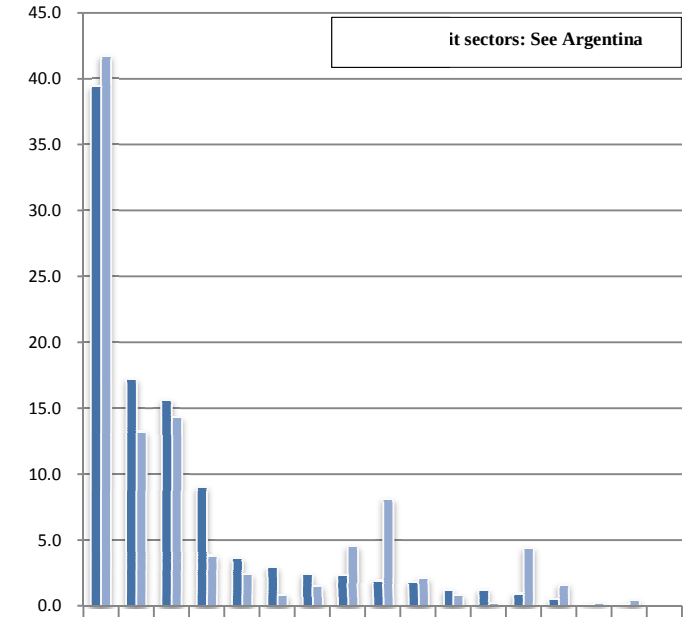
	1997		2007	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	45.1	18.1	29.9	14.0
Own-account workers	18.9	38.8	26.2	37.2
Employers	0.9	3.4	1.5	4.2
Employees	35.2	39.7	42.4	44.6

Part-time employment rate (%), 1995-2000



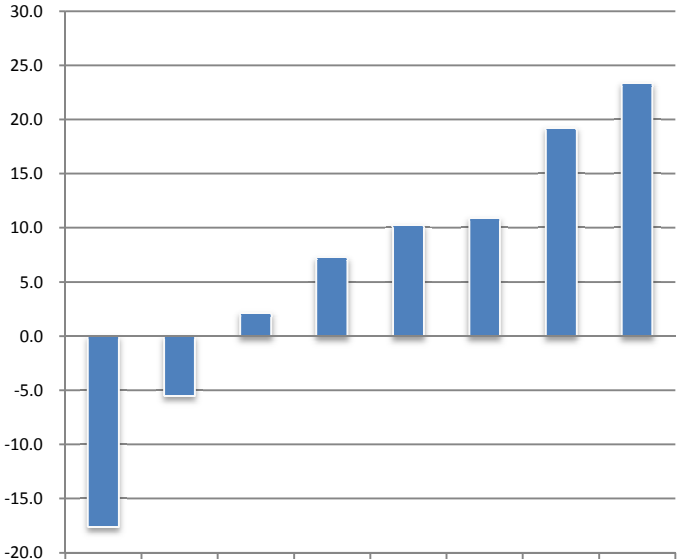
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Female	7.8	8.3	14.2	9.8	11.2	9.9
Male	5.9	6.5	12.0	8.2	9.5	8.8

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2007



	A	D	G	H	M	N	O	L	F	K	J	P	I	B	C	E	Q
Female	39.4	17.2	15.6	9.0	3.6	2.9	2.4	2.3	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.0
Male	41.7	13.2	14.3	3.8	2.4	0.8	1.5	4.5	8.1	2.1	0.8	0.2	4.4	1.6	0.2	0.4	0.0

Gender wage differential in selected occupations (%), 2006



	Hotel recep-tionist	Stenog-rapher-typist	Labourer	Office clerk	First-level educa-tion teacher	Room atten-dant or chamber - maid	Accoun-tant	Com-puter program.
GWD	-17.6	-5.5	2.2	7.3	10.2	10.9	19.2	23.4

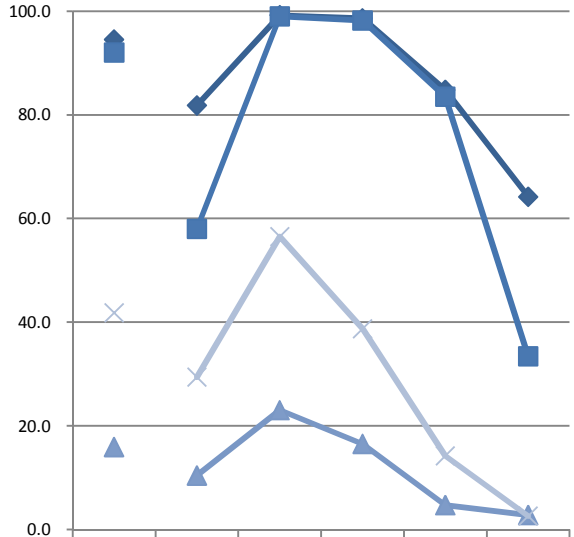
Main findings

- LFPRs in Thailand are relatively high for both sexes but showed a declining trend between 1980 and 2008. The female rate in 2008 was 65.9 per cent compared to 81.0 per cent for men. The overall decreases seem to be mainly driven by the youth cohort (15-24 years) and are likely to reflect a situation in which youth are increasingly staying in education. The patterns of LFPRs across the life span of men and women are similar, with male rates approximately 15 percentage points higher than female rates.
- Unemployment rates in Thailand increased between 1997 and 2007 for both sexes but remained low at 1.1 and 1.3 per cent for women and men, respectively. The ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rates increased by 4.6 points for women over the period while for men it remained more or less constant.
- Between 1997 and 2007 there was a fairly sharp decline in the share of women engaged as contributing family workers, with more women shifting into own-account and wage and salaried work. Still, the share of women in unpaid family work remained high at 29.9 per cent in 2007.
- Part-time employment rates are not high in Thailand, which is not surprising given the comparatively low shares of wage and salaried employment. Part-time employment rates were slightly higher for women than men throughout the period 1995-2000.
- Gender sectoral segregation is not as present in Thailand compared to other countries. Women and men alike are most likely employed in agriculture, manufacturing or wholesale and retail trade.
- The average male worker received higher wages than the female for six of the occupations with available (and comparable) data. The gender wage differentials were highest among the most highly skilled of the occupations, accountants and computer programmers. Only for hotel receptionists and stenographers were wages higher for women than men.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 5, 8a, 9 and 16a. Data for Thailand are based on a quarterly labour force survey.

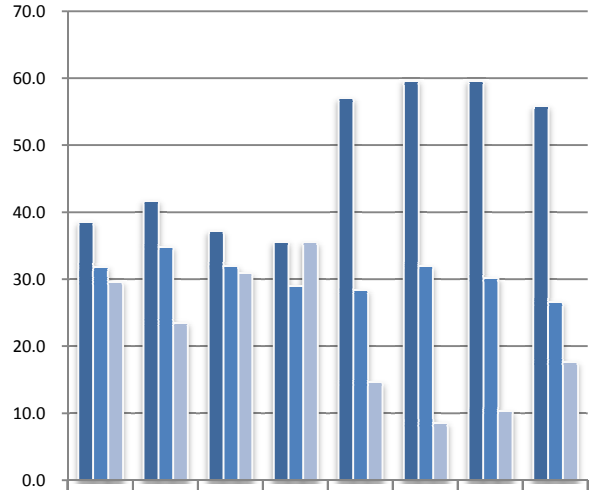
United Arab Emirates

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



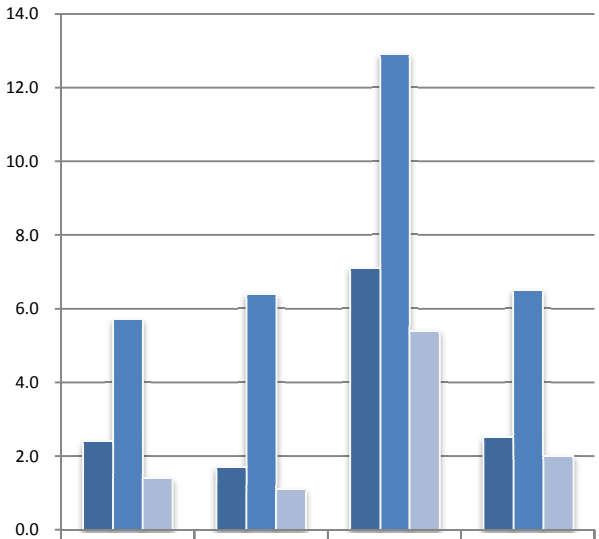
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	94.5	81.8	99.2	98.6	84.8	64.2
Male 2008	92.0	58.0	99.0	98.2	83.5	33.4
Female 1980	15.9	10.4	23.0	16.5	4.7	2.8
Female 2008	41.8	29.4	56.5	38.7	14.2	2.6

Distribution of labour force by level of educational attainment (%), 2005



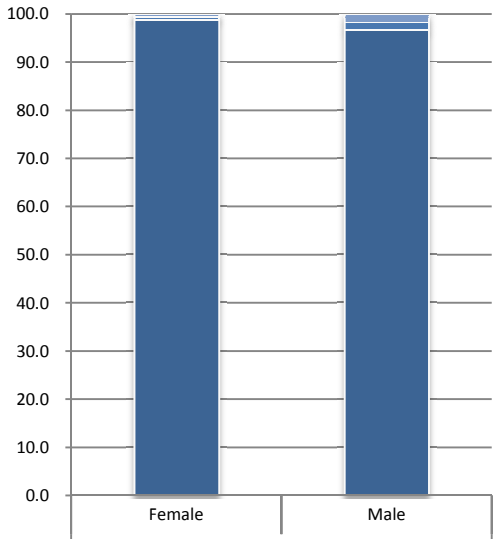
	Female				Male			
	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)	Total (15+)	Youth (15-29)	Young adult (25-29)	Adult (30+)
Primary or less	38.5	41.7	37.2	35.6	57.0	59.6	59.6	55.8
Secondary	31.8	34.8	31.9	29.0	28.3	31.9	30.2	26.5
Tertiary	29.6	23.5	30.9	35.5	14.6	8.5	10.3	17.6

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 1995 and 2005



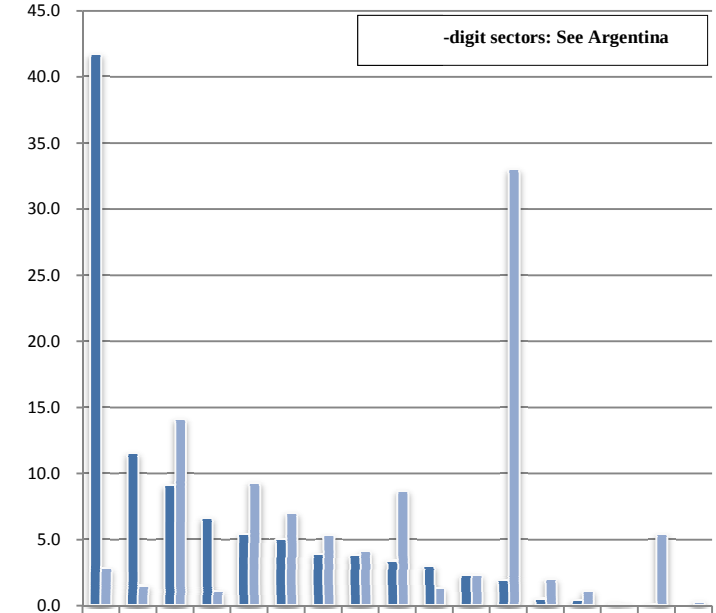
	1995		2005	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (15+)	2.4	1.7	7.1	2.5
Youth (15-24)	5.7	6.4	12.9	6.5
Adult (25+)	1.4	1.1	5.4	2.0

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 2005



	2005	
	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	0.0	0.0
Own-account workers	0.5	1.7
Employers	0.7	1.6
Employees	98.7	96.6

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2005



	P	M	G	N	L	I	K	H	D	J	O	F	C	E	Q	A	B
Female	41.7	11.5	9.1	6.6	5.4	5.0	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.0	2.3	1.9	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.0
Male	2.8	1.5	14.1	1.1	9.3	7.0	5.3	4.1	8.7	1.3	2.3	33.0	2.0	1.1	0.1	5.4	0.3

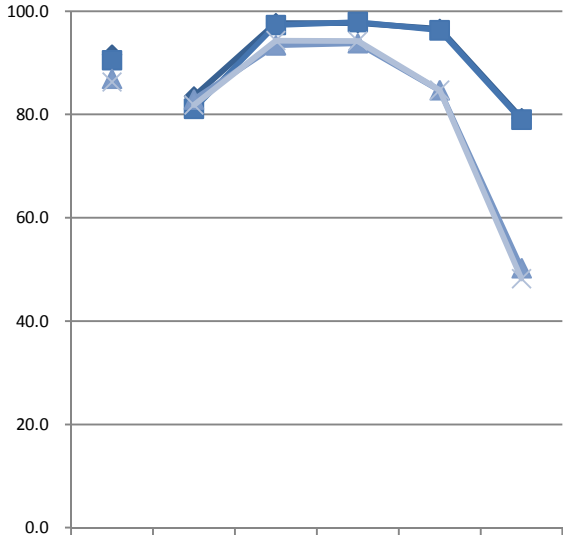
Main findings

- The enormous difference between the female and male LFPRs (15+) in 1980 (78.6 percentage points) had declined considerable by 2008 as the female LFPR increased more than three-fold from 15.9 to 41.8 per cent in the latter year. Still, the male-female gap remained substantial at 50.2 percentage points. The largest increase in female LFPR was among women aged 25 to 34 years, many of which are likely to be non-nationals.
- There is less skills/education variation among women in the labour force compared to men. For men in the labour force, 57 per cent were educated at the primary level or less while only 14.6 per cent were educated at the tertiary level in 2005. There were more women with primary education than tertiary education in the female labour force but the difference in the shares was much less than the corresponding difference for men.
- Unemployment rates (15+) were significantly higher for women than men in 2005 (7.1 per cent for women and 2.5 per cent for men) and the increase in the rates since 1995 was larger for women.
- The structure of employment in UAE is dominated by formal enterprises engaging wage and salaried workers. The shares of female and male workers engaged in wage and salaried employment were 98.7 and 96.6 per cent, respectively, in 2005. Self-employment is virtually non-existent as an employment option for women in the country and only nominally more so for men.
- The majority of female workers – 41.7 per cent – were engaged as domestic workers in private households in 2005. As already stated, most of these are likely to be non-nationals. The largest employer of men in UAE was the construction sector, another sector that attracts a significant number of foreign labourers.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 8a, 9 and 14a. Data for the United Arab Emirates are based on periodic population censuses.

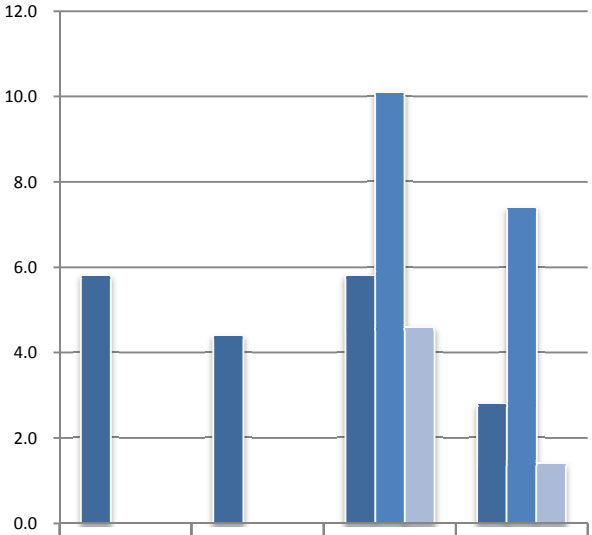
United Republic of Tanzania

Labour force participation rate (%) by age group, 1980 and 2008



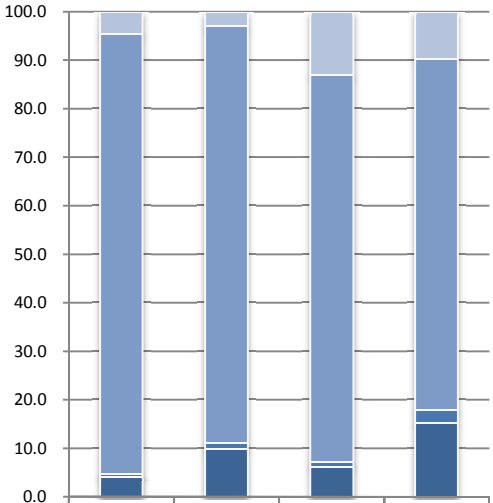
	15+	15-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	65+
Male 1980	91.6	83.5	97.7	97.7	96.6	79.3
Male 2008	90.5	81.1	97.3	97.9	96.3	79.0
Female 1980	86.9	82.9	93.4	93.8	84.7	50.2
Female 2008	86.3	81.8	94.3	94.2	84.7	48.2

Unemployment rate (%), total, youth and adult, 2001 and 2006



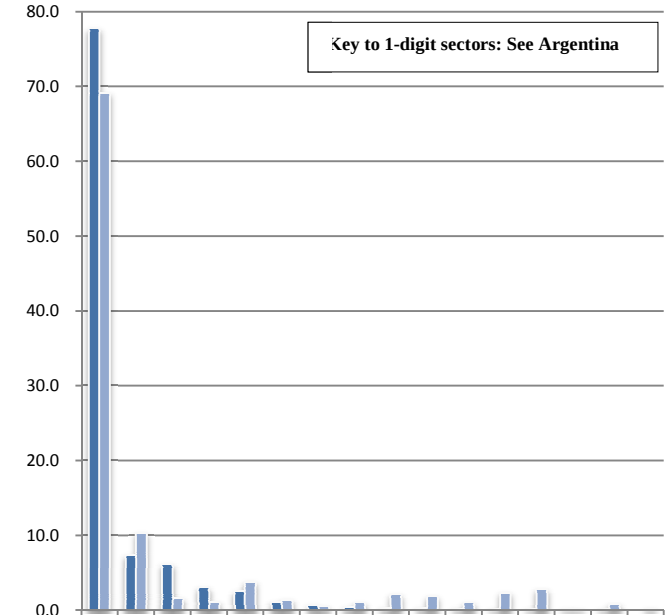
	2001		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total (10+)	5.8	4.4	5.8	2.8
Youth (15-24)			10.1	7.4
Adult (25+)			4.6	1.4

Distribution of total employment by status in employment (%), 2001 and 2006



	2001		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Contributing family workers	4.6	3.0	13.0	9.7
Own-account workers	90.8	85.9	79.9	72.4
Employers	0.6	1.3	1.0	2.6
Employees	4.0	9.8	6.1	15.3

Distribution of employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev. 3, 1990) (%), 2006



	A	G	P	H	D	M	N	O	B	L	C	F	I	J	K	E
Female	77.7	7.3	6.1	3.0	2.5	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Male	69.1	10.3	1.6	1.1	3.8	1.4	0.5	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.0	2.3	2.8	0.1	0.8	0.2

Main findings

- There is little difference in the total female and male LFPRs (15+) in the United Republic of Tanzania and rates for both sexes declined slightly between 1980 and 2008. Rates remained high for both men and women at 90.5 and 86.3 per cent, respectively, in 2008. The main difference between the sexes with regards to labour force participation is the tendency for women to withdraw from the labour force at an earlier age than men. Still, even among the elderly (65+), the male and female LFPRs were 79.0 and 48.2 per cent, respectively.
- The unemployment rate (10+) of women remained the same at 5.8 per cent between 2001 and 2006 while the male rate declined from 4.4 to 2.8 per cent. The ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rates were 2.2 and 5.3 per cent for women and men, respectively.
- In Tanzania, the majority of employed persons were own-account workers both in 2001 and 2006, although the shares declined for both sexes over the period. The largest increases for both men and women were in the share of contributing family workers. Women were more likely than men to engage in contributing family and own-account work, while men had a stronger tendency to gain wage and salaried employment.
- Agriculture, most likely at the near subsistence level, is clearly the dominant sector in Tanzania, engaging as much as 77.7 and 69.1 per cent of female and male workers, respectively, in 2006.

Source: KILM tables 1a, 3, 4b, 8a and 9. Data for the United Republic of Tanzania are based on an annual labour force survey.

Annex 1. Inventory of analyses of labour market information relating specifically to women in the existing KILM editions

Name of figures specific to gender	Description	KILM edition (page)
Labour force participation rate (KILM 1)		
Figure 1c. Labour force participation rates of females aged 15 years and over, latest years	Demonstrates the variation in female labour force participation rates among all countries.	1st (21)/2nd (19)
Figure 1e/a-b. Labour force participation rates of females aged 15 years, and over/25-54 years, and GDP per capita at purchasing power parity (PPP), 1990/1980-2003	Demonstrates the relationship between female/prime-aged female labour force participation rates and the GDP per capita at PPP level.	1st (22)/4th (83)
Figure 1g. Typical regional labour force participation across age groups, females	Demonstrates the age patterns of labour force participation (one country example per region).	1st (23)
Figure 1b. Percentage point gap between labour force participation rates of men and women aged 15 years and over, latest years	Demonstrates the variation in percentage point gaps in male and female labour force participation rates among all countries.	3rd (57)
Figure 1c/b. Female labour force participation rates by age group, selected economies, 2003/2006	Demonstrates the female labour force participation rates over the life cycle for selected economies.	3rd (57)/4th (84)/5th (73)
Figure 1b. Labour force participation rates, by sex and KILM region, 2008	Demonstrates the distance the countries in the KILM regions have from the gender parity line, in terms of labour force participation rates.	6th (91)
Employment-to-population ratio (KILM 2)		
Figure 2d. Employment-to-population ratios, females, 1990-97/1990-2000	Presents the trends in female employment-to-population ratio for selected economies.	1st (56)/2nd (52)
Figure 2b. Employment-to-population ratio of males and females by regional groupings, latest years	Demonstrates the distance of the employment-to-population ratio of males and females from the 1:1 diagonal line, in the KILM regions.	3rd (90)
Figure 2b. Female employment-to-population ratios, selected countries, 1990-2003	Shows the time series for the few countries in the regions of low female employment-to-population ratios, where comparable time data are available.	4th (144)
Figure 2b. Economies with female employment-to-population ratios below 30 per cent or above 70 per cent, 2006	Shows the economies with very low and with high female employment-to-population ratios.	5th (107)
Figure 2b. Male-female differences in employment-to-population ratios, selected countries, latest years	Demonstrates the gender percentage point differences that accompany employment ratios for selected economies.	6th (119)
Status in employment (KILM 3)		
Figure 3c. Distribution of total employment by status, excluding wage and salaried workers, by sex, selected countries of the European Union, 2008	Focuses attention on the non-wage and salaried categories, and shows who is more likely to be an employer and to perform unpaid work within a family establishment (contributing family workers).	6th (149)
Employment by sector (KILM 4)		
Figures 4d-f. Proportion of male and female workers in industry - services sector - agriculture, latest year	Presents the proportions of men and women in the three broad sectors, 25 selected economies.	1st (99/100/101)
Figure 4c. Employment distribution by sector, for males and females, latest years	Presents the distribution of employment by sector for both sexes.	3rd (143)

Name of figures specific to gender	Description	KILM edition (page)
Figure 4b. Shifts employment by sector in Mexico, 1991-2003	Demonstrates how a review of the more detailed sectoral employment data can reveal which sectors are showing signs of growth or decline.	4th (194)
Figure 4c. Sectoral growth rates in selected developed economies, 1995-2005	Shows average growth rates from 1995 to 2005 for a group of developed economies for all sectors (ISIC Rev. 3), for both sexes and separately.	5th (161)
Part-time workers (KILM 5)		
Figure 5b. Female share of part-time employment, 1996	Demonstrates the proportion of females in total part-time employment for 43 countries with data available.	1st (132)
Figure 5c. Male and female incidence of part-time employment in 43 countries, 1996	Demonstrates the proportions of males and females in part-time employment for 43 countries with data available.	1st (133)
Figure 5d-e/c. Female part-time employment to total employment ratios and labour force participation rates in selected developed (industrialized) - transition economies, Asian, and Latin American and Caribbean countries, latest year/Share of part-time work and labour force participation rates of females, 1999	Demonstrates the relationship between female part-time employment to total employment ratios and labour force participation rates, in various regions of the world.	1st (134/135)/2nd (191)
Figure 5c/b. Female share of part-time employment, regional averages, 1995 and 1999-2001/1991, 1995, 1999 and 2003/1990, 1995, 2000 and 2005	Presents the evolution of the female share in part-time employment at the regional level.	3rd (225)/4th (283)/5th (252)
Figure 5b. Female part-time employment rates and employment-to-population ratios in countries in the Developed Economies & European Union and Latin America & the Caribbean, latest years	Presents the relationship between female part-time employment and employment-to-population ratios in two major regions of the world.	4th (282)
Figure 5c. Female part-time employment rates, employment-to-population ratios and time-related underemployment rates, latest years	Shows the relationship between female part-time employment rates, employment-to-population ratios and time-related underemployment rates.	5th (253)
Figure 5a. Female part-time employment rates and female shares of part-time employment, OECD countries, 2007	Demonstrates the relationship between part-time employment rates and the female share of part-time employment.	6th (277)
Figure 5b. Female part-time employment rates and female shares of part-time employment between 2000 and 2007, selected countries	Demonstrates the relationship between female part-time employment rates and the female share in part-time employment in countries in northern and southern Europe, including time.	6th (278)
Hours of work (KILM 6)		
Figure 6a/b. Percentage of males and females usually working less than 10/more than 40 hours per week, 1996	Compares the percentages of males and females usually working less than 10/more than 40 hours per week across 33 countries.	1st (147/148)
Figure 6a. Percentage of males and females working more than 40 hours per week by regional grouping, latest years	Compares the percentages of men and women working more than 40 hours.	3rd (239)
Figure 6a. Percentages of persons working "excessive hours" (more than 50 hours per week), selected countries in Central America and the Caribbean, by sex, latest years	Compares the percentages of persons working "excessive hours" in nine countries.	4th (300)
Figure 6a. Percentage of males and females working more than 40 hours per week, latest years	Demonstrates the relationship between the percentage of males and females working more than 40 hours per week.	5th (270)
Employment in the informal sector (KILM 7)		
Figure 7b. Female share of employment in the informal sector, selected countries, latest years (≥ 1999)	Demonstrates the female share of informal sector employment for a selection of countries.	6th (342)

Name of figures specific to gender	Description	KILM edition (page)
Unemployment (KILM 8)		
Figure 8d. Unemployment rates, females, latest year	Demonstrates the variation in female unemployment rates among all countries of the world.	1st (197)
Figure 8b. Net change in female unemployment rates, earliest (after 1989) to latest years	Demonstrates the variation in the net changes in female unemployment rates all over the world.	2nd (258)
Figure 8c. ILO-comparable unemployment rates for males and females, 1990 and 2001/2003/2005	Compares the unemployment rates of males and females, using the ILO-comparable unemployment rate.	3rd (290)/4th (376)/5th (346)
Youth unemployment (KILM 9)		
Figure 9c. Youth unemployment rates, females, latest year	Demonstrates the variation in young female unemployment rates among all countries of the world.	1st (235)
Figure 9b. Female to male percentage point gaps in youth unemployment rates, latest years	Demonstrates the variation in the female to male percentage point gap in youth unemployment rates all over the world.	2nd (311)
Figure 9c. Youth unemployment rates by gender for selected countries, latest years	Presents countries where youth unemployment rates differ the most between males and females.	5th (399)
Figure 9b. Countries with ratios of youth-to-adult unemployment rates greater or equal to 3.5, by sex, latest years (≥ 2004)	Presents the countries where the ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rates of either males or females was 3.5 or higher, indicating a significant structural imbalance in the youth labour market.	6th (415)
Long-term unemployment (KILM 10)		
Figure 10b. Long-term unemployment rates by sex, countries in Central and Eastern Europe (non-EU), Central America and the Caribbean/selected countries in Latin America & the Caribbean, latest years	Compares the long-term unemployment rates of males and females for countries in major regions of the world.	4th (454)/5th (428)
Figure 10a. Incidence of long-term unemployment, selected countries in Developed Economies & European Union, by sex, 2007	Presents the differences in incidences of long-term unemployment for males and females.	6th (442)
Unemployment by educational attainment (KILM 11)		
Figure 11d. Male-to-female ratio of unemployment by educational attainment (adjusted by labour force share of educational attainment), latest years	Demonstrates the unequal distribution of unemployment between men and women by educational attainment.	2nd (355)
Figure 11b. Share of total unemployment by educational attainment, males and females, 2001	Compares male and female unemployment by level of educational attainment, for economies of similar economic development.	3rd (376)
Figure 11c-e. Female versus male unemployment rates of workers with primary (or less) level education/secondary level education/tertiary level education, latest years	Provides a gender-based analysis of unemployment rates by level of education.	6th (458/459)
Time-related underemployment (KILM 11)		
Figure 12b. Time-related underemployment rate and unemployment rate, females, latest year	Presents the rates of time-related underemployment and unemployment for 36 economies.	1st (287)
Figure 12b. Percentage point change in time-related underemployment rates, males and females, earliest (after 1989) to latest years	Illustrates the percentage point change in time-related underemployment rates.	2nd (376)
Figure 12c. Percentage point change in underemployment and unemployment rates, males and females, earliest (after 1989) to latest years	Depicts the percentage point change in underemployment and unemployment rates, showing that the two measures can move in different directions.	2nd (377)
Figure 12a. Percentage point change in incidence of time-related underemployment,	Shows that the two measures of unemployment and time-related underemployment do not always move in the same	3rd (400)

Name of figures specific to gender	Description	KILM edition (page)
males and females, earliest to latest years (after 1989, with a span covering at least 4 years)	direction.	
Figure 12a. Time-related underemployment for males and females, latest years	Shows how likely women in part-time employment are to be seeking more hours than their male counterparts (indicated by the points to the right of the diagonal line).	5th (466)
Figure 12b. Female share of time-related underemployment in Germany and Italy, 1997-2007	Shows how women in Italy and Germany bear the larger burden of the underemployment.	6th (496)
Inactivity (KILM 13)		
Figure 13d. Inactivity rates, females, latest year	Demonstrates the variation in female inactivity rates among all countries of the world.	1st (305)
Figure 13d/a. Inactivity rates for the female population aged 25 to 54 years, latest years/2006/2008	Demonstrates the variation in prime-aged female inactivity rates among all countries of the world.	2nd (396)/5th (481)/6th (511)
Figure 13c/b. Percentage change in inactivity rates of the female population aged 25 to 54 years, earliest (after 1989) to latest years/1996-2006/1998-2008	Presents the variation in percentage point changes in female inactivity rates among all countries of the world (which have driven the overall change in inactivity rates) over the latest decade.	3rd (414)/5th (482)/6th (512)
Educational attainment and illiteracy (KILM 14)		
Figure 14a. Distribution of male and female labour force by level of educational attainment, 2001/2002	Presents the distribution of male and female labour force by level of educational attainment.	3rd (442)/4th (545)
Figure 14c. Economies with illiteracy rates of 50 per cent or over, 2001	Demonstrates the problem of illiteracy in 20 economies, by sex.	3rd (444)
Figure 14c/b. Countries with youth or adult illiteracy rates in excess of 30 per cent, by sex	Shows countries (with similar definitions of illiteracy) which reported an illiteracy rate for either youth or adults, or both, in excess of 30 per cent.	4th (547)/5th (516)
Figure 14a/b. Distribution of male and female labour force by level of educational attainment, 2005/2007	Plots the male and female labour force shares across three education levels – primary or less, secondary and tertiary.	5th (515)/6th (547)
Manufacturing wage indices (KILM 15)		
Figure 15e. Real manufacturing wage trends (ILO series) in Ireland, the Republic of Korea and Singapore, 1980 and 1990-97	Demonstrates wage differences through time of real manufacturing wages for men and women.	1st (375)
Figure 15a. Percentage change in real/nominal wages, selected economies, 1990-2001/2000-2005	Shows the trends and compares the variation in male and female real wages/nominal (manufacturing, sorted according to the difference between female and male wage growth) wages.	3rd (499)/5th (562)
Figure 15a. Percentage change in nominal manufacturing wages, by sex, selected economies, 2000-07	Demonstrates the percentage change in male and female nominal manufacturing wages.	6th (587)
Occupational wage and earnings indices (KILM 16)		
Figure 16e. Female wages as a percentage of male wages, selected economies, latest years	Shows the female wages as a percentage of male wages for the same occupation for the latest year available in 11 economies.	2nd (524)
Figure 16c. Female occupational earnings as percentage of male earnings, United States, 1990-2000	Demonstrates the lag in female earnings in all occupations in comparison to males, and shows the evolution of the gap over time.	3rd (535)
Figure 16b. Female occupational wages as a percentage of male wages, Finland, 2004	Shows the female wages in Finland which lagged behind those of males in all occupations in 2004 except for urban motor truck drivers and sewing-machine operators.	5th (591)

Name of figures specific to gender	Description	KILM edition (page)
Figure 16c. Real wage indices for 17 occupations in United Kingdom, male and female, 2007	Presents the relatively equitable distribution of real wages in the United Kingdom for the 17 occupations.	6th (616)
Employment elasticities (KILM 19)		
Figure 19b. Female versus male employment elasticities, by region, 2004-08	Shows the variation across countries between female and male employment elasticities over the 2004-08 period.	6th (864)

Annex 2. Global and regional tables

The source of all tables is the ILO Trends Econometric Models, November 2009, as described in section 1, "A note on the data". 2009 data are preliminary estimates. For a full description of the methodology for the production of global and regional estimates, see *GET 2010*, Annex 4.

Table 2a. Global labour market indicators, 1999, 2008 and 2009

	Female			Male			Total		
	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009
Labour force (millions)	1'084.4	1'268.0	1'284.8	1'652.7	1'898.7	1'928.1	2'737.1	3'166.7	3'212.9
Employment (millions)	1'011.2	1'190.2	1'195.3	1'550.8	1'791.6	1'806.1	2'561.9	2'981.8	3'001.4
Unemployment (millions)	73.2	77.8	89.5	102.0	107.1	122.0	175.2	184.9	211.5
Inactive population (millions)	1'010.0	1'182.8	1'203.3	432.8	544.0	552.5	1'442.7	1'726.8	1'755.7
Working-age population (millions)	2'094.4	2'450.8	2'488.1	2'085.5	2'442.7	2'480.6	4'179.9	4'893.5	4'968.7
Labour force participation rate (%)	51.8	51.7	51.6	79.2	77.7	77.7	65.5	64.7	64.7
Employment-to-population ratio (%)	48.3	48.6	48.0	74.4	73.3	72.8	61.3	60.9	60.4
Unemployment rate (%)	6.8	6.1	7.0	6.2	5.6	6.3	6.4	5.8	6.6
Inactivity rate (%)	48.2	48.3	48.4	20.8	22.3	22.3	34.5	35.3	35.3

Table 2b. Male and female labour force participation rates, 1991, 1999, 2008 and 2009, and the gender gap in economically active females per 100 males, 2009

	Female LFPR (%)				Male LFPR (%)				Number of economically active females per 100 economically active males
	1991	1999	2008	2009	1991	1999	2008	2009	2009
World	52.3	51.8	51.7	51.6	80.6	79.2	77.7	77.7	66.6
Developed Economies & European Union	50.6	51.8	53.2	52.9	72.5	70.4	69.2	68.6	81.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	54.4	49.8	50.7	50.6	74.1	69.1	69.3	69.0	83.2
East Asia	71.5	69.9	66.6	66.5	84.5	83.5	79.3	79.4	80.3
South-East Asia & the Pacific	58.8	58.0	57.4	57.4	83.1	83.1	81.7	82.0	72.0
South Asia	35.4	34.3	35.1	34.9	84.4	82.9	81.5	81.6	40.6
Latin America & the Caribbean	41.8	46.6	51.6	51.7	82.0	80.7	80.1	79.7	68.1
Middle East	18.6	22.6	24.9	25.4	78.6	75.8	74.4	75.3	30.6
North Africa	25.0	26.6	27.5	27.4	76.5	76.4	75.5	76.4	36.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	58.8	60.4	62.1	62.6	81.9	81.4	81.2	81.2	79.2

Table 2c. Male and female unemployment rates, total and youth, 1999, 2008 and 2009

	Unemployment rate (%)											
	Female total			Male total			Female youth			Male youth		
	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009
World	6.8	6.1	7.0	6.2	5.6	6.3	12.9	12.4	13.6	12.5	11.9	13.2
Developed Economies & European Union	7.6	6.1	8.6	6.6	6.0	8.2	13.8	12.2	15.6	14.1	13.8	19.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	12.8	8.1	9.8	12.1	8.3	10.6	24.1	17.8	21.2	21.7	16.5	21.7
East Asia	3.9	3.6	3.7	5.3	4.9	5.0	7.7	7.3	7.5	10.6	10.1	10.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	5.1	5.5	5.9	5.1	5.2	5.5	13.4	15.2	16.1	12.9	13.9	14.7
South Asia	4.6	5.6	5.9	4.2	4.5	4.8	10.2	10.7	11.4	9.7	9.5	10.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	10.8	8.8	10.1	7.1	5.8	6.9	19.8	18.3	21.0	13.0	11.7	13.5
Middle East	14.4	14.7	15.0	7.9	7.5	7.7	26.7	29.3	30.1	18.3	18.6	19.2
North Africa	18.2	14.8	15.6	11.3	8.2	8.6	32.7	30.9	33.1	24.8	20.3	21.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	8.9	8.5	8.8	7.6	7.6	7.8	13.4	12.8	13.1	11.9	11.8	12.1

Table 2d. Male and female employment-to-population ratios, total and youth, 1999, 2008 and 2009

	Employment-to-population ratio (%)											
	Female total			Male total			Female youth			Male youth		
	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009	1999	2008	2009
World	48.3	48.6	48.0	74.4	73.3	72.8	39.5	37.2	36.7	55.2	51.8	51.3
Developed Economies & European Union	47.8	49.9	48.3	65.8	65.0	63.0	43.0	42.4	40.3	47.8	45.7	42.4
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	43.4	46.6	45.6	60.8	63.5	61.7	28.0	28.9	27.9	39.3	39.7	37.3
East Asia	67.2	64.2	64.0	79.1	75.5	75.4	64.6	56.7	57.0	60.1	50.6	51.2
South-East Asia & the Pacific	55.0	54.2	54.0	78.9	77.5	77.5	42.3	36.8	36.6	56.5	50.9	50.7
South Asia	32.7	33.1	32.8	79.4	77.8	77.7	26.2	24.7	24.3	59.9	58.0	57.7
Latin America & the Caribbean	41.6	47.0	46.5	75.0	75.4	74.3	33.6	34.8	33.7	58.6	55.5	53.5
Middle East	19.3	21.3	21.6	69.8	68.8	69.5	14.8	15.2	15.1	43.0	40.4	40.9
North Africa	21.8	23.4	23.1	67.8	69.3	69.9	17.0	15.8	15.4	40.2	40.6	41.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	55.1	56.8	57.1	75.2	75.0	74.8	44.4	45.1	45.2	56.4	55.5	55.3

Table 2e. Male and female employment by sector (as share of total employment), 1999 and 2008*

	Employment in agriculture (%)		Employment in industry (%)		Employment in services (%)	
Female	**1999**	**2008**	**1999**	**2008**	**1999**	**2008**
World	43.4	37.1	15.5	16.1	41.2	46.9
Developed Economies & European Union	4.8	3.0	15.8	12.4	79.4	84.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	30.6	19.3	19.3	16.0	50.2	64.6
East Asia	53.9	42.1	20.3	24.0	25.8	33.9
South-East Asia & the Pacific	50.9	44.5	13.5	14.4	35.6	41.1
South Asia	74.9	69.9	11.2	13.7	13.9	16.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	14.1	10.0	13.5	13.9	72.4	76.1
Middle East	32.6	34.6	18.6	16.7	48.7	48.7
North Africa	27.5	33.6	16.1	15.6	56.5	50.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	66.4	61.1	5.4	6.6	28.1	32.3
Male	**1999**	**2008**	**1999**	**2008**	**1999**	**2008**
World	38.8	33.1	24.1	26.4	37.2	40.4
Developed Economies & European Union	6.1	4.4	36.6	34.4	57.3	61.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	28.1	19.8	30.9	32.1	41.1	48.1
East Asia	42.8	34.1	26.8	31.2	30.4	34.6
South-East Asia & the Pacific	49.0	44.5	18.1	20.3	32.9	35.2
South Asia	53.3	44.3	17.1	22.4	29.6	33.2
Latin America & the Caribbean	27.3	21.7	25.6	28.6	47.1	49.8
Middle East	17.7	14.9	27.5	28.8	54.9	56.4
North Africa	30.0	26.3	21.7	24.4	48.2	49.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	65.2	61.8	10.8	12.0	24.0	26.3

* 2009 estimates are not yet available for this indicator.

Table 2f. Male and female status in employment (as share of total employment), 1999, 2008 and 2009

	Wage and salaried workers (%)			Employers (%)			Own-account workers (%)			Contributing family workers (%)			Vulnerable employment (%)		
Female	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**
World	42.8	47.2	47.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	24.3	26.9	26.9	31.6	24.4	24.3	55.9	51.3	51.2
Developed Economies & European Union	87.4	89.4	89.2	2.4	2.2	2.1	6.5	6.2	6.2	3.7	2.2	2.4	10.1	8.4	8.7
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	75.0	80.7	83.1	0.6	1.0	0.9	15.6	13.5	10.9	8.8	4.8	5.1	24.4	18.3	16.1
East Asia	32.7	40.8	42.1	1.1	1.4	1.5	27.7	33.6	33.7	38.5	24.2	22.7	66.1	57.8	56.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	28.1	33.7	35.0	0.9	1.2	1.3	25.7	30.2	28.9	45.3	34.9	34.7	71.0	65.1	63.7
South Asia	10.4	14.5	15.2	0.5	0.8	0.9	25.7	33.3	33.0	63.4	51.4	50.9	89.1	84.7	84.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	62.8	67.2	66.0	2.2	2.6	2.8	25.1	22.4	22.5	9.8	7.7	8.7	35.0	30.2	31.1
Middle East	38.4	49.5	49.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	36.7	28.2	28.7	23.6	21.0	20.8	60.3	49.2	49.5
North Africa	44.6	41.2	41.3	3.2	3.0	2.9	13.8	15.3	15.4	38.4	40.6	40.4	52.2	55.8	55.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	12.3	16.2	15.8	0.5	0.7	0.6	50.1	44.2	44.7	37.1	38.9	38.9	87.2	83.1	83.5
Male	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**	**1999**	**2008**	**2009**
World	44.9	48.6	48.6	3.5	3.1	3.2	38.4	37.1	37.2	13.2	11.2	11.0	51.6	48.3	48.2
Developed Economies & European Union	82.7	84.1	84.1	5.7	5.2	5.0	10.5	10.1	10.1	1.1	0.7	0.7	11.6	10.7	10.8
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	72.0	76.5	77.9	2.4	2.9	2.5	21.7	18.7	17.5	3.8	1.8	2.1	25.5	20.6	19.5
East Asia	42.1	48.9	50.0	2.5	1.6	1.6	39.6	37.1	36.7	15.8	12.3	11.7	55.4	49.5	48.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	34.1	39.0	39.3	3.9	3.3	3.8	48.2	46.3	46.4	13.7	11.3	10.5	62.0	57.6	56.9
South Asia	21.7	24.5	25.1	2.2	1.7	1.8	59.1	58.8	58.8	17.0	15.0	14.2	76.1	73.8	73.1
Latin America & the Caribbean	59.7	62.9	61.9	5.3	5.5	5.8	29.0	27.2	27.5	6.0	4.4	4.7	35.0	31.6	32.2
Middle East	51.3	59.0	58.6	5.6	6.0	6.3	24.1	17.9	17.9	19.1	17.1	17.2	43.1	35.0	35.1
North Africa	48.6	55.5	55.6	12.5	12.7	13.4	18.0	14.5	14.1	20.9	17.3	17.0	38.9	31.8	31.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	21.8	29.0	28.9	1.2	1.4	1.5	50.7	46.5	46.6	26.3	23.1	23.0	77.0	69.6	69.6