LMF1.6: Gender differences in employment outcomes

This indicator presents gender differences in employment outcomes, in terms of i) part-time employment; ii) temporary employment; iii) differences by educational attainment and; iv) the distribution of workers across occupations.

I) Part-time employment:

Definitions and methodology

Data on part-time employment rates are taken from the OECD Employment database and ELFS for EU-countries outside the OECD. Part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job (see comparability and data issues).

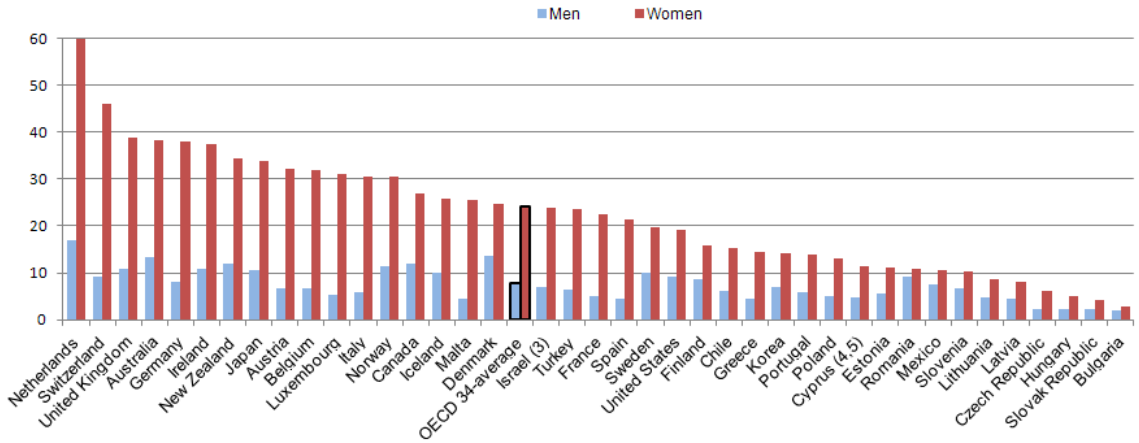
Gender gaps in employment rates – the difference between employment rates of men and women – are presented. In addition, to get better insight into the differences between the sexes, gender gaps are also presented as differences in the full-time equivalent (FTE) rates. This is the difference between men and women if they were all working for 30 hours or more per week in their main job. The full-time equivalent rate here is defined as: *FTE = Proportion of men (or women) in paid employment * proportion of men (or women) in full-time employment.* Full-time employment is defined as employment that usually involves more than 30 hours of

Key findings

Chart LMF1.6.A shows the incidence of part-time employment by gender. In all countries the incidence of part-time employment is much higher for women than for men. Part-time employment is most common among female workers in the Netherlands or Switzerland, where the gender gap in part-time employment is also very high. By contrast, part-time employment is rare in Hungary and the Slovak Republic, where the incidence of part-time employment is around 5% or less for both male and female workers.

Chart LMF1.6.A: Incidence of part-time employment[1], 2009[2]

Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment

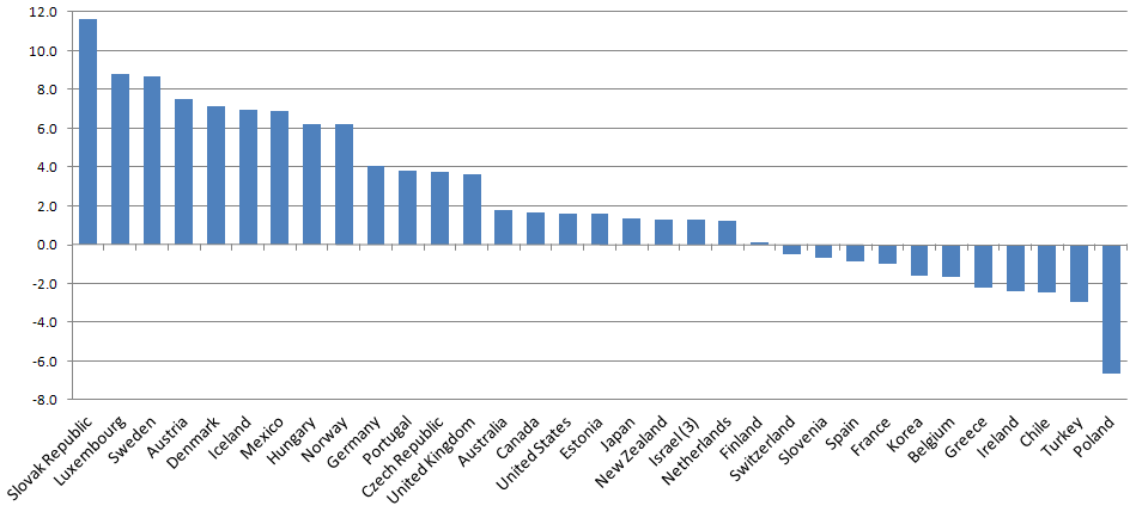


Countries are ordered in decreasing order of incidence of part-time work among women.
1) Part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours in their main job. 2) 2007 for Israel; 2008 for Chile and non-OECD EU countries. 3) The data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law. 4) Footnote by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to Cyprus relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue". 5) Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission: The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.
Source: OECD Employment Outlook, 2010; and ELFS for non-OECD EU countries

Other relevant indicators: Maternal employment (LMF1.2); Employment profiles over the life-course (LMF1.4); Gender pay gaps for full and part-time workers (LMF1.5); The distribution of working hours among couple families and sole parents (LMF2.2 and LMF2.3); Educational attainment by gender (CO3.1).

Trend data are also available and Chart LMF1.6.B illustrates the difference in women's share of part-time employment over the past decade from 2000 to 2009. Since 2000, the proportion of women working part-time as a percentage of total part-time employment has increased in most OECD countries, and especially in the Slovak Republic. But a decrease in that share has occurred in Belgium, Chile, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Korea, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey.

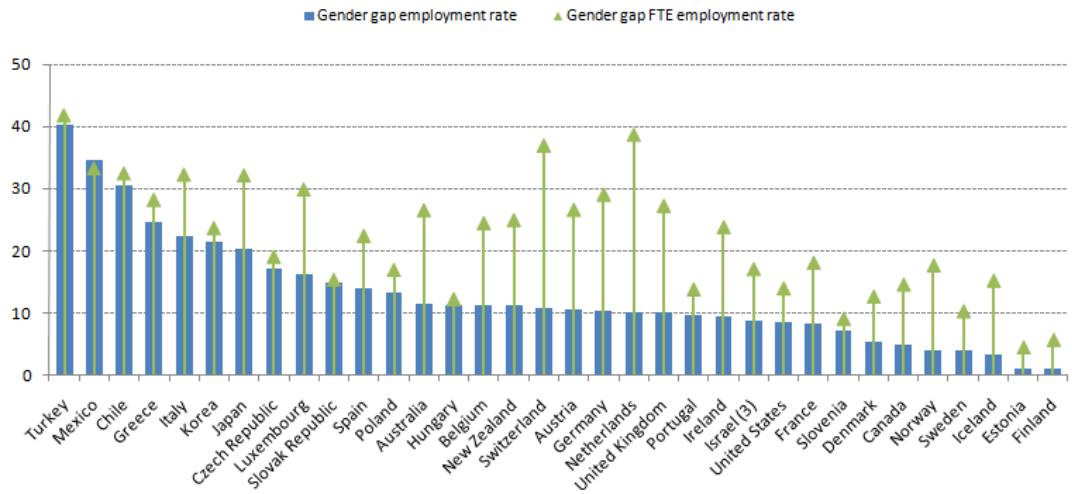
Chart LMF1.6.B: Change in women's share of part-time employment, 2000[1] to 2009[2]



1) 2001 for Australia; and 2002 for Estonia, Japan and Slovenia. 2) 2007 for Israel; 2008 for Chile. 3) see note (3) for Chart LMF1.6.A
Source: OECD Employment Database, March 2011.

The OECD gender gap in employment rates varies considerably across countries. In 2009, it was greatest in Turkey, Mexico and Chile and smallest in the Canada, Estonia and the Nordic countries. Full-time equivalent employment rates indicate that the gender gaps in employment are wider. For instance, in the Netherlands, where working part-time is common the full-time equivalent employment gap is considerably larger because women tend to work part-time more (60%) than men (17%).

Chart LMF1.6.C: Gender gap in employment rates[1], 2009[2]



1) Full-time employmees refers to persons who usually work more than 30 hours per week in their main job. Data include only persons declaring usual hours. 2) 2007 for Israel; 2008 for Chile. 2) 2007 for Israel; 2008 for Chile. 3) see note (3) for Chart LMF1.6.A
Source: Own calculations using OECD Factbook (2009).

Comparability and data issues

The definition of part-time work varies considerably across the OECD. Essentially three main approaches can be distinguished: i) a classification based on the worker's perception of his/her employment situation; ii) a cut-off (generally 30 or 35 hours per week) based on *usual* working hours, with persons usually working fewer hours being considered part-timers; iii) a comparable cut-off based on *actual* hours worked during the reference week.

Data are taken from both the OECD Employment Database and the European Labour Force Survey (ELFS) for European countries outside the OECD. For OECD countries, a harmonised definition of part-time work is used: part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job (data for Japan and Korea are based on actual hours, and for Switzerland concerns hours worked in all jobs of the respondent, see OECD Employment Outlook). The data for the non-OECD countries are based on respondent self-assessment of usual hours worked vis-à-vis the 30 hours threshold (detailed information on the variation in usual working hours is presented in LMF2.1 and LMF2.2).

II) Temporary employment:

Definitions and methodology

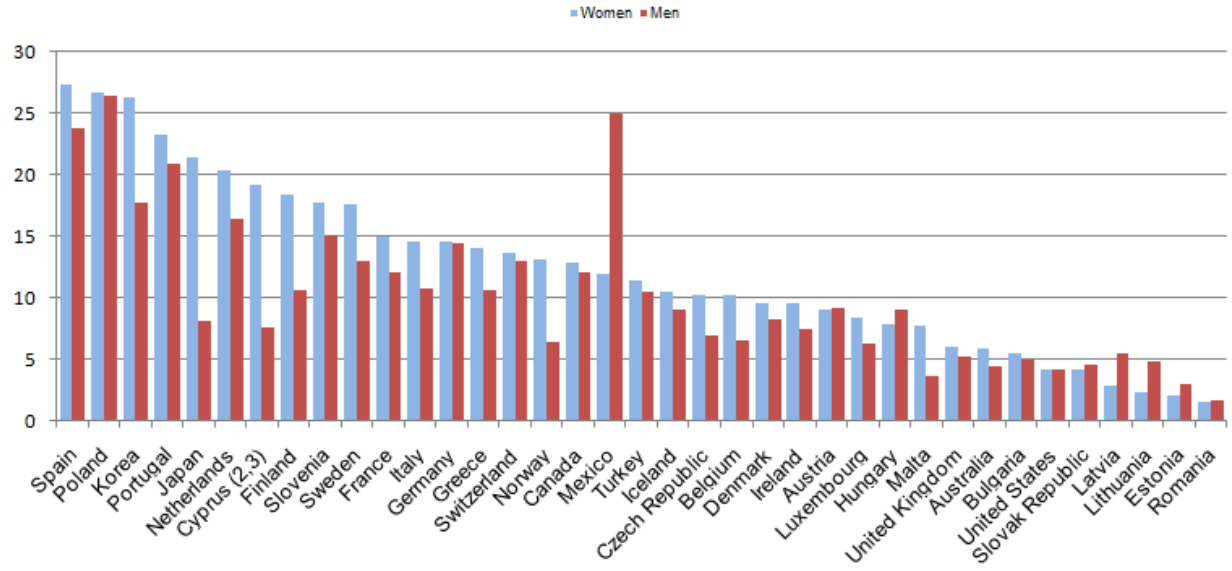
Temporary employment includes work under a fixed-term contract, in contrast to permanent work where the contract which regulates the employment relationship has no end-date. Employment under temporary contracts often entails a different set of legal obligations on behalf of employers; also, certain aspects of employment protection legislation may not apply to temporary contracts.

Temporary workers are often associated with service employment which has a seasonal component (e.g. hospitality and tourism). Agriculture, although a smaller part of most economies, is another two sector where temporary workers are employed at different periods of the year. In some countries, Temporary Work Agencies employ a substantial number of workers. Fixed-term employment contracts typically also include apprentices, trainees and workers on probationary periods.

Key findings

Chart LMF1.6.D shows that the incidence of temporary employment concerns across OECD countries ranges from below 5% to over 25% for both men and women. The incidence of temporary employment is over 20% for both men and women in Spain, Poland and Portugal, while it is also above 20% for female workers in Japan and Korea. However, in many countries the incidence of temporary employment does not differ that much across the sexes, and is often higher for men than for women. In Mexico, the incidence of temporary employment for men is around twice as high as for women, but this is partly due to issues with definition (see comparability and data issues).

Chart LMF1.6.D: Incidence of temporary employment in dependent employment, 2009[1]



Countries are ranked by decreasing incidence of temporary work among women
1) 2004 for Mexico; 2005 for the United States; 2006 for Australia; 2007 for Cyprus, Malta, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania.
2) and 3) see notes (4) and (5) for chart LMF1.6.A
Source: Source: OECD Employment Database, March 2011; and ELFS for EU-countries outside the OECD

Comparability and data issues

Data on temporary workers are reported for employees only. In all countries, the definition of temporary workers include those on fixed-term contracts, but some countries set a time limit of 12 months for an employee to be classified as "temporary" (including Australia, Japan, Mexico, Norway and Switzerland). This generally leads to lower rates of temporary employment in these countries in

comparison with countries that define all workers on fixed-term contracts as temporary regardless of contract duration. The exception is Mexico where the proportion of men declared as temporary workers is much higher than in other countries. In Mexico, temporary workers also include workers who are in the agriculture and construction sectors and are linked directly to the production process: this includes agricultural workers, assistants and peons if they are employed for a specific task (even if they are working on long-term contracts).

III) Employment rates by level of educational attainment:

Definitions and methodology

This indicator presents employment rates (by gender) of three educational attainment levels. Data on employment rates by educational attainment are taken from the OECD and EUROSTAT databases on education. Attainment profiles are based on the percentage of a ten year age cohort that has completed a specified level of education. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is used to define levels of education (see Annex 3 of *OECD Education at a Glance* (see sources below) for more information).

Key findings

Table LMF1.6.A presents female employment rates for the age group 25-64 and gender gaps in total employment rates for three levels of educational attainment: those who have not completed upper secondary education (ISCED levels 0-2); those who have completed upper secondary or post secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED levels 3 or 4); and, those who have completed tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 and 6). Table LMF6.1 shows that across countries employment rates increase with educational attainment, particularly for women. Thus, gender employment gaps are smaller, the higher the education level.

Comparability and data issues

The guidelines on the categorization of educational programmes (ISCED) are very comprehensive. Nevertheless, it is possible that a formal education programme in one country is classified differently in another. For example, in Belgium, Canada, Finland, Japan and Sweden a high proportion of university graduates have obtained what some other countries would classify as upper secondary vocational type qualifications (see CO3.1).

Table LMF1.6.A: Female employment rates and gender employment gaps1 by educational attainment, 2008[1]

Number of 25-to-64-year-old females in employment as a percentage of the population aged 25 to 64, by level of education attained[2]

	All levels of education		Less than upper secondary education		Upper secondary and post secondary non-tertiary education		University/tertiary education	
	Employment rate	*Gender gap*	Employment rate	*Gender gap*	Employment rate	*Gender gap*	Employment rate	*Gender gap*
Australia	67.4	*-17.5*	54.5	*-20.8*	69.6	*-18.2*	79.3	*-11*
Austria	68.7	*-13.9*	51.4	*-16*	72.3	*-11.1*	82.2	*-7.4*
Belgium	63.1	*-14.3*	38.1	*-22.5*	66.8	*-15.1*	81.5	*-6.7*
Bulgaria	67.8	*-10.5*	38.6	*-18.3*	72.2	*-10.5*	84	*-6.2*
Canada	71.3	*-10.2*	46.4	*-20.1*	69.7	*-11.8*	79.1	*-7.6*
Cyprus[3,4]	68.9	*-18.5*	49.1	*-31.1*	69.2	*-19.6*	84.5	*-6.4*
Czech Republic	64.9	*-20.3*	41.3	*-16.1*	66.6	*-19.3*	77.2	*-15*
Denmark	76.1	*-8.7*	57.9	*-16.2*	78.4	*-7.3*	87.1	*-4*
Estonia	75.1	*-8.9*	49	*-17.2*	74.6	*-9.6*	82	*-10.5*
EU-27	64.4	*-15.7*	44.7	*-25.1*	67.9	*-13.7*	81.8	*-7.2*
Finland	74.4	*-5*	53.7	*-9.8*	73.5	*-6.9*	83.3	*-5.5*
France	67.8	*-10.3*	50.4	*-15.4*	71	*-9.4*	82	*-6.1*
Germany	69.6	*-12.2*	48.2	*-18.3*	71.2	*-9.9*	82.7	*-6.8*
Greece	54.4	*-29.4*	39.3	*-40.7*	55.4	*-30.1*	78.1	*-9.6*
Hungary	57.7	*-14.4*	32.7	*-14.8*	61.5	*-13.5*	75.9	*-9.2*
Iceland	82.5	*-9.9*	78.3	*-11.1*	81.5	*-11.6*	89	*-6.6*
Ireland	64	*-18*	40.8	*-28.8*	64.6	*-22.1*	80.8	*-9.6*
Italy	52.2	*-25.8*	33.6	*-37.1*	64.5	*-19.5*	75.9	*-10.6*
Japan	62.2	*-27.3*	53.5[5]	*-27.7*	59.8	*-27.5*	65.9	*-26.9*
Korea	57.8	*-27.5*	58.4	*-19.8*	55.5	*-29.3*	60.8	*-28.4*
Latvia	74.6	*-6.7*	47.3	*-17.6*	74	*-8.9*	85.6	*-5.2*
Lithuania	72.9	*-5.8*	33.8	*-15.6*	69.8	*-8.7*	87.3	*-4.1*
Luxembourg	62.2	*-18.3*	49.5	*-25.7*	62.2	*-16.1*	79.9	*-9*
Malta	35.8	*-43*	23.8	*-49.5*	66.5	*-23.8*	80	*-12.4*
Mexico	47.4	*-43.9*	40.2	*-50.5*	57	*-36.2*	73.2	*-18.3*
Netherlands	71.6	*-14.5*	51.2	*-27.2*	75.7	*-11.5*	85.8	*-4.7*
New Zealand	71.8	*-16.3*	62.5	*-17.9*	74.4	*-17.1*	79	*-12.7*
Norway	79.4	*-6.6*	60.8	*-11.3*	79.7	*-7.7*	89.1	*-3.6*
Poland	59.6	*-16.1*	32.4	*-22.6*	57.4	*-18.7*	82.2	*-7*
Portugal	68.8	*-12.8*	63.3	*-16.5*	77.3	*-6.5*	84.3	*-6.1*
Republic Slovak	63.4	*-17.6*	28.5	*-10.6*	66.2	*-16.7*	79.7	*-12*
Romania	60.7	*-14.9*	46.1	*-21.1*	62.6	*-13.1*	86.1	*-1.7*
Slovenia	70.7	*-8.8*	47.9	*-15.5*	71	*-9.8*	87.3	*-1.4*
Spain	59.2	*-21*	43.5	*-30.6*	66.6	*-17*	79.4	*-8.6*
Sweden	79.2	*-6.2*	55.9	*-18.1*	79.2	*-7.5*	88.4	*-1.8*
Turkey	25.8	*-50*	21.4	*-51.4*	29.2	*-52.4*	64.5	*-17.7*
United Kingdom	69.3	*-13.8*	51.1	*-19.5*	72.6	*-12.4*	82.4	*-7.3*
OECD average	64.7	*-17.9*	47.8	*-22.8*	67.1	*-17.2*	79.6	*-10.0*

1) 2006 for Australia, Canada, Iceland, Japan, Korea, and New Zealand. 2) Percentage point difference between the employment rates for men and women of the same age.
1) and 4) see note (2) and (3) for Chart LMF1.6.A
Source: ELFS and OECD Education at a Glance, 2008

IV) Distribution of workers across occupational status

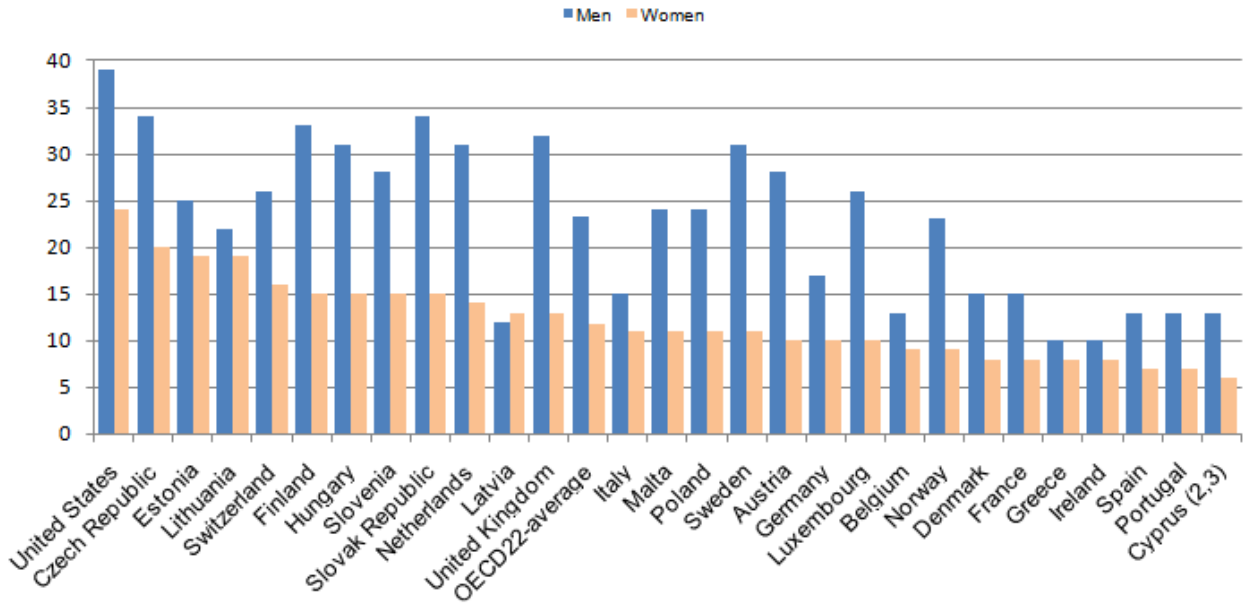
Definitions and methodology

The gender composition of the workforce varies across economic sectors and occupations. The difference in the distribution of occupations across male and female workers are considered in view of the International Standard Classification of Occupation (ISCO). The 4-digit nomenclature has been used here to classify occupational statuses. However, some differences in the number of occupations can affect cross-country comparability (see comparability and data issues).

Key findings

Chart LMF1.6.E shows the relative concentration of female employment into fewer occupations than men: on average across the OECD 50% of employed women work in 11 occupations, while this is 23 for men. The greatest spread of female workers across occupations is in the United States and Czech Republic, where gender differences are also relatively large. By contrast, both half of the male and female workers are concentrated into a relatively small number of occupations in Greece, Ireland, Spain or Portugal.

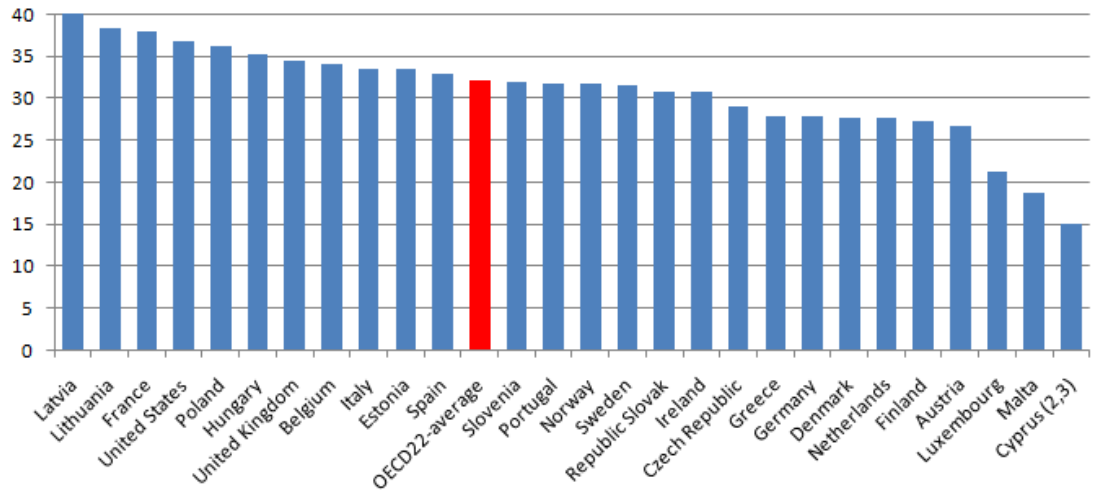
Chart LMF1.6.E: Female employment is concentrated in a relatively limited number of occupations
Number of occupations that account for half of the total employment, 2007[1]



Countries are ranked by decreasing number of occupations for women.
1) March 2009 for the United States. 2) and 3) see notes (4) and (5) for Chart LMF1.6.A
Source: ELFS, 2007; and Current Population Survey, March 2009, for the United States.

Women are also less likely than men to be in a management position; on average across the OECD only 1/3rd of the managers are female, and this is subject to considerable variation across countries (Chart LMF1.6.F). The proportion of managers that are women is high in France, Poland and the United States where more than 35% of managerial positions are held by women. In contrast, women find it particular difficult to progress up the career ladder in Luxembourg where only around 1 in 5 mangers are women.

Chart LMF1.6.F: Proportion of women among staff with managerial responsibilities, 2007[1]



1) March 2009 for the United States. 2) and 3) see notes (4) and (5) for Chart LMF1.6.A
Source: ELFS, 2007; and Current Population Survey, March 2009, for the United States.

Comparability and data issues

The *International Standard Classification of Occupations* (ISCO) is the most widely used system for the classification of workers over different categories of jobs and occupations. However, national standards of job classification do not always easily fit into the ISCO-coding system and different ways of defining and categorising, otherwise similar positions, across countries can affect comparability. For example, the national definition of a "manager" varies across countries, which obviously affects the likelihood of women being counted as such. The comparison also depends on the number of categories of jobs and occupations, which are not exactly similar from one country to another. The more disaggregated the categorisation, the higher the estimation of gender differences in occupational distribution. For European countries the 4-digit ISCO classification of occupations has been used, with a distinction between 493 types of occupations. The classification differs for the United States, where the number of categories is slightly higher at 508.

Sources and further reading: *OECD on-line Labour Force Statistics database;* EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide, http://circa.europa.eu/irc/dsis/employment/info/data/eu_lfs/index.htm; OECD (2003), *Babies and Bosses: Reconciling Work and Family Life in Austria, Ireland and Japan (Volume 2); OECD (2007), Babies and Bosses: Reconciling Work and Family Life: A synthesis of Findings for OECD countries* (Volume 5); OECD (2010), *Employment Outlook*; OECD (2009), Labour Market and Social Policy review: Slovenia. Aliaga C. (2005), "Gender gaps in the reconciliation between work and family life', *Statistics in focus*, 4; Franco A. (2007), "The concentration of men and women in sectors and activities, *Statistics in focus*, 53. Hardarson O. (2007), Men and women employed on fixed-term contracts involuntarily, *Statistics in Focus*, 98, Eurostat; For data on employment rates by educational attainment: *OECD Education database* and *OECD Education at a Glance 2008.* For details on country's mapping of national programmes to ISCED please refer to Annex 3 of *OECD Education at a Glance 2008* (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008*).* For the assessment of the classification of occupations: Elias P. (1997), Occupational Classification (ISCO-88) Concepts, Methods, Reliability, Validity and Cross-National Comparability, OECD Labour Market and Social Policy Occasional Papers, 20.