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Global Employment Trends for Women

International Labour Organization Geneva

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Executive summary

An analysis of five key gender gaps in the labour market

This report examines the conditions of women's engagement in the labour market, by estimating and analysing five key gaps, or gender differentials, between women and men which disadvantage women: in unemployment, in employment, in labour force participation, in vulnerability, and in sectoral and occupational segregation.

A trend toward convergence has come to a halt

The gaps are examined in terms of their long-run trends, over the past decade for the economic indicators of unemployment, employment, vulnerability and segregation, and over the past two decades for the slower moving demographic and behavioural indicator of labour force participation. The economic indicators are also examined in terms of more recent trends over the course of the global financial and economic crisis of the past five years.

Globally, gender gaps in the economic indicators of unemployment and employment trended towards convergence in the period 2002 to 2007, but with reversals coinciding with the period of the crisis from 2008 to 2012 in many regions. The gender gap in labour force participation, examined over a longer period of the last two decades, shows convergence in the 1990s, but little to no convergence in the 2000s, with increasing gaps in some regions like South Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Demographic and behavioural change appears to have added to the impact of the crisis, to reverse convergence in regions harder hit by the crisis, such as the advanced economies and Central and Eastern Europe.

Economic indicators of job quality, such as gender gaps in vulnerability and occupational segregation show significant gaps for 2012. An indicator for sectoral segregation could be observed over a long run period of two decades, and showed women crowding into services sectors, in both developed and developing countries. The report shows that reducing gender gaps can significantly improve economic growth and per capita incomes.

Remedial policy then has to address the reversals in convergence. And it has to address the complex set of economic, demographic and behavioural factors leading to the increase in gender-based gaps in the labour market.

29 million jobs lost and still to be recovered

The crisis

The immediate context of this report is the financial and economic crisis. The policy stimulus of 2009 gave way to austerity in 2011-12, that in 2012 led to a double dip in GDP growth in some countries. The 29 million net jobs lost during the global economic crisis have not been recovered. The Eurozone crisis combined with the "fiscal cliff" threat in the United States, have generated downside risks to growth. The IMF's downgrade of global GDP growth for 2013, from 3.8 to 3.6 per cent, has led the ILO to estimate that an additional 2.5 million jobs could be lost in 2013 as result.

Global gender gap in unemployment

Gender gaps in unemployment

From 2002 to 2007, the gender gap in unemployment was constant at around 0.5

constant pre crisis, increased with crisis

percentage points, with the female unemployment rate higher at 5.8 per cent, compared to male unemployment at 5.3 per cent (with 72 million women unemployed compared to their global employment of 1.2 billion in 2007 and 98 million men unemployed compared to their global employment of 1.8 billion). The crisis raised this gender gap to 0.7 percentage points for 2012 (destroying 13 million jobs for women), with projections showing no significant reduction in unemployment expected even by 2017.

Analysis of regional trends shows that, over 2002 to 2007, women had higher unemployment rates than men in Africa, South and South-East Asia, and Latin America, while in East Asia, Central and Eastern Europe and more recently the advanced economies, there were negative gender gaps in unemployment rates (male unemployment rates higher than female rates). In this pre-crisis period, there was moderate convergence in the regions in which women's unemployment rates exceeded the corresponding male rates. For the regions with the negative gender gaps, the range was small, between 0.5 and 1 percentage points.

The crisis appears to have worsened gender gaps in unemployment across all regions, regardless of whether they were on the front lines of the crisis like the advanced economies, or a degree removed like Asia and Africa. The pre-crisis convergence in gender gaps reversed as a result of the crisis in South Asia, South East Asia, and Africa. In advanced economies and Central and Eastern Europe, the crisis moved their negative gender gaps towards zero. The gender gaps, positive and large in the Middle East and Latin America and the Caribbean, and negative in East Asia remained unaffected by the crisis.

Global employment gap inched down pre crisis, but crisis reversed it

Gender gaps in employment

The global gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio, between 2002 and 2007 inched down, but remained high at 24.6 points. The reduction in the gap from 2002 to 2007 was particularly strong in Latin America and the Caribbean, the advanced economies, Africa and the Middle East. The pre-crisis gap increased significantly in only one region, Central and Eastern Europe. This pre-crisis reduction of the gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio was based on historically higher employment growth rates for women of 1.8 per cent, compared to men at 1.6 per cent, from a low base for women. Again this held for all regions.

However, the period of the crisis saw a reversal in the historically higher employment growth rates for women, lowering them below those for men by 0.1 percentage points, and with no projected return to the earlier trend even by 2017.

This reversal in employment growth rates during the period of the crisis, in turn, reversed the weak trend toward convergence in employment-to-population ratios that had been in place. Three regions increased their gender gaps in employment-to-population ratios, South Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, the Middle East and marginally East Asia.

South Asia is a particular enigma, with consistently negative employment growth

rates for women over many of the crisis years, raising its already massive gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio from 45.9 to 48.1 percentage points.

Since South Asia was not the primary region affected by the crisis, the explanation for its reversal in the employment gender gaps comes from gender gaps in the broadest base of the labour market pyramid, labour force participation rates.

Labour force participation rates converged in previous decade, but were constant in last decade

Gender gaps in labour force participation

The labour force participation rate is influenced by changes in both employment and unemployment. It reflects demographic and behavioural change, indicating very importantly, increase or decrease of different age groups' participation in the labour market.

The gender gap in the labour force participation rate decreased globally in the 1990s from 27.9 to 26.1 percentage points, with men's rates falling faster than women's, in all regions. However, in the last decade, between 2002 and 2012, this gap remained constant, with both men's and women's participation rates falling equally. Three broad reasons cited for the fall in participation rates are, most importantly education for younger age cohorts, aging, and a "discouraged worker" effect.

Reversals occurred principally in East Asia, South Asia and Central and Eastern Europe

Significant reversal in three regions accounts for the global halt in convergence in the participation gaps. The largest reversal was in South Asia, where the gender gap in participation increased by 2 percentage points due to a decline in women's participation by 4 percentage points in the last decade. In East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe, the participation gap increased by 0.6 and 1.6 percentage points, respectively, based on declines in women's participation of 2.6 percentage points (East Asia) and based on a larger increase in male participation rates (2.7 percentage points) compared to the female rate (1.1 points) (Central and Eastern Europe).

Decomposition by age cohort shows that young female participation rates fell in all regions but adult female participation rates fell only in South Asia and East Asia, by 3.7 to 1.9 percentage points.

Higher education levels increased adult female participation but longer education spells reduced participation for young women

The labour force participation gap for women was driven by two contrasting developments. As women have become more and more educated, in particular in developing countries, their participation rates tended to increase thus allowing them to reap the full benefits of their higher productivity and capacity to generate income. At the same time, the higher education levels for adult women came at the expense of longer stays in the education system for younger female cohorts. This tended to decrease the labour force participation rates for young women, which – depending on the relative size of the youth cohort – even decreased the overall female participation rates in some regions.

Vulnerability gaps are pervasive, and still high in Africa and Asia

Gender gaps in vulnerability

Women also suffer from a difference in the quality of employment in comparison to men. Vulnerable employment, which comprises contributing family workers and own account workers (as opposed to wage and salaried workers), is more widespread for women than for men. In 2012, there was a global gender gap of 2.3 percentage points, with a larger share of women in vulnerable employment (50.4 per cent of employed women, compared to 48.1 per cent of men).

Regional vulnerability gaps varied, with North Africa at 24 percentage points, the Middle East and Sub-Saharan Africa at 15 points, and the Asian regions lying between zero and 10 percentage points. Only in the advanced economies, Central and Eastern Europe, and Latin America and the Caribbean, were a smaller share of women in vulnerable employment as compared to men. Within the category of the vulnerable, a larger share of men are own account workers, while a larger share of women are contributing family workers. The higher share of women in contributing family labour overrode the higher share of men in own account work, resulting in the gender gap in vulnerability.

Sectoral segregation increased over time with women moving strongly into services

Gender gaps in sectoral segregation

Women are more limited in their choices for employment across sectors. This sectoral segregation increased over time, with women moving out of agriculture in developing economies and out of industry in developed economies, and into services.

In 2012, at the global level, a third of women were employed in agriculture, near half in services, and a sixth in industry. Women's industrial share only slightly rose over the last two decades as most women are moving out of agriculture and directly into services.

In advanced economies, women's employment in industry halved, crowding more than 85 per cent of them into services, primarily in education and health.

In most developing economies, women moved out of agriculture, and into services, with the exception of East Asia, where women's employment in industry rose to a quarter.

Occupational segregation persisted in the last decade

Gender gaps in occupational segregation

Occupational segregation has been pervasive over time, with some evidence of a decline in the gap in the previous decade, and a stalling in this convergence in the past decade. For a sample of both advanced and developing countries, men were over-represented in crafts, trades, plant and machine operations, and managerial and legislative occupations. In contrast women were over-represented in mid-skill occupations, like clerks, service workers, and shop and sales workers.

The initial impact of the crisis, in the advanced economies, seemed to have affected men in trade-dependent sectors more than women in health and education. Conversely women were strongly hit in developing economies, in tradable sectors.

High incidence of crisis policy on gender, especially legislation to address gaps

Policies to address gender gaps

A review of crisis policy responses based on an ILO/World Bank Policy Inventory database showed that 39 out of the 55 low and middle income countries and 17 out of 22 high income countries sampled had adopted new measures to address their large gender gaps in employment and participation. The provisions ranged from legislative revision on discrimination, equality and sexual harassment, to changes in systems for taxation, electoral parity, and parity in employment. In general, crisis-related gender policy measures varied by countries' income levels. Some high-income countries opted for more child care support, yet others cut it. Low and middle-income countries targeted unemployed women.

Countries that were able to offer labour market policies to unemployed women on a large scale already had programs in place, as in the case of Chile's targeting of unskilled female heads of households, South Africa's women's quota in its expansion of its public works program, Turkey's subsidy for employed women, and India's National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme.

A few countries had a more integrated approach to promote gender equality during the crisis, notably the Crisis Pact enacted in the Netherlands in 2009 which packaged together extensions in parental leave, child care access, and public benefits for self-employed women.

Policies must be country-specific

Women continue to face many barriers to enter labour markets. These barriers not only hold back women, they also hold back economic growth and development in countries with large gender gaps.

Given the complexity of the movement in gender gaps in the labour market and the complex set of factors accounting for convergence and divergence, policy recommendations can only be country-specific and must integrate economic, sociological and cultural factors.

Six general policy instruments whose relative importance would vary according to context

The final chapter of the report discusses general and specific policy measures. As regards general policies, the chapter discusses the need to expand social protection measures to reduce women's vulnerability, the need to invest in their skills and education, and policies to promote access to employment across the spectrum of sectors and occupations. In addition, the chapter also contains six policy guidelines focussed on creating the right conditions to help households reduce the gender bias in their work decisions:

(a) Reducing the burden of house work through better infrastructure – principally electricity, water, sanitation, mobility and school access
(b) Reducing the burden of unpaid care work through provision of care services – child care (and in some demographic contexts, care for elderly) being especially correlated to women's participation in the labour force
(c) Balancing the gender division of paid and unpaid work – mainly being programs to increase fathers' share of parenting
(d) Changing the costs and benefits of gender specialisation – principally taxes and

transfers to encourage dual earner families

(e) Compensating for unequal employment opportunities based on gender – principally compensating for the adverse impact of career breaks through paid leave and right of return to post

(f) Public campaigns to challenge gender stereotypes, and for proper implementation of legislation against discrimination.

1. Introduction

Overview of the report

This report examines the conditions of women's engagement in the labour market, by estimating and analysing five key gaps, or gender differentials, between women and men, which disadvantage women: in unemployment, in employment, in labour force participation, in vulnerability, and in sectoral and occupational segregation.

This is done globally and distinguishing nine regions: Developed Economies and European Union, Central and South Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS, South Asia, South-East Asia and the Pacific, East Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East, North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa.

Gender gaps

Gender gaps in the labour market are defined as those that disadvantage women compared to men. And it is simpler to quantify a gap as positive where it exists and women are disadvantaged, or negative where the gap does not exist or is reversed and women are not disadvantaged. So a "positive gap" in unemployment indicates women's disadvantage, with a higher female unemployment rate than among men, and closing the gap, convergence, means moving towards zero. There can be "negative gaps", for unemployment at some points in time, where men are disadvantaged, and closing the gap, convergence, also means moving towards zero.

Similarly, a positive gap in employment-to-population ratios, and labour force participation rates, indicates women's disadvantage, with rates lower for women than for men, and closing the gap means moving towards zero. No negative gaps were observed in employment or participation rates.

Economic and demographic indicators of the labour market

The report has chosen to examine gender gaps for four economic indicators of the labour market and one indicator of demographic and behavioural change.

Unemployment is an economic indicator of distress in the labour market. It is a better indicator for advanced economies and emerging economies with more developed labour market institutions, where the unemployed are more likely to have access to social protection. Viewed in isolation, unemployment is not a reliable indicator of labour market distress in developing economies, which tend to lack robust social protection. So gender gaps in unemployment are examined to show the labour market distress particularly in advanced and emerging economies, especially to determine the impact of the current crisis.

The employment-to-population ratio is an important economic indicator to measure gender gaps in the labour market, as it allows an assessment of differences in access to employment opportunities and trends in employment growth for women and men. This tends to be a better indicator of labour market distress in developing economies, because it covers the broader base of the labour market pyramid, rather than just the tip of the pyramid given by unemployment.

These two economic indicators allow quantification and assessment of the impact of economic cycles on the labour market. In addition, two other non-economic factors significantly affect the labour market: demographic and behavioural changes. The impact of these social factors on the labour market is revealed, in part, by examining gender gaps in the labour force participation rate.

The labour force participation rate includes both employment and unemployment, and age- and sex-disaggregated data are available for a large number of countries. When age- and sex-specific labour force participation rates are analysed, this can provide important insights regarding demographic and behavioural change. For example, changes in participation among younger women may be related to education. For prime-age women, child rearing is an important factor. For older women, a crucial factor determining participation rates is the extent of savings and social protection to enable retirement. The impact of demographic change on the labour market is indicated by the population shares of these age cohorts varying, with say a younger population sending more girls to school, and an ageing population sending increasing numbers of women into retirement. The impact of behavioural change on the labour market is indicated by cultures and societies sending a higher or lower proportion of working age women to work. As such, gender gaps in labour force participation can have very high and even an overriding impact on the labour market, compared to cyclical economic change.

The report also examines gender gaps in two economic indicators of job quality. One indicator of job quality is the gender gap in vulnerability (comparing the share of women that are in vulnerable employment – either own-account or contributing family workers – to the corresponding share of men in these vulnerable employment statuses).

A second indicator of job quality is segregation. Gender gaps are examined both in terms of sectoral segregation and occupational segregation, showing the extent to which women may be confined to certain types of industries or occupations in terms of employment opportunities.

Data constraints and time periods over which gender gaps were estimated

The gaps are examined in terms of their long run trends, over the past decade for the economic indicators of unemployment, employment, vulnerability and segregation, and over the past two decades for the slower-moving demographic and behavioural indicator of labour force participation. The economic indicators are also examined in terms of their more immediate trends over the course of the global financial and economic crisis of the past five years. Data limitations do not allow such a focus of the behavioural variables on the period of the crisis, restricting this analysis to decade-long comparisons.

Global findings

Globally, gender gaps in the economic indicators of unemployment and employment trended towards convergence in the period 2002 to 2007, but with reversals coinciding with the period of the crisis from 2008 to 2012 in many regions. The gender gap in participation, examined over a longer period of the last two decades, shows convergence at the global level in the 1990s, no convergence over the subsequent decade, with increasing gaps in some regions like South and East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Demographic and behavioural change appears to have added to the impact of the crisis, to reverse convergence in regions more hit by the crisis, such as the advanced economies and Central and Eastern Europe

Economic indicators of job quality, such as gender gaps in vulnerability and occupational segregation have only been estimated using current data because of data limitations, and show significant gaps for 2012. An indicator for sectoral segregation could be observed over a long run period of two decades, and shows women crowding into services sectors, in both developed and developing countries. Remedial policy then has to address the reversals in convergence. And it has

to address the complex set of economic, demographic and behavioural factors leading to the increase in gaps.

The remainder of the report follows, in this chapter, by setting out the current state of the global labour market, in terms of the evolution and impact of the financial and economic crisis. Chapter 2 examines the primary, longstanding gender gaps in the labour market. Chapter 3 examines segregation in terms of sectoral gaps, occupational gaps, and vulnerability gaps. Chapter 4 draws shorter term policy lessons from responses to the current crisis, and longer term policy lessons for convergence of the persistent gaps observed in the labour market.

The global growth and employment outlook

Global growth has decelerated rapidly following a weak recovery that has been unable to restore the jobs lost. The global economic outlook has deteriorated in 2012, as economic growth slowed significantly in advanced economies since the third quarter of 2011. As a consequence, the IMF's global GDP growth forecast for 2012 was revised down from 4 per cent to 3.4 per cent in July and further to 3.3 per cent in October (IMF, 2012). This estimate assumes no fiscal cliff in the US and no further substantial deterioration in economic trends in Europe.

The downward revision to global growth for 2012 does not affect estimated unemployment to any great extent, because there already is observed data for the first three quarters of the year. However, the downward revision for 2013 can be expected to add another 2.5 million to global unemployment in 2013, compared to earlier estimates. This leaves global unemployment plateaued at 6 per cent, with 29 million still made jobless by the crisis, 13 million women, and 16 million men (see annex table A4). In the Euro area as a whole, the projection for GDP growth in 2012 is negative 0.3 per cent and for 2013 it is (positive) 0.7 per cent, the latter a downward revision of 0.2 percentage points since the previous quarter (IMF, 2012). At the same time, growth in some major emerging economies has also been revised downwards as the prospects for trade and capital flows have been deteriorating alongside Euro-area weakness.

2. Gender gaps in the labour market have worsened

This chapter seeks to estimate and explain three critical gender gaps in the labour market: for unemployment, employment, and labour force participation. It tracks changes in these gaps over time globally, and examines the regional diversity contributing to the aggregate trend.

Globally, gender gaps in unemployment and employment that trended towards convergence in the period 2002 to 2007, grew again with the period of the crisis from 2008 to 2012 in many regions. The gender gap in participation, examined over a longer period of the last two decades, shows convergence in the 1990s, but was constant in the 2000s, with increasing gaps in some regions like South and East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe.

Both demographic and behavioural factors have added to the impact of the crisis. Regions hit harder by the crisis, such as the advanced economies and Central and Eastern Europe, reversed their earlier convergence in unemployment and employment gaps. Regions more affected by demographic and behavioural factors, like South Asia and East Asia, reversed their earlier convergence in labour force participation rates. Explanations for the change in labour force participation rates are not always straightforward. In South and East Asia the gaps could have increased for young women dropping out for more education. In Sub-Saharan Africa the gaps have reduced, but may for instance be due to persistent poverty not allowing the option of dropping out of work.

The crisis increased an already large gender gap in unemployment

Women have always faced a number of disadvantageous gaps in the labour market. As a first broad indicator, consider unemployment. The gender gap in unemployment, prior to the crisis, from 2002 to 2007 was constant on average at 0.5 percentage points, with female unemployment in 2007 higher at 5.8 per cent, than male unemployment which stood at 5.3 per cent, (figure 1 and table A1, annex 1). The crisis actually raised this gap, by 2011 to 0.7 percentage points, with women's unemployment plateauing at 6.4 per cent, and men's unemployment also plateauing at about 5.7 per cent. ILO projections do not show a significant reduction in this elevated gap by 2013, or even 2017.

Figure 1. Global female and male unemployment, 2002–2017

Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates and 2013 onwards are preliminary projections.
Source: ILO, *Trends econometric models*, July 2012.

Several factors explain this unemployment gap: a higher prevalence of temporary contracts among women, differences in educational attainment, and labour market segregation. Workers on permanent contracts usually have better unemployment benefits, statutory severance pay, notice periods and other elements of the employment protection legislation. Since the incidence of temporary contracts is significantly higher among women than among men, this can partly explain differences in the unemployment rates between men and women.[2]

Another factor behind higher unemployment rates for women is that women are more likely than men to exit and re-enter the labour market owing to family commitments. Career interruption for child rearing results in longer periods of unemployment, while men are more likely to move directly from one job to another. Interruptions in attachment to the labour market could also lead to skills obsolescence and reduced employability.

Labour market segregation refers to the different patterns in the occupations and sectors between women and men. The impact on jobs of an economic shock or technological change can cause this occupational and sectoral distribution to raise, or lower the gaps, raising them in this case.

The gap in stocks of unemployment seen in figure 1 is further explained by gaps in flows into unemployment and out of it, seen in table 2.

The stock of employment given for a country in table 2, such as Jordan, is explained by flows into this stock, called the inflow hazard rate. The stock is also explained by the flows out of it, called the

[2] See also ILO, 2012b.

outflow hazard rate. An outflow rate is the probability of a person moving from unemployment into employment, and inflow rate is the probability of a person moving from employment into unemployment. Essentially, high stocks of unemployment are due to high inflows, and low outflows. The table shows that positive gender gaps in the stock of unemployment, are simply due to higher inflows for women (compared to men), and lower outflows for women (compared to men).

This is a vivid empirical illustration of the often recognised explanation of women being the first out of a job, and the last into a job. Azmat *et al.* (2006) using an OECD sample of countries, conclude that large gender gaps in flows both in and out of unemployment are associated with large gender gaps in unemployment rates.[3]

[3] For the rates presented in table 1, the transitions assumed are only between employment and unemployment, and hence, the interpretation of the rates should be treated with caution. Azmat *et al*. (2006) find that in all countries examined women have higher flows into inactivity than men. Moreover, the second strong assumption of the methodology for calculating these probabilities is that all unemployed workers have the same job finding probability and all employed workers have the same exit probability.

Table 1. Gender gaps in unemployment rate, unemployment outflow and inflow hazard rates, 2005-07 averages

	Gender gaps (percentage points)		
Country	Unemployment rate	Outflow hazard rate	Inflow hazard rate
Jordan	14.2	-8.6	1.6
Greece	8.2	-2.3	0.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina[a]	6.3	0.0	0.2
Spain	4.9	-1.9	0.4
Argentina	3.9	-12.2	-0.4
Italy	3.4	-0.5	0.2
Czech Republic	3.0	-0.6	0.2
Croatia	2.6	-0.8	0.1
Barbados	2.5	-17.3	-0.8
Portugal	2.5	-0.3	0.2
Slovakia	2.3	0.0	0.2
Luxembourg	2.1	4.1	0.4
Poland	2.0	-0.8	0.1
Belgium	1.9	-0.5	0.1
Slovenia	1.7	-0.5	0.1
Cyprus	1.6	2.4	0.3
Switzerland	1.4	-1.9	0.0
Israel	1.1	3.3	0.6
Turkey	1.1	-2.5	-0.2
Netherlands	1.0	0.4	0.1
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia[a]	1.0	0.1	0.0
Denmark	0.9	-1.7	0.2
Austria	0.9	-1.6	0.0
New Zealand	0.6	5.8	0.5
Sweden[a]	0.6	4.9	0.6
Hungary	0.6	0.2	0.1
Australia	0.4	3.4	0.3
Mexico	0.4	-1.8	0.2
Bulgaria	0.3	-0.8	0.0
Iceland	0.1	-11.0	-0.2
United States	-0.1	1.9	0.1
Germany	-0.1	-0.3	0.0
Norway	-0.2	4.5	0.1
Thailand	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2
Japan	-0.4	8.0	0.3
Macau, China	-0.4	1.2	-0.1
Ireland	-0.4	4.2	0.2
Canada	-0.6	3.3	0.0
United Kingdom	-0.8	6.9	0.2
Korea, Republic of	-0.8	4.7	-0.1
Estonia	-1.2	0.7	-0.1
Romania[a]	-1.8	-0.8	-0.3
Republic of Moldova	-2.8	0.4	-0.2

[a] The average refers to 2007 only.

Note: The gender gaps are calculated as the difference between the female minus the male rates; positive gaps are interpreted as the female rate being higher than the rate for men and negative gaps stand for the opposite.

Source : ILO, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM)* (forthcoming) based on a methodology developed by Elsby *et al.* (forthcoming).

Regional variation in gender gaps in unemployment

Figure 2 presents gender gaps in unemployment rate by region. To recall, a positive gender gap means that women's unemployment is higher than for men, and a negative gap means that it is lower. Between 2000 and 2007, the advanced economies, Latin America and the Caribbean, North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa, all showed a downward trend in their positive gaps for unemployment. In the Middle East, South-East Asia and South Asia, the positive gender gap in unemployment increased for much of this period, ending up higher in South Asia in 2007 than in 2000, lower but still very high at 10 percentage points in the Middle East, and almost converging in South-East Asia. In East Asia, it remained constant over 2000 to 2007. In Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS the gender gap changed from being positive to negative after 2001.

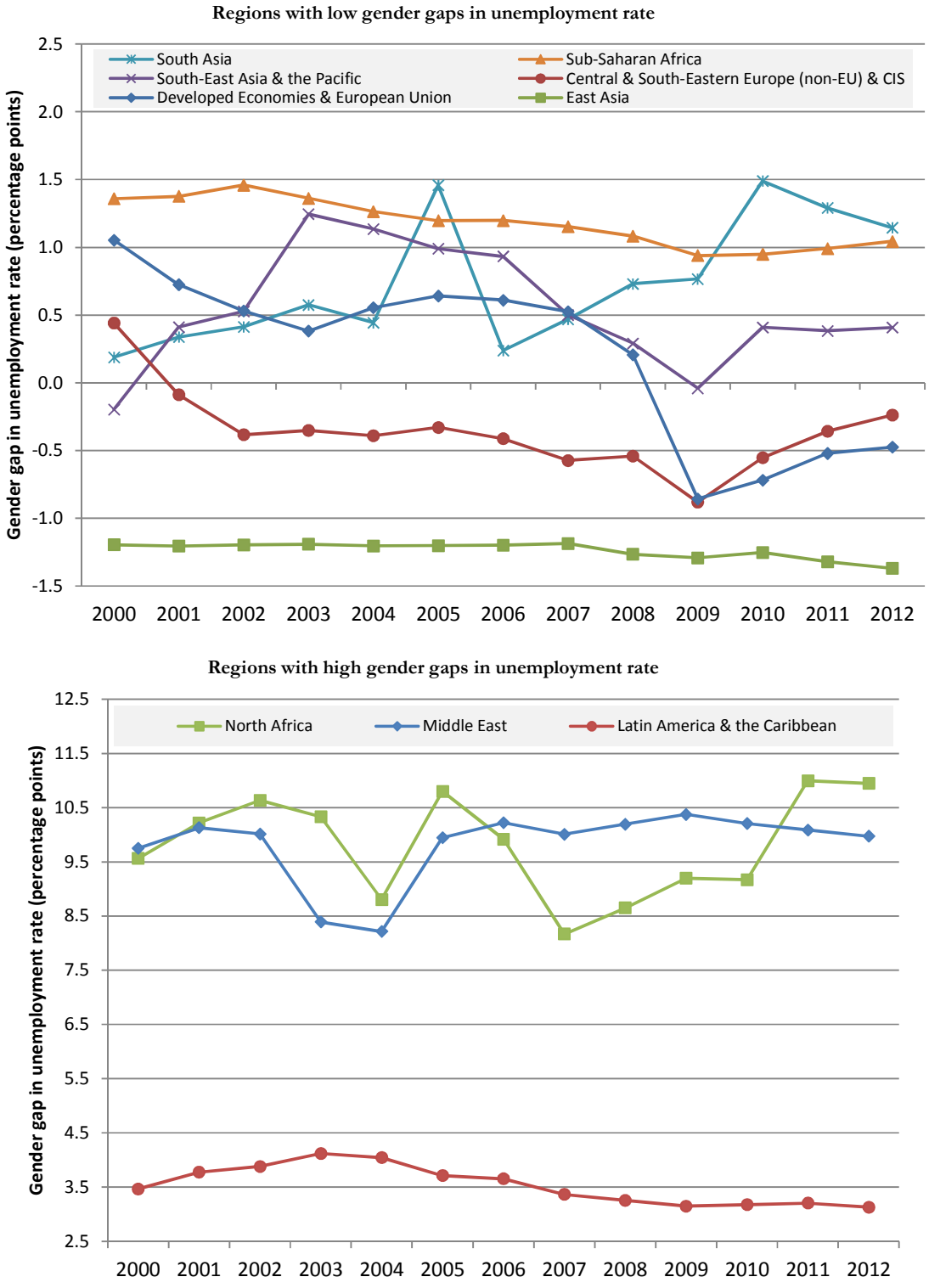
The crisis, in the regions affected, stopped a further closing of unemployment gender gaps (see boxes 1 and 2 for a discussion of the impact of the financial crisis on different gender gaps). The progress made in lowering gender gaps in South Asia, South-East Asia, and North Africa was disrupted, as these gaps climbed. In the advanced economies and Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS, where the gaps had strayed into negative territory, there was a tendency of convergence towards zero by 2012. The positive gaps in Latin America and the Caribbean and the Middle East, and the negative gap in East Asia remained largely unaffected by the crisis till 2012.

With the impact of the crisis in the advanced economies and Central and Eastern Europe, the convergence of the unemployment gap towards zero can be attributed to the fact that initially the crisis hit the male-dominated sectors such as construction (see, for instance, Şahin *et al.* (2010) for the United States). This resulted in a faster increase in the overall unemployment rate for men than for women because men were more concentrated in the sectors that were hardest hit by the crisis.

The increase in the gap in South Asia was accompanied by a fall of 3 million female jobs, caused both by weakening female-dominated sectors like garments and by demographic change as examined below.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, the gap between female and male unemployment rates remained high. In the Middle East and North Africa, women were on average 2.1 times more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts, and 1.5 times more likely in Latin America and the Caribbean. For young women, the gender gap in the unemployment rate was even larger (see table A2, annex 1) at 19.9, 18.1 and 6.8 percentage points in North Africa, the Middle East and in Latin America and the Caribbean, respectively.

Figure 2. Gender gaps in unemployment rate by region, 2000–2012 (%)



Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates.
Source: ILO, *Trends econometric models*, July 2012.

Box 1.What do we know about the impact of financial crises on gender inequality?

Low- and middle-income countries

In low- and middle-income countries, where unemployment benefits and social security are limited, unemployment of the male breadwinner is expected to reduce the household's income and lead to an increase in labour force participation of women, which is known as the added worker effect.[1] Argentina, Mexico and Peru in previous economic downturns experienced the added worker effect (Pessino, 1997; Cunningham, 2001; Skoufias, 2006). A study by Cho and Newhouse (2011) empirically examines the effect of the current financial crisis on different groups of workers in 17 middle-income countries, suggesting a moderate added worker effect for women. A study on Buenos Aires found that the increase in female labour force participation following the structural adjustment of 1991 was more pronounced among married women with school-age children living in low- and middle-income households. Similar results have been found by Lee (2005). Such increases in female labour supply are not systematically absorbed by the formal economy but may actually fuel informality. For instance, Hirata and Humphrey (1990) show that the increase in female labour force participation in Brazil following Brazil's debt crisis was mostly absorbed by the informal economy.

High-income countries

In high-income countries, income effects of increasing unemployment are more muted due to the existence of social insurance systems. Moreover, educated women in these countries might become discouraged following a reduction in their wages, and withdraw from the labour market (Killingworth and Heckman, 1987; Darby *et al.*, 2001). Additionally, occupational segregation might have benefited women during recessions, as they were less exposed to the crisis impact on employment, an effect called the "silver lining" of segmentation. A few empirical studies have shown that during crises, including the 2008 crisis, men's labour market situation was grimmer (Milkman, 1976; Bettio, 1988; Elsby, 2010).

The gender impact of the global financial and economic crisis has triggered several policy reactions in both advanced and emerging economies, which are analysed in section 4 of this report, using information from the ILO/World Bank Inventory of crisis responses in 77 countries.

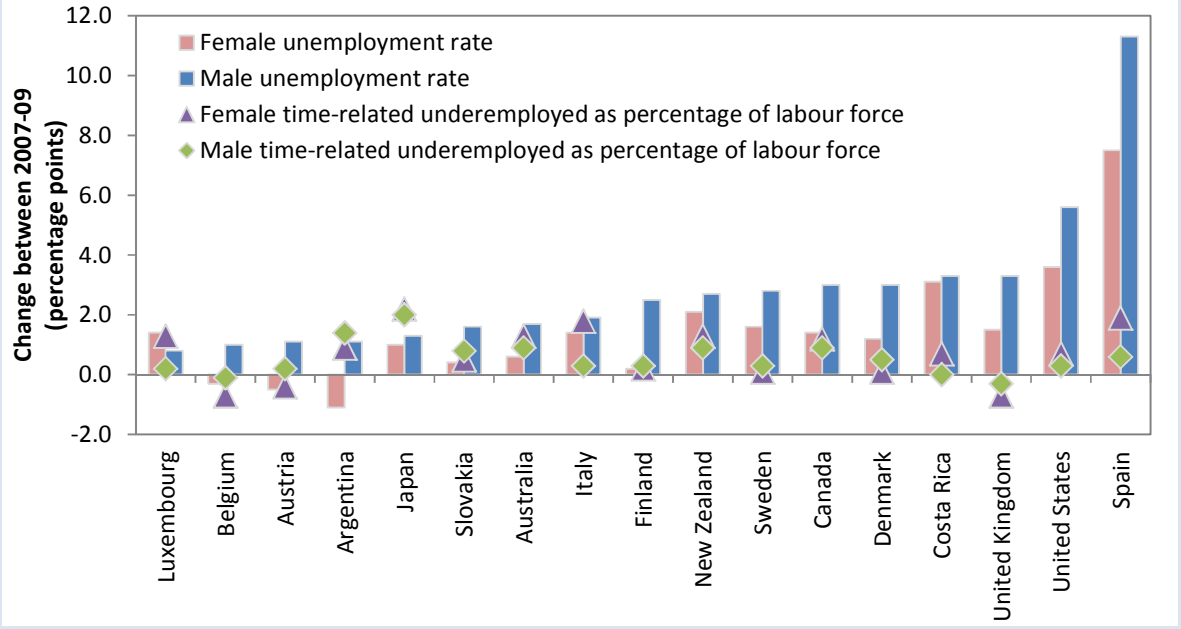
[1] The term "added worker effect" is defined as a temporary increase in the labour supply of married women whose husbands have become unemployed.

Box 2. Accounting for time-related underemployment

There is evidence that large differences in working hours prevail between men and women in countries where information is available. Often, however, reduced working hours are due to adverse labour market conditions. Examining such time-related underemployment can provide a richer analysis of gender differences in labour demand and hence serve as a complementary tool for analysing the unemployment rate. Time-related underemployment concerns employees who work less than a specified number of hours and who are willing and available to work more hours. The underemployed are not captured in unemployment figures, although they also compete for available hours of work and jobs. Hence, adding them to the unemployed population can give a clearer picture of an economy's ability to make use of its productive potential.

In a sample of advanced economies, with the exception of Luxembourg, the male unemployment rate increased more than the unemployment rate for women. The greatest difference occurred in Spain, where the unemployment rate for men and women increased by 11.3 and 7.5 percentage points, respectively. In Spain, many people, but in particular men, were pushed into unemployment. In contrast, women increasingly suffered from involuntary part-time work. In Italy, adding the time-related underemployed to the total unemployed would increase the female unemployment rate by 3.2 percentage points (instead of 1.4 percentage points), whereas for men, it would have increased by 2.2 percentage points (instead of 1.9 percentage points).

Change in unemployment rate and in time-related underemployment as percentage of labour force by sex, 2007–09, selected economies



Source: ILO, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th edition, 2011, tables 9 and 12.

Employment gaps have widened

Prior to 2008, the global gender gap in employment was constant but increased with the crisis. Table 2 gives the employment-to-population ratios and the gender gaps. Globally, between 2002 and 2007, women's employment-to-population ratio remained constant at about 49 per cent, compared to about 73 per cent for men. In the run up to the crisis, the gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio inched down to 24.6 percentage points. The most significant regional narrowing occurred in the Developed Economies and European Union region, Latin America and the Caribbean, and in the Middle East (albeit from a large gap of 52.6 points). Only Central and Eastern Europe and East Asia increased their gender gaps in employment, but by less than one percentage point.

Table 2. Gender gaps in employment-to-population ratios, 2002, 2007 and 2012

	Male employment-to-population ratio (%)			Female employment-to-population ratio (%)			Gap (percentage points)		
Region	2002	2007	2012p	2002	2007	2012p	2002	2007	2012p
WORLD	**73.3**	**73.5**	**72.7**	**48.6**	**49.0**	**47.8**	**24.8**	**24.6**	**24.8**
Developed Economies & European Union	64.5	65.2	61.6	47.7	49.5	48.4	16.7	15.7	13.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	61.3	63.0	64.7	44.4	45.2	46.0	16.9	17.8	18.7
East Asia	77.4	76.8	75.4	66.4	65.6	64.0	10.9	11.2	11.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	78.0	77.7	78.3	54.7	55.1	56.0	23.3	22.6	22.3
South Asia	79.8	79.4	78.5	34.2	33.6	30.4	45.7	45.9	48.1
Latin America & the Caribbean	74.3	75.4	74.8	43.9	47.2	48.8	30.3	28.2	26.0
Middle East	66.3	67.1	68.2	13.7	15.1	15.3	52.6	52.0	52.8
North Africa	66.2	68.1	68.3	16.6	19.7	19.7	49.5	48.4	48.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	70.4	70.5	70.8	57.4	58.9	59.2	12.9	11.7	11.6

Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates; the gap equals the difference between male and female ratios.
Source: ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012.

The crisis, however, increased the global gap in the employment-to-population ratios slightly, to 24.8 points in 2012, as table 2 shows. Three regions largely account for this increase in the gap, predominantly South Asia increasing its gap in the employment-to-population ratio from 45.9 to 48.1, the Middle East increasing its gap from 52 to 52.8 points, and Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS, increasing its gap from 17.8 to 18.7 percentage points. All the other regions saw a decline in employment-to-population ratio gaps, by up to 2 percentage points.

Table 3 gives the employment growth rates driving these employment-to-population ratios. Historically, global female employment growth has been higher compared to the employment growth for men, primarily due to the relatively lower base from which the female employment grew. Over the period between 1992 and 2006, female employment grew at an average of 1.8 per cent, compared to men's employment, which averaged 1.6 per cent. Again this held for all but three regions.[4]

The increase in the global gap in the employment-to-population ratios induced by the crisis is explained by a decline in global employment growth that was faster for women than for men. The historically higher female employment growth rates prior to the crisis gave way to lower growth rates

[4] The male and female employment growth rate in the long run period was almost identical in Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS and in East and South-East Asia.

compared to men for each year of the crisis up to 2012. Further, this reversal in female employment growth rates falling below male growth rates is projected to continue at least until 2017.

Table 3 shows evidence of the impact of the crisis on gender gaps in advanced economies, with men's employment growth rates higher than women's over 2011, 2012, and projected to remain so until 2017. The table shows that South Asia remains a particular enigma, with the crisis turning female employment growth negative for the four years leading up to 2011, while male employment growth never fell below 1.4 per cent per annum. In no other region did female employment growth drop so consistently below male employment growth during the crisis.

Since South Asia was not the primary region affected by the crisis, the explanation for its reversal in the gender gaps in employment can only partly be due to women in export sectors being hit disproportionately by the crisis. Further explanation has to be sought through social variables like demographic and behavioural change.

As box 3 demonstrates, a return to pre-crisis developments and a further reduction in the employment gap between women and men has a potentially large effect on GDP growth and per capita income across all regions. In particular in those regions where gender employment gaps are large, additional revenues on the order of several hundred dollars (PPP) per person, per year could be generated by narrowing the gender gap in employment by increasing female employment growth rates.

Table 3 Global and regional employment growth rates by sex

	Average over the period: 1992–2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012*	Average over the period: 2013–17*
Employment growth, male (%)								
WORLD	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3
Developed Economies and European Union	0.6	1.3	0.3	-3.1	-0.4	0.5	0.3	0.5
Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS	0.3	2.2	1.4	-1.5	1.8	1.8	1.0	0.3
East Asia	1.1	1.2	0.1	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.5
South-East Asia and the Pacific	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.0	1.5	1.4
South Asia	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.6	2.0	1.9	1.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	2.0	1.9	2.2	0.1	2.4	1.4	1.5	1.4
Middle East	3.5	4.0	2.4	4.2	3.8	3.0	2.6	2.2
North Africa	2.7	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.3	1.2	1.8	1.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.0
Employment growth, female (%)								
WORLD	1.8	1.6	0.9	0.4	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.2
Developed Economies andEuropean Union	1.1	1.6	1.1	-1.1	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.4
Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS	0.3	2.1	0.8	-0.7	1.3	1.6	0.8	0.3
East Asia	1.2	1.2	-0.2	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.1
South-East Asia and the Pacific	1.9	3.1	2.6	1.7	2.0	2.1	1.6	1.5
South Asia	2.6	-1.1	-1.1	-1.3	-1.9	2.5	2.3	2.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.7	3.3	2.8	1.4	3.4	2.0	2.3	2.1
Middle East	6.2	3.1	-1.9	3.9	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.6
North Africa	3.2	8.6	2.9	2.1	3.3	-0.3	2.7	3.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.3	2.8	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9

Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates; 2013–17 are preliminary projections.
Source: ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012.

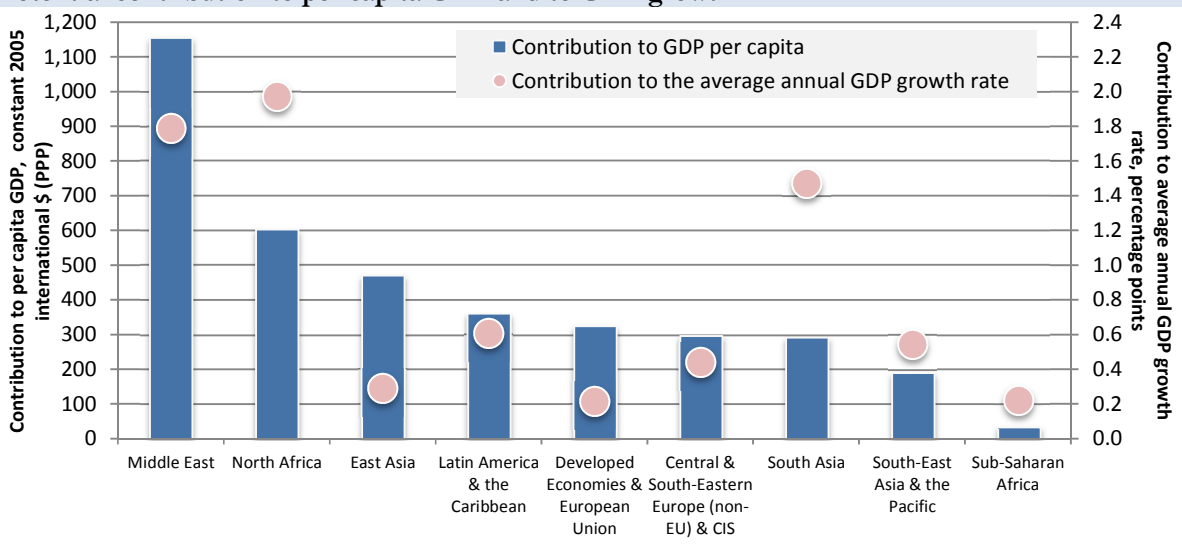
Box 3. What is the potential economic contribution if the gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio drops by 2017?

An OECD study estimated that during 1990s a quarter of annual economic growth in Europe was due to increasing employment rates for women. In order to estimate the potential economic contribution of increased female employment over the next several years, we start out by assuming an ideal gender gap in employment-to-population ratios equal to the median gap in 2012 across all countries in the European Union and North America. This ideal gap is 11.7 percentage points, equivalent to the observed gap in the Netherlands.

A scenario is constructed in which the gender gap in countries with a higher than ideal gap drops half way towards the ideal over the next five years. We assume lower labour productivity for the additional employed women. This assumption is important because of diminishing returns, and because of labour market segregation. That is, many women work in lower-productivity sectors and already work part-time which translates in lower than average productivity. Moreover, at least in the developed world, male employment correlates with female part-time employment, suggesting that the constraints on raising female full-time employment are much stronger. Accordingly, each country's average projected productivity is multiplied by a factor less than one (the multiplier used in this scenario is 0.512, derived by assuming multipliers of 0.8 each due to three factors: 1) diminishing returns; 2) sectoral segregation; 3) gender-based differences in part-time employment rates), to project the economic contribution of the additional employed women in the scenario of lowering the gender gap.

Globally, the scenario indicates that an additional US$1.6 trillion in output (measured in PPPs) could be generated through a reduction in the employment-to-population gap. As the figure below depicts, the economic contribution is significant in all regions. For example, in the Middle East and North Africa, it is expected that GDP would increase by US$415 billion if the gap drops from 50.6 to 30.6 percentage points between 2012 and 2017, with significant effects in the regions' per capita GDP. In South Asia, it is expected that GDP would increase by US$516 billion if the gap drops from 48.1 to 29.4 percentage points between 2012 and 2017. If the gender gap drops from 26 to 17.2 percentage points in Latin America and the Caribbean between 2012 and 2017, there would be US$223 billion in additional GDP, while if the gap drops from 13.2 to 12.1 points in Developed Economies and European Union over the same period, there would an increase in GDP of US$159 billion.

Potential contribution to per capita GDP and to GDP growth



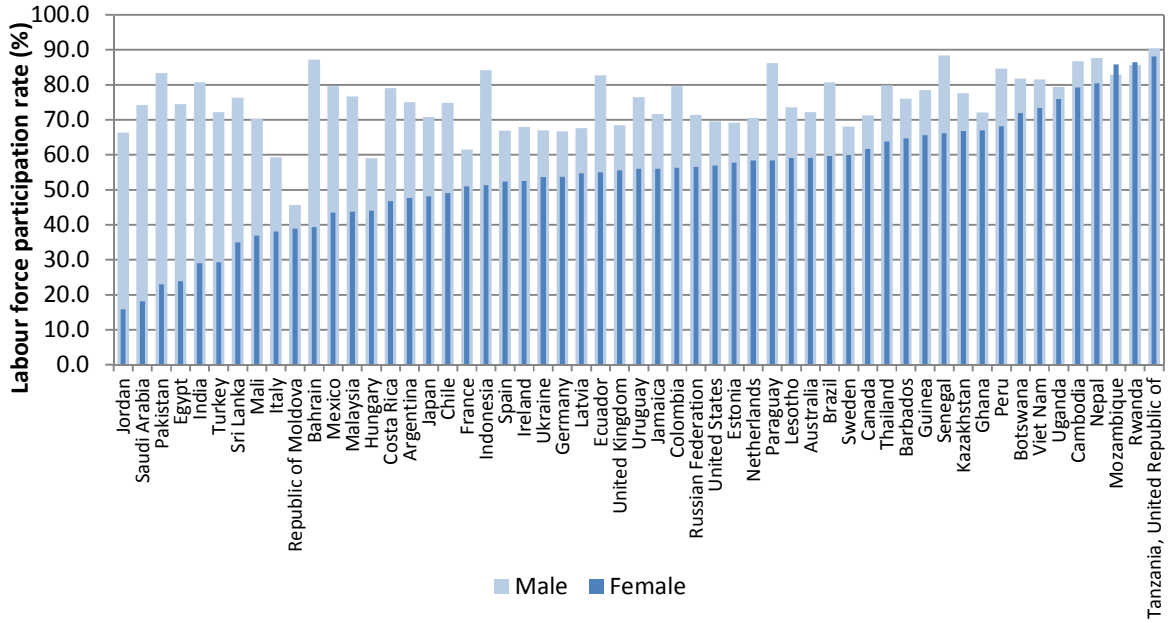
Source: ILO calculations based on the ILO *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012; International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook* Database, July 2012; World Bank, *World Development Indicators* 2012.

Gaps in labour force participation rates

Globally, the gender gap in employment-to-population ratios had inched down between 2002 and 2007, driven by higher employment growth rates for women compared to men. The crisis reversed these historically higher employment growth rates for women, lowering them below those for men, which nudged up the gap in employment-to-population ratios. A regional analysis shows that South Asia's female employment growth was consistently lower than for men, accounting for the largest increase in the regional gap in employment to population ratios. But South Asia was not at the forefront of the crisis. And conversely, the advanced economies, which were at the forefront of the crisis, actually reduced their gender gaps in employment to population ratios. So clearly the explanation provided by examining the impact of economic indicators has been limited. Additional explanation is needed, of the impact of social factors, particularly demographic and behavioural. This involves examining gender gaps in the labour force participation rate.

The global female labour force was estimated to be 1.3 billion in 2012, – about 39.9 per cent of the total labour force of 3.3 billion. Figure 3 shows that female participation rates in 2012 ranged from a low of 16 per cent in Jordan to close to 90 per cent in Tanzania. It should be noted that the level of economic development alone does not effectively explain the differences.

Figure 3. Labour force participation rate by sex in 2012,* selected economies



Note: 2012 are preliminary projections.
Source: ILO, *EAPEP*, 6th edition (July 2012 update)[5]

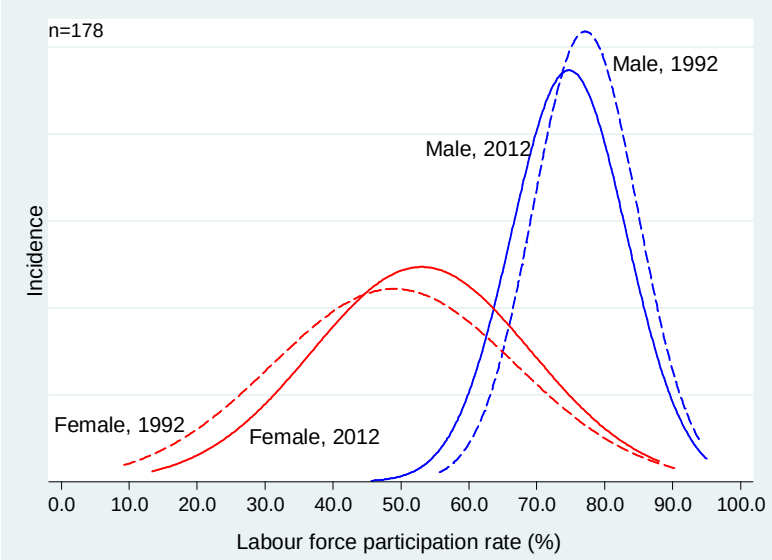
Figure 4 and table 4 show the male and female labour force participation rates, and the gap between them. The figure depicts the gap as the horizontal distance between the two humps. It shows the

[5] The July 2012 update version of the ILO EAPEP database (6th edition) only updates the 2011 estimates for those countries where the reported participation rates became available, and hence the base year for the projections. The difference between the projected and the reported rates for men and women for the overall working-age population were 0.4 and 0.1 percentage points, respectively.

distribution of national labour force participation rates for men and women at two points in time. Figure 4 shows a narrowing of the global gap in labour force participation rates, in the long run, between 1992 and 2012. Cross-country variation in female participation has declined in recent years. In the most recent year, there was slightly less variation in female participation rates among countries (the solid curve is steeper). This reduction is more pronounced in countries where the engagement of women in economic activities was low (on the left hand side). And at the same time, countries with high female labour force participation continued to have high rates. For men, the cross-country variation increased. There are fewer countries with high male participation rates in 2012 compared to 1992 and more countries with lower rates. Therefore, there has been progress in convergence in labour force participation rates with increasing women's rates around the world and men's participation becoming more heterogeneous across countries.

Table 4 decomposes this convergence into three points in time, 1992, 2002, and 2012. The table shows that globally, both female and male labour force participation rates were falling between 1992 and 2002, and were then constant between 2002 and 2012. However, in the first period, the gap in the labour force participation rate fell from 27.9 to 26.1 percentage points, because male rates fell by more than women's rates. So there was convergence. However in the second period, the gap remained constant at 26 points, because male and female rates fell equally.

Figure 4. Distribution of female and male labour force participation rates, 1992 and 2012



Note: n=number of countries; 2012 are preliminary projections.
Source: ILO, *EAPEP*, 6th edition (July 2012 update).

Table 4.Gender gaps in labour force participation rates, by region, 1992, 2002 and 2012

	Male labour force participation rate (%)			Female labour force participation rate (%)			Gap (percentage points)		
Region	1992	2002	2012p	1992	2002	2012p	1992	2002	2012p
WORLD	**80.2**	**78.1**	**77.1**	**52.4**	**52.1**	**51.1**	**27.9**	**26.1**	**26.0**
Developed Economies & European Union	71.8	69.4	67.5	50.3	51.7	52.8	21.5	17.7	14.7
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	74.1	68.0	70.7	52.6	49.1	50.2	21.5	18.9	20.5
East Asia	84.2	81.4	79.4	71.4	69.1	66.4	12.8	12.4	13.0
South-East Asia & the Pacific	82.6	82.8	81.8	58.4	58.4	58.8	24.2	24.4	23.1
South Asia	84.8	83.3	81.3	36.1	35.8	31.8	48.6	47.5	49.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	82.5	80.3	79.5	43.5	49.6	53.6	39.0	30.7	25.9
Middle East	77.6	73.8	74.3	13.3	17.2	18.7	64.3	56.6	55.5
North Africa	74.4	74.1	74.3	21.8	21.2	24.4	52.6	52.9	49.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	79.0	76.5	76.3	60.3	63.5	64.6	18.6	13.0	11.8

Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates; the gap equals the difference between male and female ratios.
Source: ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012.

Three regions account for this constancy in the global gap in labour force participation rates over the last decade. South Asia predominates with an increase in the gap in participation rates of 2 percentage points in the last decade, due to a large fall in the female labour force participation rate of 4 points. This was followed by the regions Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS and East Asia, increasing their gap by 1.6 and 0.6 percentage points, respectively. The former is due to the larger increase in male participation rates (2.7 percentage points) compared to the female rate (1.1 points). The latter is based on the fall in the female labour force participation rate by 2.6 percentage points. In all the other regions, the gap in the labour force participation rate dropped in the last decade, particularly so for the Developed Economies and European Union, Latin America and the Caribbean and North Africa, where it fell by 3, 4.8 and 3 percentage points, respectively, based on rising female labour force participation rates.

Demographic shifts are driving female labour force participation rates

The constant gap in the global labour force participation rate in the last decade was based on male participation rates falling equally with female rates. But most regions had falling gaps and rising female labour force participation rates, except South Asia, East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe.

Table 5 seeks to explain this change in labour force participation rates through disaggregation by age cohort. The table shows that in the last decade, labour force participation rates fell by 3.8 percentage points for young males, and by 0.8 points for adult males. Similarly, labour force participation rates fell by 3.7 points for young females, and by 0.5 points for adult females. Regional disaggregation of female labour force participation rates shows that these fell for young females consistently across all regions. However, for adult females, the labour force participation rates increased for all regions except East and South Asia, where they fell by 1.9 and 3.7 percentage points, respectively.

Hence the convergence in labour force participation rates observed in the 1990s, halted in the 2000s, primarily due to falling participation rates for women in East and South Asia.

Overall then, there appears to have been a number of different factors working to reverse or halt convergence in these three gender gaps, unemployment, employment and labour force participation,

globally and across the regions. The global gender gaps in unemployment and employment converged between 2002 and 2007, and then reversed over the crisis for unemployment, and just inched up, for employment. The gender gap for participation observed over the last two decades, converged in the 1990s and became constant in the 2000s.

The convergence in gender gaps reversed in some regions hit by the crisis, such as Central and Eastern Europe, but not significantly in the advanced economies where women's employment growth fell slightly below men's. However the reversal in the convergence in gender gaps in other regions not in the forefront of the crisis, like South Asia and East Asia seems to have been strongly affected by demographic and behavioural change with both young and old women dropping out of the labour force.

Table 5. Labour force participation rates by sex for youth and adults, world and regions (%)

	1992	2002	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Youth male									
WORLD	66.6	59.9	59.0	58.3	57.8	57.0	56.3	56.2	56.1
Developed Economies & European Union	58.0	53.4	52.9	52.5	52.3	50.8	49.5	49.0	49.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	56.5	47.8	47.0	47.5	49.2	49.3	49.3	49.4	49.6
East Asia	74.8	60.3	60.0	60.0	59.6	59.4	59.0	59.0	58.8
South-East Asia & the Pacific	65.4	62.8	61.3	60.4	60.0	59.8	59.5	59.3	59.2
South Asia	69.7	66.2	64.7	62.8	61.0	59.4	57.8	57.6	57.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	71.4	65.7	64.4	63.8	63.7	62.8	62.9	62.4	62.1
Middle East	56.6	50.7	49.4	48.3	47.0	46.7	46.7	46.6	46.5
North Africa	53.0	48.7	49.1	48.7	48.3	47.7	47.2	47.0	46.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	58.0	56.5	56.2	56.1	56.1	55.9	55.8	55.9	55.9
Youth female									
WORLD	50.5	44.2	43.1	42.6	41.9	41.3	40.8	40.7	40.5
Developed Economies & European Union	51.4	48.2	47.8	47.6	47.5	46.6	45.5	45.1	45.3
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	43.5	35.2	33.3	33.4	34.3	34.6	34.3	34.1	34.1
East Asia	78.3	67.0	63.7	63.3	62.1	61.9	61.7	61.5	61.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	51.5	48.8	47.0	46.4	45.8	45.4	45.2	45.1	45.1
South Asia	32.1	29.1	28.5	27.1	25.8	24.7	23.5	23.5	23.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	40.8	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.3	42.6	42.6	42.7
Middle East	12.6	14.1	14.5	13.8	12.9	12.8	12.9	13.1	13.2
North Africa	21.0	20.7	20.3	19.6	19.6	19.3	19.5	19.6	19.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	49.8	51.6	51.7	51.7	51.7	51.5	51.4	51.4	51.4
Adult male									
WORLD	85.6	84.5	84.3	84.2	84.2	84.0	83.9	83.8	83.7
Developed Economies & European Union	75.1	72.7	72.2	72.3	72.2	71.8	71.5	71.1	70.9
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	79.3	74.5	75.1	75.7	75.8	75.7	75.9	76.2	76.2
East Asia	87.9	87.1	86.2	86.0	85.7	85.5	85.2	85.0	84.7
South-East Asia & the Pacific	91.0	91.1	90.5	90.3	90.0	89.8	89.8	89.7	89.5
South Asia	91.7	90.8	90.9	90.9	90.9	90.9	90.9	90.8	90.7
Latin America & the Caribbean	87.5	86.2	86.0	85.7	85.8	85.7	85.7	85.4	85.3
Middle East	88.6	86.0	85.1	85.0	84.2	84.4	84.6	84.7	84.7
North Africa	85.3	86.7	85.8	85.7	85.6	85.4	85.3	85.2	85.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	90.7	87.9	87.1	87.2	87.4	87.4	87.3	87.4	87.4
Adult female									
WORLD	53.1	54.7	55.1	54.9	54.7	54.5	54.3	54.2	54.2
Developed Economies & European Union	50.0	52.3	53.3	53.6	53.9	54.1	54.3	54.1	54.0
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	54.8	52.8	52.9	53.1	53.0	53.2	53.3	53.6	53.6
East Asia	68.8	69.6	68.9	68.9	68.6	68.3	68.2	67.9	67.7
South-East Asia & the Pacific	61.6	62.1	62.3	62.7	63.1	62.9	63.0	63.0	63.0
South Asia	38.0	38.7	39.6	38.4	37.2	36.1	34.9	35.0	35.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	44.6	52.1	54.5	54.8	55.2	55.9	56.5	56.7	57.0
Middle East	13.7	18.9	20.9	20.9	20.0	20.1	20.4	20.7	21.0
North Africa	22.2	21.4	23.8	25.3	25.4	25.6	25.7	25.9	26.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	65.9	69.9	70.9	71.0	71.2	71.2	71.2	71.4	71.5

Note: 2012 are preliminary estimates.
Source: ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012.

Longer education spells lower participation rates for young women

Declines in youth labour force participation can have a positive outcome as long as this is used for education and training. Whether higher education leads to greater gender equity in the labour market remains questionable. Certainly, the higher the investment in education (both in terms of years and real cost), the higher the opportunity costs of inactivity. This translates into a stronger tendency for women with higher education to participate in the labour market. Moreover, women with higher education might have the opportunity to work in occupations or sectors where gender equality, both in terms of career opportunities and wages, is better. For example, Handy *et al.* (2003) examine women entrepreneurs in a particular segment of the non-profit sector in India to determine which factors influence such self-selection and find that education is one of the main drivers.

However, lower youth female participation rates also reflect a growing incidence of young people who are neither in employment nor in education ("NEET").The report on *Global Employment Trends for Youth for 2012* estimates that the youth NEET rate often reaches 10 per cent or more. This indicates increased detachment from labour markets and this phenomenon often affects young women more than young men. The report shows that for the European Union in 2010, the gender gap in the youth NEET rate was about 1 percentage point, down from about 2 percentage points in 2000. For the sample of developing economies, the gender gap in the youth NEET rate was estimated at 16 percentage points.

Regionally-specific factors cited for the drop in female labour force participation rates include increased education in South Asia and an ageing population leading to higher retirement for women in East Asia. In South Asia, the drop in labour force participation rates is partly explained by a strong increase in enrolment in education. Bhalla and Kaur (2012) also suggest that discrimination, both in terms of wages and of type of job (e.g. difficult entry for women into paid employment), is among the reasons for low participation. They estimate that the share of urban Indian women who work or study was 5 percentage points higher in the 2000s compared to the 1980s. They also project a rapid increase in the female labour force participation rate in the near future, based on the increased share of women in education along with the declining trend in fertility.

Better educated women participate more

The increase in adult women's labour force participation rates can be explained by the combined effects of economic development, increasing education, declining fertility and other structural and institutional changes which are linked to reduced transaction costs and time constraints (see Goldin, 2006). For instance, developments in household production technology have reduced the time and effort needed for housekeeping activities and thus increased the ability of women to participate in labour markets. Indeed, inequalities in the time spent on household activities remain a key driver of the gender differences in participation. In a sample of 35 countries, Berniell and Sanchez-Paramo (2011) find that the differences in time spent on housework varies from 30 per cent more time spent by women than men in Cambodia to 6 times more in Guinea. Nevertheless, although there are important regional variations, women around the world spend more time on housework than men. Making time-use more equal between the sexes is therefore one of the factors that can help in promoting gender equality in the labour market and elsewhere (ILO, 2009).

At the same time, technological advances have strengthened labour demand for women in areas such as clerical and service work (e.g. nursing, teaching and administration) among many others and this coincided with the increased supply of an educated labour force (see Goldin, 2006). Ghani and Kharas (2010) explain that the transition of the economy from agriculture to services in South Asia helped to bring new workers, such as women, into the labour force. Similarly, they find that in East Asia, assembly jobs in the garments and electronics industries have been mainly taken by women who left low-productivity self-employment on family farms.

The evolution of non-standard employment relations, such as part-time and temporary jobs, is another factor that brought women into the labour market. While for some women the increasing availability of part-time jobs helped them to combine work and family responsibilities, for others precarious work has not been a panacea for a path to decent work (ILO, 2009).

Regionally-specific factors cited for increased female labour force participation rates are diverse, and not all positive. For Central and South-Eastern Europe increased female labour force participation appears to be rooted in the institutional changes in the transition to market-based economies, including the reduction in social protection coverage.

For the Middle East and North Africa, increases in female labour force participation are due to a very low starting point resulting from traditional social norms. Chamlou *et al.* (2011) find that higher education, and not secondary or below, plays a significantly positive role in female labour force participation and that the effect of traditional social norms is also very strong but negative. Hassani-Nezhad and Sjögren (2012) find that the introduction of the Kuhl reform[6] also helps explain this increase.

For Latin America and the Caribbean, where the gender gap decreased the most among all regions, there has been a significant transition towards higher female participation for the countries with low participation rates in the previous decade. Chioda *et al.* (2011), find that almost half of the increase in female participation rates is explained by increased accumulation of human capital.

Sub-Saharan Africa's already very high and rising female labour force participation rates unfortunately seem to be due to a negative factor: persistent and pervasive poverty, making economic activity a necessity rather than an option.

In summary, divergence in gender gaps in participation, through a drop in labour force participation rates, could be well due to a desirable outcome, with more young women getting educated or trained. But it could also be due to older women dropping out of the labour market.

On the other hand, convergence in gender gaps in participation, through an increase labour force participation rates, could well be due to an undesirable outcome, with more women compelled to work because of persistent poverty, and lacking opportunities to increase their education or training.

[6] Unilateral rights on divorce for women. The reform of this law concerns the countries: Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates and Occupied Palestinian Territory.

3. Persistent differentials in the quality of employment: vulnerability and segregation

Differentials in unemployment, employment and labour force participation rates between men and women highlighted in the previous chapter constitute an important part of gender inequality in labour markets. Progress made in reducing gender gaps in quantitative volume indicators is not always translated in improvements in the quality of employment. This chapter demonstrates that women continue to be segregated into particular types of occupations, often with inferior working conditions.

The concept of vulnerable employment captures an important dimension of job quality. Workers in vulnerable employment are less likely to have formal work arrangements and are therefore more likely to lack elements associated with decent employment such as adequate social security and recourse to effective social dialogue mechanisms.[7] In much of the developing world, women are more likely than men to work as contributing family workers. This indicates a high proportion of women in low-productivity, informal working arrangements and without adequate social protection. In some advanced economies, women tend to have access to wage and salaried work, but are often concentrated in a more narrow range of occupations. In both advanced and developing economies, gender segregation along occupational and sector lines is widespread and has proven difficult to counter.[8]

Vulnerability: in most regions women had less access to paid employment

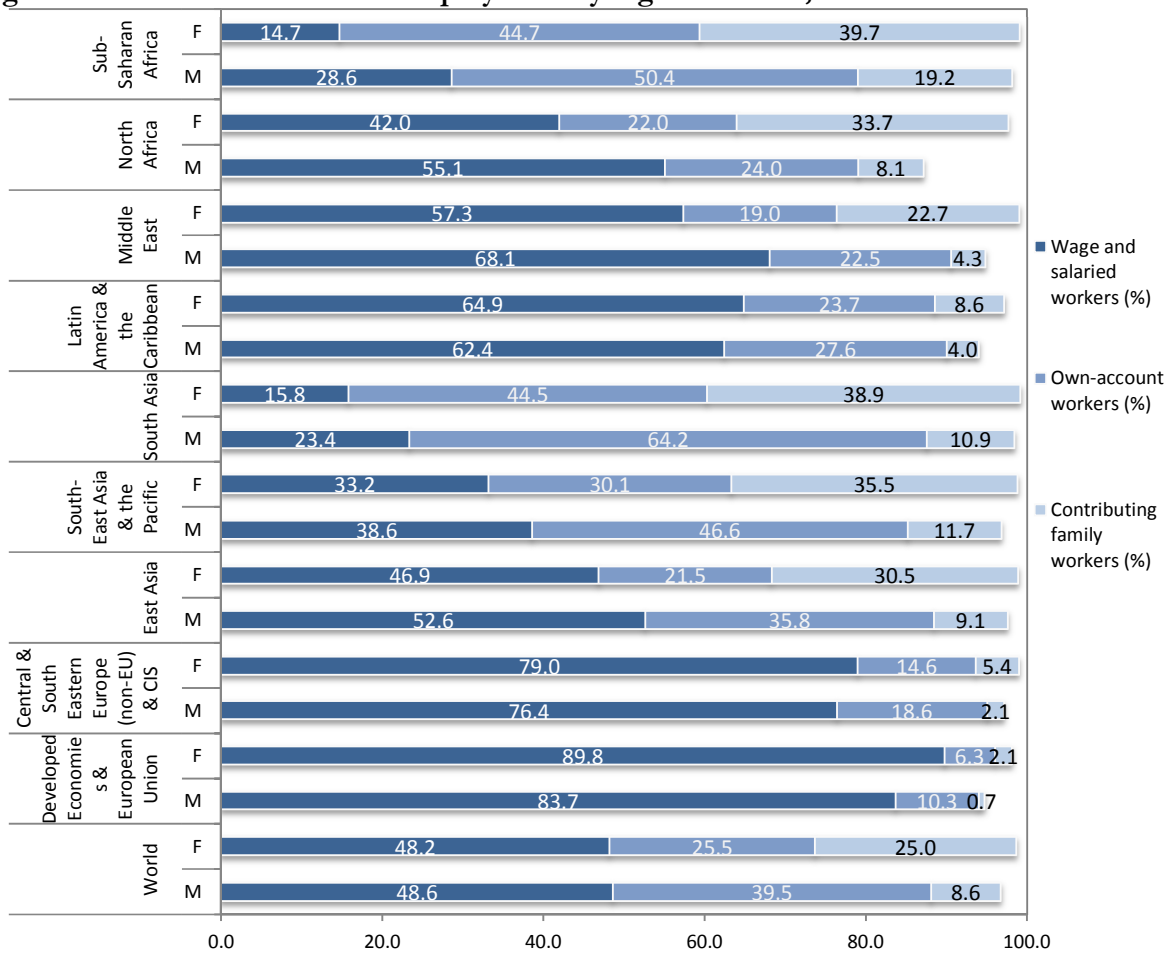
In 2012, more than half of employed women were in vulnerable employment globally (50.4 per cent), compared with 48.1 per cent for men. The relatively small global gap in vulnerable employment masks much larger differences between male and female vulnerable employment rates in North Africa (23.6 percentage points), the Middle East (15 points) and Sub-Saharan Africa (14.9 points). Gaps in the three Asian regions are less than 9 percentage points, while the gap in Latin America and the Caribbean was 0.7 percentage points. Only in the Developed Economies and European Union and Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS regions was the share of women in vulnerable employment lower than the share for men, by 2.7 and 0.7 percentage points, respectively (see annex 1, table A9).

More women than men work as contributing family workers, which adds to their labour market vulnerability. In all regions, the share of own account workers in total employment was higher for men than for women, whereas the opposite held for the share of contributing family workers (see figure 5). Although contributing family workers are not necessarily worse off than own-account workers, the former are dependent on the power relations within the family with regard to their working conditions. The high share of female contributing family workers therefore places women in a subordinate and more vulnerable position to the extent that businesses were run by men.

[7] Vulnerable employment captures contributing family workers and own account workers, while wage and salaried workers and employers constitute non-vulnerable employment. The vulnerable employment rate is one of the indicators used to monitor the target on decent work under the first Millennium Development Goal; for more information see http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/WCMS_114244/lang--en/index.htm.

[8] See World Bank (2012), ILO (2010)

Figure 5. Share of status in total employment by region and sex, 2012



Note: 2012 are preliminary projections. The shares do not add up to 100 because the category for employers is not presented in the figure for the sake of a clear presentation.
Source: ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, July 2012.

Women face pervasive sectoral and occupational segregation

Fewer women than men work in industry

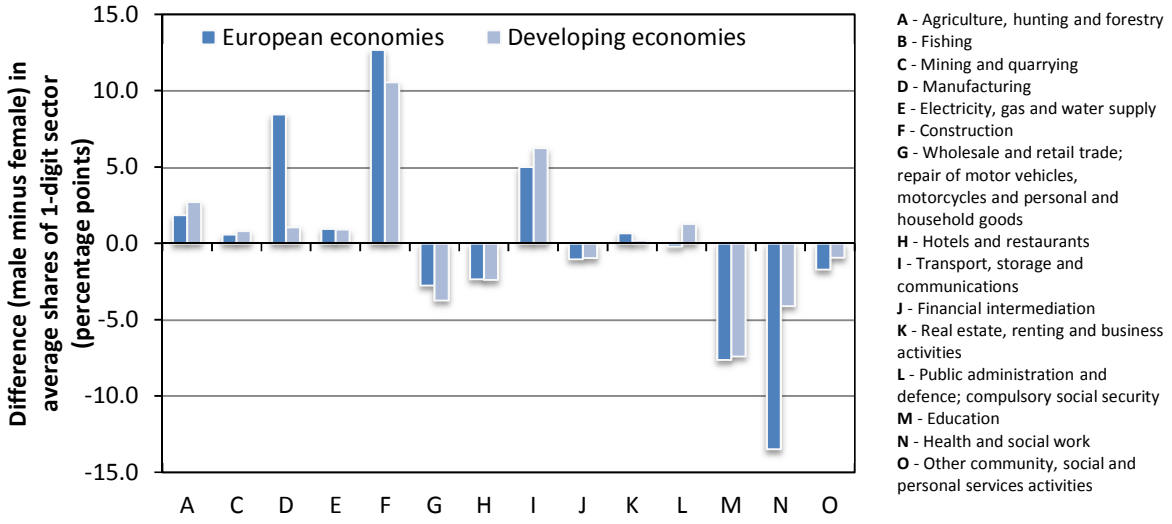
Labour markets remain highly sex-segregated, which reflects an unequal distribution of men and women across sectors and occupations. In 2012, at a global level, just over a third of the women were employed in agriculture, almost half in services, and a sixth in industry. Their industrial share has barely changed in the last two decades. Rather, women have been moving out of agriculture directly into services (annex 1, table A8). In contrast, just under a third of men were employed in agriculture, more than 40 per cent in services, and a quarter in industry. Men's industry share has also barely inched up in the last two decades, which means that segregation in industry has persisted over the past two decades.

In advanced economies, where agricultural employment has been very low for the past two decades, women's employment in industry has halved, crowding more than 85 per cent of their employment into services – primarily education and health. Men's employment in industry has also dropped over the past two decades, from 40 per cent to just under a third. And they have pushed into services, raising their employment share in services from about a half to just under two-thirds.

In developing economies, women have slowly left their predominant employment in agriculture, and have moved into services. The exception has been East Asia, where a quarter of female employment is in industry. Men have left agriculture and increased their employment shares in both industry and services in Asia and North Africa. But employment shares of men in industry have remained constant in the past two decades in Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Sub Saharan Africa. Therefore, also at the regional level, sectoral segregation has been pervasive over time.

Figure 6 shows the difference between male and female employment shares for a more detailed sectoral breakdown across selected developed and developing economies. As the figure demonstrates, men are more concentrated in manufacturing, as identified by a positive male-female employment share differential in this sector. On the other hand, the negative employment share differential in health and social work shows a higher concentration of women employed in this sector.

Figure 6. Differences in average shares of 1-digit sector by sex in selected developed and developing economies, latest year available after 2000



Note: The calculation of male–female differentials by sector is as follows, using sector *X*: "share of persons employed in sector *X* in total employment, males" minus "share of persons employed in sector *X* in total employment, females". Hence, a positive differential implies that men tend to be concentrated more in the specific sector in comparison to women. The sample of developed economies comprises 25 countries, and the sample of developing economies 18 countries.
Source: ILO, *KILM*, 7th edition, table 4c.

Occupational segregation

Occupational segregation can take two main forms: horizontal and vertical segregation. Horizontal segregation refers to the over-representation of women in a particular occupation. In this case the employment share of women in certain occupations is higher than their share in others. In contrast, vertical segregation – also referred to as the "glass ceiling" – occurs when men and women work in the same occupation, but men more often do work that comes with more responsibilities, better pay and higher status, due to reasons not attributable to their skills or experience.

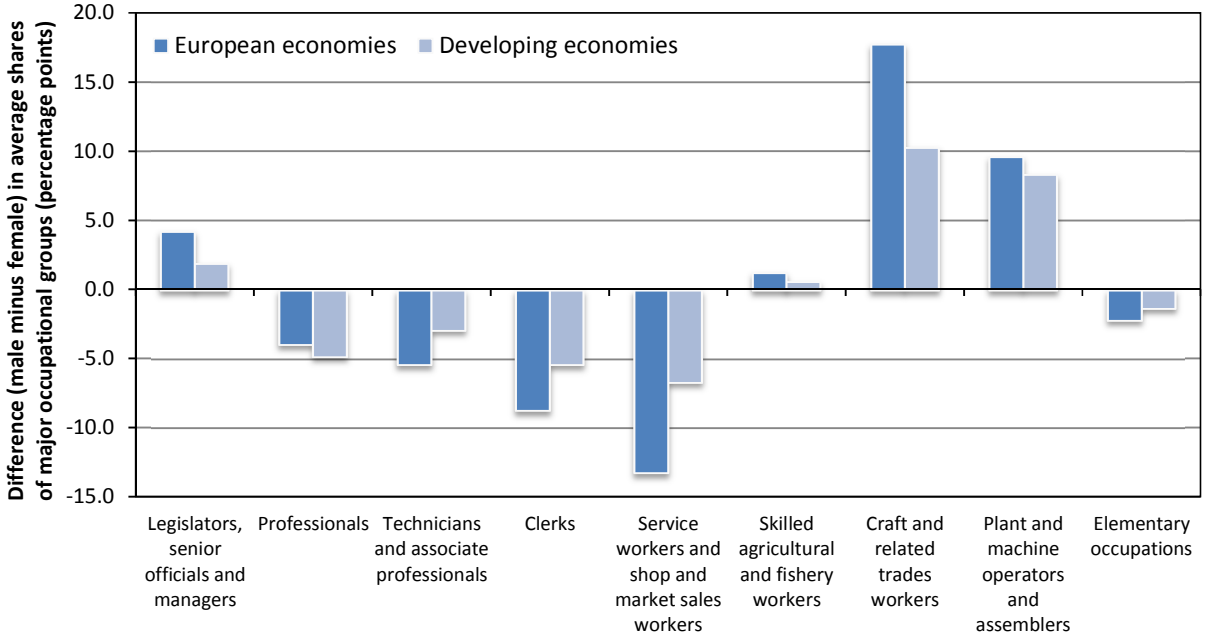
Until the mid-1990s, segregation had broadly declined, (e.g. Anker, 1998). However, this has stalled since the late 1990s, and both horizontal and vertical segregation remain prominent (European Commission, 2009). Women continue to be over-represented in services, housework and agricultural occupations, and the glass ceiling remains prevalent in developed and developing economies alike (UNDAW, 2009).

Moreover, in many countries in the Middle East, Central and South-Eastern Europe and CIS, and Latin America and the Caribbean, younger women today are not necessarily more likely than their older counterparts to work in "mixed occupations", i.e. in occupations that are not dominated by either women or men (Anker, 1998; European Commission, 2009; Deutsch *et al.*, 2002; Sookram and Strobl, 2008; Ertürk, 2009).

In developed and developing economies alike, women are confined to a more limited range of occupations than men. In figure 7, a positive male–female differential shows that the share of a particular occupational group in total male employment is greater than the share in total female employment, signalling that men tend to be concentrated more in this occupational group. On

average, this differential is greater in the sample of developed economies than in the developing ones, but in both groups (horizontal) segregation follows a similar pattern across occupations: men are over-represented in "craft and related trades workers", "plant and machine operators" and "managerial and legislative" occupations. In contrast, women's employment is most heavily concentrated in mid-skills occupations,[9] such as "clerks and service workers" and "shop and market sales workers". This suggests that women do not have the same opportunities to access the full range of occupations as men.

Figure 7. Differences in average shares of major occupational groups by sex in selected developed and developing economies, latest year available after 2000



Note: The calculation of male–female differentials by occupation is as follows, using major group *X*: "share of persons employed in major group *X* in total employment, males" minus "share of persons employed in major group *X* in total employment, females". Hence, a positive differential implies that men tend to be concentrated more in the specific occupation in comparison to women. The sample of developed economies comprises 25 countries, and the sample of developing economies 24 countries.
Source: ILO, *KILM*, 7th edition, table 5a.

Why is segregation so pervasive?

Common explanations for segregation revolve around differences in education and training, experience, gender stereotypes and biases (including in collective bargaining and organizational practices), preferences and needs (including those for security and time). As regards education and training, evidence from the European Union and the United States suggests that diversification of choices in tertiary education is associated with less employment segregation (e.g. Blau *et al.*, 2012). Yet this finding is not universal and does not hold for instance for the Czech Republic, Estonia, Romania, Saudi Arabia and Trinidad and Tobago, where the recent decline in educational segregation has not been reflected in the distribution of employment (European Commission, 2009; Sookram and Strobl, 2008).

[9] For an explanation of the link between occupational groups and skill levels, see ILO, 2011b (KILM manuscript 5).

Gender stereotyping also explains why women and men are over-represented in particular types of jobs. Women dominate in "care" occupations such as nursing, teaching, social care and especially child-care. Men tend to be concentrated in construction and management – areas associated with physical strength, risk-taking or decision-making.[10] Such gender biases are also reflected in organizational practices. Male-dominated sectors tend to be more unionized, and men are more frequently selected for managerial positions because, some argue, they are perceived to be more willing to work longer hours and supervise others. Occupational, sectoral or time-related segregation can also be explained by women's preferences for job security or the manner in which societies force them to balance work and family responsibilities. These factors, among others including structural and legal context, could help explain the over-representation of women in public sector jobs and/or part-time work.

What are the potential consequences of segregation?

Gender segregation limits women's choices in the labour market and constitutes a major obstacle to equality of opportunity and treatment in the workplace. From an economic perspective, segregation limits the extent to which women benefit from economic growth and can contribute to economic growth. For example, a study on India demonstrates how employment growth has been hampered by segregation (box 4). Furthermore, the exclusion of women from certain occupations prevents the efficient allocation of labour with negative consequences for productivity and income distribution. At the macro-economic level, segregation also reduces the ability of labour markets to respond to shocks. For example, European employment projections indicate that labour and skill shortages are likely to affect gender-concentrated occupations more than mixed-occupations (European Commission, 2009; Cedefop, 2008).

Gender segregation affects both women and men, but the consequences are often more serious for women. Cross-country research points to significant inequality between men and women in career prospects and access to managerial positions (European Commission, 2009). In addition, occupational segregation contributes significantly to wage gaps between men and women. Evidence from the United States and Spain suggests that the horizontal occupation component of the gender pay gap explains up to 53 per cent of the total net wage gap (Bayard *et al.*, 2003; Amuedo-Dorantes and De la Rica, 2006). In Bangladesh, the "segregation effect" accounts for almost one-third of the total gender wage gap (Kapsos, 2008). Another way to demonstrate the effects of occupational segregation is to consider differentials in wages in occupations that are predominantly male or female. Evidence from 14 countries demonstrates a wage bias toward male-dominant occupations (higher average wages in male-dominated occupations), with the wage differential ranging from 5 per cent in Thailand to 43 per cent in the Republic of Moldova.[11]

Gender segregation also has an important effect on how men perceive women, and how women perceive themselves, thus perpetuating and reinforcing gender stereotypes which negatively affect women's status and income. The effects of gender stereotyping may be even more pronounced in

[10] Anker (1998) identified five so-called positive female stereotypes (caring nature, skill in household-related work, greater manual dexterity, greater honesty and physical attractiveness) and four negative stereotypes (unwilling to supervise others, less physical strength, less ability in science and maths, unwilling to face danger and use physical force).

[11] See ILO, 2009, table 4 and figures 19–21.

developing countries with small formal sectors, if women opt out of wage employment altogether (Anker, 1998). This could be of particular importance for female-headed households. Taking into consideration that women tend to spend a higher proportion of their income on their family than men, gender segregation could also contribute to increased levels of poverty and inequality. A number of countries have taken important steps to reduce segregation, including Czech Republic, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom, often by taking active measures to break gender-based stereotypes and increase women's access to male-dominant occupations. While these initiatives are useful, successful policies to combat occupational segregation should not only focus on women but also aim to encourage men to enter industries or occupations traditionally associated with women.[12]

Gender segregation and the economic crisis

At the start of the crisis, female employment was less affected than employment levels for men, at least in the developed world where female employment is more concentrated in services sectors. According to labour market surveys in the United States in August 2009, male-dominated sectors such as construction and manufacturing had lost 39 per cent of their jobs since 2007. Meanwhile, jobs in health services, where relatively more women were employed, had actually increased by 4.5 per cent (Schalatek, 2010). In the developing world, however, women are more often employed in sectors producing tradeable goods. The contraction in export-oriented manufacturing industries and tourism led to greater job losses among women in many developing countries (ILO, 2009; Seguino, 2009). For example, a significant number of Eastern African women lost their jobs in textiles and high-value agricultural sub-sectors (Randriamaro, 2010). A similar pattern has been observed in South-East Asia and the Pacific, where employment in manufacturing is important for women.

In some Latin American countries, the contraction of manufacturing also had a disproportionate impact on women because of the importance of contract manufacturing in free trade zones where many women work. About 65 per cent of workers who lost their jobs due to the contraction of manufacturing in Central America in 2008 were women (Trucchi, 2009). Tourism is another industry in which many women lost their jobs due to the crisis.

Did crisis policy influence gender segregation?

Several crisis-response measures of governments had an impact on gender segregation. In both developed and developing countries, stimulus packages and austerity measures often targeted specific sectors, impacting differently on male and female employment.

Stimulus packages immediately following the start of the crisis were directed mainly towards male-dominated sectors. For example, in Germany male employment benefited from stimulus measures in about 72 per cent of cases and female employment in about 28 per cent of cases (Schambach, 2010). Likewise, expanding short-time working arrangements benefited largely trade-related, male-dominated industries, such as the car industry where men constituted 80 per cent of the beneficiaries (Reiner, 2009).

[12] Notable initiatives include the parallel information campaigns "Girls' Day" and "New Pathways for Boys" in Germany, educational programmes such as "Strong Women – Complete Men", "Women's Occupations – Men's Occupations" in Liechtenstein and Switzerland, and the creation of the "assistance nurse position" in Austria, specifically aimed to attract men.

Similarly, austerity measures targeting the public sector have had a disproportionally severe effect on women workers. The tightening in public service expenditure in several developed economies, including Iceland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, has forced many public administrations to stop recruitment or dismiss current staff, with negative consequences in particular for women (Smith, 2009; Sumeo, 2010; EPI, 2012). In the United States, women held 70 per cent of the 765,000 jobs shed in the public sector between 2007 and 2011 (EPI, 2012).[13] Likewise, until 2017, the government of the United Kingdom is expected to cut 850,000 public sector jobs, mainly in the health sector, with grave implications for the sector's female-dominated workforce (Leschke and Jepsen, 2011). Furthermore, with the anticipated rebalancing of the economies away from consumption towards investment and exports, the situation of women in consumer-oriented industries, such as retail, is expected to worsen (Smith, 2009).

In developing countries, crisis response measures have had a different impact on gender segregation. Some countries adopted measures that benefited female-dominated sectors, others directed their stimulus packages towards male-dominated industries. In Central Asia, Uzbekistan created 534,600 new jobs in 2009, with 328,000 of them in rural areas, and 52,000 in the domestic services sector, where predominantly women worked. In contrast, in Kyrgyzstan, the tax scheme introduced in 2009 led to bigger losses in production and employment in the female-dominated manufacturing sector, particularly textiles, which were already hard hit by the fall in external demand. A further consequence of the crisis in Central Asia was felt in the health and childcare sectors, where reduced public spending imposed a double burden on women: directly through loss of employment and indirectly through increased family responsibilities (Djanaeva, 2010).

Particular stimulus measures, such as public infrastructure projects, also showed a gender bias in favour of male employment, although gender-friendly practices did emerge in Latin America. The majority of infrastructure development measures adopted by developing countries disproportionately benefited men, who dominate the construction sector. Similarly, public works plans in Latin America did not consider the gendered nature of the labour market, and focused on male-dominated sectors, including sewerage systems, roads, hospitals, energy and mining. In Brazil, for instance, the National Bank of Economic and Social Development increased its lending to Petrobras, the biggest oil company in Brazil, which employs mainly men. On the other hand, women are expected to benefit more from the support measures to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Chile, Mexico and Peru, and from agricultural support funds in Argentina, Bolivia and Mexico (ECLAC, 2009).

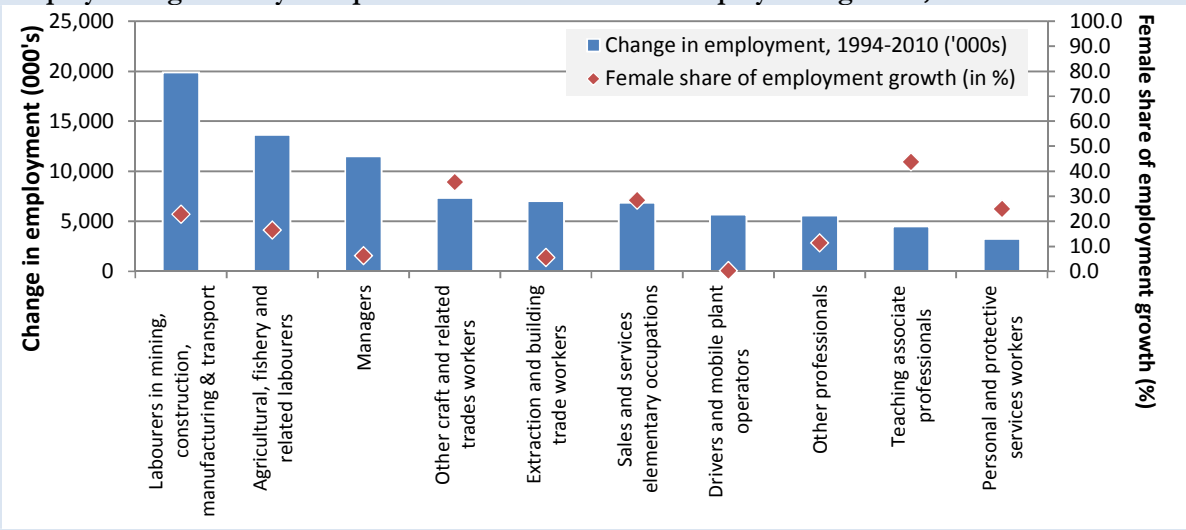
[13] For further details, see: http://www.epi.org/press/women-african-americans-hit-hardest-job/ [accessed 20 October 2012].

Box 4. Occupational segregation and female labour force participation in India

Between 1994 and 2010, the female labour force participation rate in India declined by more than 10 percentage points, from an already low 42.7 per cent to 32.6 per cent. While the number of working-age women increased by 104 million over this period, the number of economically active women increased by only 9.6 million, in contrast to an increase of nearly 71 million economically active men. A forthcoming ILO study (Kapsos and Silberman, forthcoming) examines the potential causes of low and declining female participation in India, focusing on three areas: (1) increased educational attendance of young women; (2) data collection and survey timing issues; and (3) reduced employment opportunities for women.

With regard to the third area, one of the issues analysed in this study is the high level (and growing incidence) of occupational segregation in the country, which confines women to seeking work in particular sectors and occupations, in line with prevailing social norms. If employment is not growing in those sectors and occupations in which women are working, their employment prospects are likely to be limited, posing a barrier to female participation. Indeed, by comparing male and female employment by occupation and over time, the most dynamic occupations in terms of employment growth between 1994 and 2010 were largely male-dominated, and women did not benefit from overall employment growth in those occupations to the same extent as their male counterparts. The figure below shows the ten occupations which saw the greatest increase in employment over the period. These ten occupations accounted for around 90 per cent of India's total employment growth between 1994 and 2010.

Employment growth by occupation and female share of employment growth, 1994–2010



Source: ILO calculations based on India National Sample Survey datasets.

Women's share of employment growth in each of India's fastest growing occupations was below 50 per cent, with a maximum of 43.8 per cent for "teaching associate professionals" (the ninth fastest growing occupation). Notably, increased female employment only accounted for 6.3 per cent of the increase in managers, for 11.4 per cent of other professional workers and for only 0.4 per cent of drivers and mobile plant operators.

The research also includes a scenario assessing the extent to which occupational segregation could be contributing to the overall stagnation in female employment. This is done by: (1) allocating women across occupations using the same distribution as men in 1994; (2) calculating women's hypothetical share in employment in that occupation in 1994, using the actual employment in each occupation as a benchmark; and (3) multiplying this share by the actual employment growth in each occupation over the period from 1994 to 2010. The scenario therefore shows the amount of employment growth that women would have enjoyed in each occupation had female employment been distributed across occupations in the same manner as male employment and had women accounted for a share of future employment growth in each occupation equal to

this hypothetical share. Under this scenario, female employment in India would have grown by 17.7 million between 1994 and 2010, more than twice the actual female employment growth of 8.7 million. This points to large potential benefits from policies aimed at reducing occupational segregation in India, such as discouraging discriminatory employment practices and promoting skills development for women in industries and occupations with the greatest potential for employment growth.

Source: Kapsos and Silberman, 2013, forthcoming. Female Labour Force Participation in India, ILO (Geneva).

4. How can policies improve women's labour market outcomes?

Gender gaps in labour markets remain pervasive around the world, with women continuing to suffer from the fallout of the global economic crisis. Current projections indicate that women's employment opportunities are likely to remain limited, with female unemployment rates projected to remain elevated until 2017 or beyond. A necessary first step towards reducing gender gaps is to further narrow the labour force participation gaps between women and men – that is, to facilitate easier access to the labour market for women and to expand their employment opportunities. Ample evidence exists on policy measures that can be implemented to reduce barriers to entry and encourage female employment. Yet, progress in this area alone would be insufficient, as women tend to be found more frequently in vulnerable employment and to be concentrated in a narrower range of occupations and sectors than men. To address these issues, there is a need to expand social protection measures to reduce women's vulnerability, invest in their skills and education and implement policies to foster access to employment across the occupational spectrum. Given the persistent challenges women face in labour markets, enacting effective policy measures along these lines will be essential to address gender-based inequities in the labour market and to enhance productive employment opportunities for women around the world.

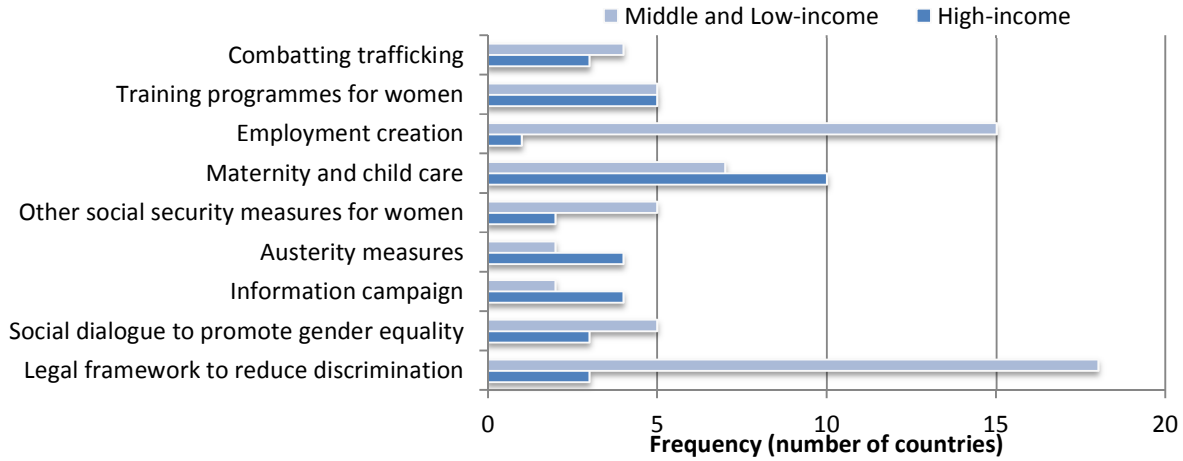
This policy chapter first reviews the immediate policy context, by examining gender policy enacted during the crisis. It then sets out six policy guidelines, which must be viewed more as work in progress rather than a more definitive policy agenda.

Crisis policies to reduce gender gaps

According to the ILO/World Bank Policy Inventory database,[14] between 2008 and 2010, 39 out of 55 low- and middle-income countries and 17 out of 22 high income countries adopted new measures to address the large gender gaps in participation and employment (see figure 8). These included a wide variety of provisions, such as a full revision of all laws that discriminate against women (Botswana), the reference to non-discrimination based on race and gender in new Constitutions (Angola and Ecuador), the draft of an equality law (Cameroon), strengthening prevention and punishment of sexual harassment (Peru, Uganda and Uruguay), revising the income tax system (Senegal), introducing parity law in elective institutions (Senegal), updating fines for failure to comply with the Employment of Women Act (Sri Lanka) and an overall strategy for gender equality (Serbia).

[14] This is a unique database of policy responses to the crisis implemented in 2008–10 in 77 countries (available at: www.ilo.org/crisis-inventory). It is a joint ILO/World Bank project on policy responses to the global financial and economic crisis. The ILO/WB inventory of crisis responses can also be used to review the first austerity measures implemented over the period 2009–10 in the field of social protection.

Figure 8. Frequency of measures to reduce gender inequality, 2008–10



Source: ILO/WB inventory of policy responses to the crisis (www.ilo.org/crisis-inventory).

Seven countries reported on how social dialogue could contribute to gender equality. For instance, in Brazil and Uruguay, tripartite institutions participated in drafting laws promoting equality. The contribution of social dialogue to gender equality could have been further strengthened by increasing the participation of women in the social dialogue bodies (Briskin and Muller, 2011).

About one-third of these gender-related policy measures were directly linked to the crisis (see table 6). The patterns of policy measures differed, however, depending on a country's level of income and its female labour force participation rate. Frequently, in high-income countries with high female participation rates, crisis packages included childcare support. Countries with low levels of female labour force participation, both high and middle income, were more likely to implement labour market measures targeted at unemployed women.

Nine countries reported on some form of additional childcare support, mostly belonging to the group of high-income countries, including six where female labour force participation was high (Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Republic of Moldova, Netherlands and the United States). Noticeably, most additional childcare was provided in countries where there was an added worker effect (i.e. an increase in female labour force participation post-crisis), and in a few countries where female participation decreased (the Netherlands and the United States). Moreover, childcare support – a labour intensive sector – acted as a labour demand-side measure through the construction of childcare infrastructure.

Table 6. Examples of crisis-related measures targeted at women

Labour supply measures	
Training	
Argentina (2009)	Certification, training and job search support to vulnerable groups, including unskilled women
Chile (2009)	Scaling up of a programme providing training, food subsidies and mobility grants to low-income unemployed heads of households. One of the target groups is female head of household
Italy (Feb. 2009)	Training courses for unemployed women in specific regions
Japan (2009)	Counselling for women raising small children and young women
Childcare	
Australia (2009)	Increase in child benefits
Canada (2009)	Increases to the national Child Benefit and Child Tax Benefit
France (2009)	Additional support to childcare and other personal services (0.3 billion euros)
Japan (2009)	Expansion of childcare facilities in local areas (and income support to households with children)
Malaysia (2009)	Part of the fiscal package (8.6% of GDP) was devoted to developing childcare facilities for both private and public sector employees (and also to women's sheltered housing)
United States (2009)	The Recovery Act provided for additional support (US$1.9 billion) for childcare to low-income parents to give them an incentive to work or participate in training sessions
Labour demand measures	
Entrepreneurship	
Egypt (2009)	Cut in interest rate by 2% for micro- and small enterprises targeted at female-headed households, with a grace period of one year
Turkey (2009)	Special credit lines for artisan women
Public works	
Latvia (2009)	Public works for specific target groups – one being women returning to the labour market after maternity leave or long absence
Serbia (2009)	In the call for proposals, priorities were given to projects according to several criteria, one being to support the employment of women
South Africa (2009)	Scaling up the public work programme, which has a quota for women
Subsidized employment	
Turkey (Feb. 2009)	Extension of duration of incentives to the employment of women (and youth) through decrease in employer's social security contribution
Pensions	
France (2009)	Validation of the trimester of a woman's childbirth in the calculation of the rights to retirement pension; increase in pension age
Italy (2010)	Gradual increase in retirement age of women starting from 2012
Jamaica (2010)	Increase in retirement age from 60 to 65. By 2015 women will be entitled to draw their pension at 65
Romania (2009)	Increase in the retirement age of women at 60 and of men at 65 and plan to increase the retirement age for women to 65 by 2030
Other measures	
Estonia (2009)	An employer may end an employment contract, except for employees with children under 3, pregnant women (or those on or on maternity leave), and people on parental leave
Netherlands (2009)	The Social Pact included a range of policy measures to increase female employment through family-friendly policies and tax reforms
Spain (2008)	The Social Pact of July 2008 provides for "the parties [to] agree to continue working to expand the participation of women, prevent wage discrimination, and advance in responsibility and balance between professional and family life".
Vietnam (2009)	In-kind and cash support to female migrant workers in regions hardest hit by the crisis

Source: ILO/WB inventory of policy responses to the crisis (www.ilo.org/crisis-inventory).

Ten countries reported on labour market measures targeting women, all high- and middle-income countries where female participation was low (except Latvia). These measures included training for unemployed women in Argentina and Chile and training for women returning to the labour market (Italy and Japan). Four countries increased their public works programmes with quotas for, or focus on, female participation (India, Latvia, Serbia and South Africa), while Turkey increased the scope of subsidized employment for long-term unemployed women. Two countries also targeted female entrepreneurs: Egypt introduced a 2 per cent cut in interest rates on loans to micro- and small

enterprises targeted at women-headed households and Turkey introduced special credit lines for female artisans, as a crisis response.[15]

Crisis-related measures in low-income countries had a strong focus on infrastructure and agriculture policies, on food subsidies, as well as on labour market measures, such as youth employment and public and/or minimum wages (Saget and Yao, 2012; ILO/WB, 2012). The fiscal packages have had less focus on labour-market measures specifically targeted at women or childcare facilities. Still, the fiscal package implemented in Mali, from funds coming from the privatization of the national telecommunication company, included measures to reduce the gap in educational attainment between boys and girls.

In addition, eight countries implemented austerity measures related to unemployment benefits (Czech Republic, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Romania, Serbia, Ukraine and the United Kingdom) and tightened eligibility criteria or reduced the duration or level of benefits (Bonnet *et al.*, 2012). Some austerity measures could be more detrimental to the employment of women, for example through cuts in childcare. In that respect, Estonia and Germany decreased parental benefits and leave, respectively. Austerity measures also included an increase in the maternity contribution rate (Switzerland) and a reduction in tax credit for non-working partners (the Netherlands).

Countries that were able to offer labour market measures to unemployed women on a large scale already had the programmes in place. For example, the case of Chile's scaling up of a programme targeting, among other groups, unskilled female heads of households. The programme, offering training, food subsidies and mobility grants, benefited 20,000 additional beneficiaries in 2009. One of South Africa's responses to the economic recession of 2009 was to expand the country's public works programme, which has a quota for female participants. The same response was adopted by Turkey, where an additional 65,000 women benefited from subsidized employment over the period 2009–10. There were few major new programmes.

There was also an increase in the pensionable age for women in Italy, Jamaica and Romania. These reforms had been planned before the crisis, but the simultaneous increase in expenditure and decrease in receipts of social security funds brought about by the crisis accelerated the reforms. Sometimes these pension reforms were implemented so quickly that there was not enough time to fully consult social partners and other interested groups, resulting in periods devoted (by women) to pregnancy and child-raising not being taken into account properly (Sarfati and Ghellab, 2012). There is also evidence that wherever pension reforms were based on effective social dialogue that gave the social partners time to raise equity issues, they were more inclusive and fairer.

A few countries took a more integrated approach to promote gender equality during the crisis. For example, the Netherlands incorporated gender mainstreaming in its crisis responses as a way of promoting gender equality. Its Government negotiated with the trade unions, combined labour market and education measures and provided support to infrastructure and innovation with the maintenance of benefits levels and family-friendly measures. The package of family-friendly measures in the 2009 "Crisis Pact" included extension of parental leave from 13 to 26 weeks,

[15] This result on measures facilitating female labour market participation during the crisis is broadly in line with the literature review in box 1.

improvements in the accessibility and quality of childcare and a public benefit scheme for self-employed women. A Task Force was also set up to propose ways of increasing flexible hours and encouraging women to work a greater number of hours. The Pact also included training and integration measures for members, mostly women, of ethnic minority groups and measures to increase diversity in studies and careers of girls.

Therefore, the crisis responses from a gender perspective relate to: (a) the importance of childcare in crisis packages in high-income countries with high levels of female participation, which seemed to have resulted in increasing both the demand and supply of female labour; (b) the reliance on labour market policies targeted at women in middle-and high-income countries with low levels of female participation; (c) the worrying trend that, in the second phase of the crisis, austerity policies could be harmful to services sectors in which female employment was concentrated, such as elderly and childcare, healthcare and the education sectors; and (d) the role of social partners in reducing gender inequality in social pacts put in place during the crisis (Baccaro and Heeb, 2011), and their contribution in that respect through tripartite institutions, which could be strengthened through the increased participation of women in social dialogue.

Policy reforms to address gender inequalities

The gender gap is influenced by household decisions

Female participation in the labour market is strongly influenced by decisions taken at the household level. Policy makers have started recognising that reducing the gender gaps in labour markets – for unemployment, employment and participation for women – require that household responsibilities be better combined with labour market participation. They have come to realize that the multi-faceted nature of modern households and their various composition (i.e. heterosexual couples with or without children, single parents, childless individuals, same-sex partners and extended families; Özbilgin *et al.*, 2011) calls for a wide range of policy options to improve women's access to the labour market.

At the household level, individuals divide paid work, unpaid housework and care work to meet the household's needs. A wide range of factors influences how work is provided and divided, such as individuals' beliefs about appropriate gender roles and childrearing practices, as well as perceptions about the value of their contributions. Moreover, social norms and expectations of how men and women are treated in the workplace can affect decisions on time allocation in the household. For example, if men are expected to earn more, families may choose to specialize into male paid work and female unpaid work. Similarly, if women are seen as having weaker ties to the labour market, firms might choose men for key positions and pay them accordingly (Chichilnisky and Hermann Frederiksen, 2008). These perceptions can be influenced and shaped by the relative bargaining power of the household members that can be affected by potential pay, human capital, economic dependency, potential status in employment. Another set of factors relates to specific household needs and interests. For instance, in several European countries, low-income mothers are more likely to work than high-income ones (Uunk *et al.*, 2005).

In developed and developing economies alike, children and care responsibilities play a crucial role in labour market outcomes and can significantly increase the burden of unpaid work. Care responsibilities may block women's entry to the labour market or cause them to interrupt their

careers or to shorten their working hours. Career interruptions can depreciate human capital, reduce access to job training and to business networks, lower wage bargaining power and thus contribute to poor outcomes in terms of wages, career advancement and ease of return to work, at least in the short term (Booth, 2006; Letablier *et al.*, 2009; European Parliament, 2010; Robson, 2010).[16]

Female part-time work can also limit future career prospects, though this is not a general rule. Some forms of part-time employment could be advantageous,[17] but high-quality part-time work is often unavailable and can lead to increased precariousness and limited decent work opportunities. When the quality of part-time employment is low, workers may suffer in terms of pay, occupational segregation, non-eligibility for social benefits and job insecurity (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; OECD, 2010a). Job insecurity results from the dominance of temporary contracts in part-time work. Wage penalty varies by country[18] and some authors suggest that the pay penalty is not inherent to part-time work itself, but rather reflects segregation of part-time workers into low-paying, female-dominated occupations.[19] Moreover, part-time work is often concentrated in services, clerical and sales occupations, which are better-paid than blue-collar work, but have a significant part-time work wage penalty (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008).

Policy options to help equalize household decisions

There are six types of instruments through which policies can help households to reduce the gender-bias in their work decisions: (a) improve infrastructure to alleviate household work; (b) introduce policies that help to reduce the burden of care activities; (c) equalize incentives for all household members to engage in care activities; (d) change costs and benefits of gender specialization; (e) compensate for unequal employment opportunities based on gender; (f) public campaigns to challenge gender stereotypes, and for proper implementation of legislation against discrimination. These are discussed below and the main policy options for promoting gender equality are presented in table 7.[20]

(a) Reducing the burden of housework through better infrastructure

Investments in infrastructure and public services, such as electricity, sanitation and clean water, can improve labour market conditions for women by reducing the time needed to complete household tasks and production. Since this work falls disproportionately to women, such services tend to increase women's labour force participation more than men's. For instance, the expansion of

[16] However, there is a debate on whether such penalties eventually disappear.

[17] For instance, part-time work can be well paid and used to retain high-skill workers or to help individuals transition into the labour market (see Kalleberg, 2000 for a review of different forms). On the other hand, part-time employment in most countries comes at considerable cost to the worker, with lower wages compared to equivalent full-time work, as well as lack of rights, representation and voice at work (ILC, 2009, paragr. 277 to 279).

[18] A study of several developed countries finds that Anglo-Saxon countries penalize part-time work most severely, while Sweden does not penalize part-time work at all (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008).

[19] For a review of the literature see Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; Manning and Petrongolo, 2008.

[20] Establishing a causal relationship is challenging and policy evaluations must take into account long-term trends and simultaneous economic, political or social changes. This also means that policies exist within a specific context and, hence, good practices may not be transferable from one context (e.g. country, region, demographic group, etc.) to another.

electricity networks in rural South Africa appears to have increased women's employment by 10 percentage points in 5 years while having no effect on men (World Bank, 2012).

Also, services that improve mobility can aid gender equality in employment and education. For instance, reducing distances travelled and improving transportation services and infrastructure increased female school attendance in Afghanistan, as did expanding rural road networks in Guatemala and Pakistan (World Bank, 2012).

(b) Reducing the burden of care work through the provision of care services for children and the elderly

An inadequate supply of affordable non-parental childcare and short school or childcare hours can constrain parents' full-time participation, in particular for mothers (Blau and Currie, 2004). Here, government and social partners can support non-parental care through direct service provision (early childhood education and care, after-school programmes, etc.), promotion of locally-organised care, subsidization, regulation and harmonizing the hours of work and childcare or school. In particular, publicly provided childcare may create better paid and more secure jobs for women (Razavi and Staab, 2010). The fact that care workers are typically female has led some to argue that such services perpetuate the traditional gender division of labour and reinforce occupational segregation (Chang, 2000; Mandel and Shalev, 2006). The argument seems largely a question of scope: if unpaid care work were to be considered an occupation, it would be difficult to argue that segregation is increased by the large-scale entry of women into many different fields (one of them being care work).

In developed countries, affordable, accessible, high-quality childcare with hours harmonized with the working day has been shown to improve work-family balance, increase parents' labour force participation, increase labour force continuity, increase productivity and reduce absenteeism (Stier *et al.*, 2001; Polachek, 2006; Gash, 2008; Letablier *et al.*, 2009; Budig *et al.*, 2010; Hein and Cassirer, 2010).[21]

In developing countries, childcare services have also been linked to increased labour force participation; some examples include community nurseries in Colombia (see box 5), preschool facilities in Argentina and Israel (Schlosser, 2005; Berlinski and Galiani, 2007; Berlinski *et al.*, 2008), and centre-based day care in Rio de Janerio (de Barros *et al.*, 2011). Despite their role in facilitating labour force participation, care services for young children under the age of 3 are typically unavailable or limited in coverage (Hein and Cassirer, 2010).

[21] In addition to its positive contribution for female labour market participation, good quality childcare has a positive effect on children's health and development, at least after the age of two. At younger ages, the impact of non-parental care is less straightforward; some evidence suggests childcare during the first year could be harmful for children's health, but if one takes into account the gains that maternal employment brings, employment during the first year may have a neutral net effect (Brooks-Gunn *et al.*, 2010; Hein and Cassirer, 2010).

Box 5. Increasing female labour force participation through childcare provision: The case of community care in Colombia

In 1986, Colombia established the Hogares Comunitarios de Bienestar (HCB) programme. As part of the programme, community nurseries were created. The local parents' association elects and pays a "community mother" to care for children under the age of 6 during the work day. The programme targeted childhood development, nutrition and health, with the Government providing food and nutritional supplements for the children. Even though this programme does not explicitly intend to improve female labour force participation, Attanasio and Vera-Hernandez (2004) found that HCB participation increased the probability of mothers' employment by roughly 25 percentage points. This effect appears to be more marked among low-income women (Peña-Parga and Glassman, 2004). Increases are also observed in terms of working hours.

Source: Attanasio and Vera-Hernandez, 2004 and 2009; Peña-Parga and Glassman, 2004; Vargas-Barón, 2009.

With an aging population, old-age care has also received increased attention. An OECD study estimates that in this region about two-thirds of family carers are women, but more men become carers at more advanced ages (Colombo *et al.*, 2011). More intense care responsibilities for the elderly appear to have a greater impact on labour market outcomes. In particular, individuals with less favourable labour market prospects seem to be more likely to provide care, thereby limiting the overall impact of care responsibilities on labour market participation (Lilly*et al.*, 2007; Leigh, 2010). Looking at information from developed countries, individuals with medium intensity care responsibilities (10-20 hours a week) are likely to reduce working hours, while those with high-intensity care responsibilities (over 20 hours) are likely to either reduce work hours or drop out of the labour force entirely (Lilly *et al.*, 2007; Colombo *et al.*, 2011). The effects of elderly care responsibilities are likely to be more severe in developing countries, as these countries often lack high-quality long-term care facilities.

Taking into consideration the expected growth of demand for old-age care and the risk that women might be trapped in dual caring responsibilities (children and elderly dependants), there are advantages if caring roles are better recognized and organized. Recognizing the societal value of informal (family and friends) caring as well as the possible advantages for the public financial strains, policy-makers face the challenge of combining public and private financial support for old-age carers at an appropriate level that does not discourage labour force participation (Colombo *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, policy-makers would need to better organize the formal old-age care workforce supply while the availability of flexible working arrangements as well as statutory paid leave for working family carers are also important elements (Colombo *et al.*, 2011). In countries with limited resources, such programmes can be targeted at the poor in order to limit programme costs (see box 6).

Box 6. Public childcare programmes targeted at the poor

Programa de Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras (PEIMT) is Mexico's Federal programme for day-care to facilitate female labour market engagement as well as to promote children's development. The programme provides financial support to both individuals and to public organisations that are interested in starting up nurseries, and a subsidy to low-income mothers. It is targeted poor households and the main criteria for inclusion is that mothers work or are enrolled to education or training or seek employment. In 2011, 45,000 jobs were created for day-care providers and their assistants, mainly women, while 300,000 children were enrolled and 10,000 day-care centres were registered to the programme.

Source: SEDESOL, 2011. Quoted in UN Women and ILO (2012).

(c) Redressing the gender division of paid and unpaid work

While much has been done to encourage female labour market participation, there have been fewer measures that actively target men's participation in childcare. One way to target men is by providing paternity leave and parental leave (Ferrarini, 2006; European Commission, 2010). Due to its short duration, paternity leave has historically had only moderate success in balancing men and women's take-up of leave and allowing women to return to work earlier (Marshall, 2003; Adema and Whiteford, 2007; Lammi-Taskula, 2008). Increasing men's take-up of leave could also improve employers' expectations of women in relation to career interruption and thus improve their treatment as a group (see box 7).

Box 7. Promoting involved fathers: The Parental Insurance Plan (QPIP) in Quebec (Canada)

Effective from January 2006, Quebec created a separate parental insurance plan which offered higher benefit rates than the plan used by the rest of Canada and introduced 5 weeks of paternity leave. Between 2005 and 2006, the claim rate among eligible men skyrocketed (from 32 to 56 per cent), while the figure for the rest of Canada contracted slightly (from 13 to 11 per cent).

Source: Marshall, 2008.

If the dual-career, dual-worker model is to be realized, it is likely to involve an increase in part-time work for both men and women. To improve the quality of part-time work, steps need to be taken to guarantee the equal treatment of part-time workers for social benefits, as is being done in many OECD countries (see box 8).[22] Several countries have also introduced measures to allow for temporary part-time work for parents, caregivers, sick and disabled works, older workers and workers pursuing education or training.[23] These measures can be complemented by giving preference to part-time workers for full-time vacancies so as to facilitate their eventual reintegration into the full-time workforce.

[22] For a list of such measures see OECD (2010a, p. 208, table 4.1).

[23] Such laws do not necessarily increase the incidence of part-time work, but seem to reduce unmet demand for part-time work (OECD, 2010c).

Box 8. "Men equal – Men different", a project in Europe

"Men equal – Men different" is a project that has been implemented in Bulgaria, Denmark, France and Latvia, and aims to promote active parenthood, father's involvement in child-care and more broadly family life as well as to encourage practices for reconciliation of work and family in enterprises and changing gender stereotypes. This project targets not only families in general, young fathers or fathers-to-be but also employers and employees. In all four countries, the project increased fathers' involvement in child-care, but cultural and economic constraints as well as stereotypes of the gender division of work continue to hinder men's active participation.

Source: member State Contribution to the report of the Secretary General on "Progress in mainstreaming a gender perspective in the development, implementation and evaluation of national policies and programs, with a particular focus on the equal sharing of responsibilities between women and men, including care giving in the context of HIV/AIDS" (E/CN.6/2009/4) quoted in 2009 World Survey on the Role of Women in development; United Nations Economic and Social Affairs.

(d) Changing the costs and benefits of gender specialization

Taxes and transfers can serve as simple incentives to encourage dual-earner families. Taxing household members separately (rather than jointly) lowers the marginal tax rate of second earners (typically married women) and thus encourages their labour force participation (Jaumotte, 2004). For instance, comparing Sweden and Germany with their respective split and joint taxation systems, Gustafsson (1992) finds that children act as a major obstacle for women's labour force participation in Germany but not in Sweden. Similarly, cross-country comparisons have shown that different tax systems (and related differences in the marginal tax rate on second earners) help to explain cross-country differences in female labour force participation (along with other factors, such as high overall unemployment) (Smith *et al.*, 2003; Schwartz, 2012).

Transfers contingent on labour force drop-out, such as subsidies for non-active spouses and childcare leave benefits, increase the effective tax rate and reduce the benefits of labour force participation for the secondary earner (Jaumotte, 2004). In Germany and France, the introduction and extension of long, paid leave for childcare reduced mothers' active employment rate and rate of return to work (Piketty, 1998; Erler, 2009). For instance, in France, after the 1994 extension of the *Allocation Parentale d'Education* to families with two children (one under the age of 3), the labour force participation and employment rates of the newly eligible women plummeted. No similar change was seen among non-eligible women (with one child or youngest child over 3) and the already eligible women (with three children, one under the age of 3) (Piketty, 1998). In fact, such leave is often introduced with the goal of freeing up jobs for men and encouraging female home-making (Ferrarini, 2006; Erler, 2009; Fagnani and Math, 2009). The duration of the leave is troublesome in itself, and this, coupled with poor pay, means that the primary breadwinner (often male) will be less likely to take leave, especially in low-income families (Ferrarini, 2006; Plantenga and Remery, 2006).

Therefore, a balanced combination of household taxes, joint or separate, and transfers such as childcare leave benefits and paid leave is necessary to ensure equality in the decision-making process on household work division.

(e) Compensating for unequal employment opportunities based on gender

The adverse impacts of career breaks can be limited by offering short, well-paid leave that is tied to previous earnings and includes a guarantee of the right to return to the same or a similar post. Leave that is "too long" can have adverse effects on ease of return to work, wages and career advancement

(Jaumotte, 2004; Booth, 2006; European Parliament, 2010; Robson, 2010; ILO, 2010). Available evidence suggests that leave of a duration of up to 6 months has a neutral effect on wages but it is unclear whether there is a wage penalty for longer leave periods since job protection improves wages in the long term through increasing job continuity and the possibility of future advancement (Hegewisch and Gornick, 2011). Looking at female participation and employment, cut-off points after which parental leave has a negative effect are estimated at between 20 weeks (5 months) for participation (Jaumotte, 2004) and 40 weeks (9 months) for employment (Ruhm, 1998), at least in the short term after return to employment.[24]

Job guarantees strengthen workforce attachment and improve wages,[25] but adversely affect hiring probabilities if it is only the women who are expected to take leave more often than men (Jaumotte, 2004; Estévez-Abe, 2005). As wage-related leave depends on previous labour force involvement, it is found to increase female labour force participation (Jaumotte, 2004; Ferrarini, 2006; Boje and Ejrnæs, 2008; European Parliament, 2010), at least in cross-country comparison.

Finally, active labour market programmes can also facilitate labour market reintegration and some argue that these are particularly effective for adult women and single parents (Bergemann and van den Berg, 2008). Countries can also ensure that social benefits such as pensions are not adversely affected by time dedicated to child and elderly care. Such compensation can be explicitly linked to the presence of children, or can be introduced through formulas that allow for a certain number of years with low or no earnings and basic universal pensions (see box 9 and OECD, 2010b).

Box 9. Conditional cash transfers: evaluations of "Bolsa Familia" in Brazil, and "Progresa/Oportunidades" in Mexico

"Bolsa Familia" and "Progresa/Oportunidades" are poverty relief programmes in Brazil and in Mexico, respectively. The former in 2006 covered 11 million households and the latter covered 5 million households. Overall, where mothers directly received the cash transfers offered, they helped to improve welfare at the household level. But at the same time, this continued to support the conventional gender division of paid and unpaid work; it reinforced gender stereotypes. As some of the conditions of participation in the programme were community work, such as cleaning schools and clinics, as well as regular health checks for the children and additional training, participating women found it hard to keep up with the commitments. This raised the risk of rejection of working mothers. However, the programme not only helped in the intergenerational improvement of educational attainment, but also in reducing the gender gap in school enrolment. The reduction in the gender gap eventually benefited women's employability.

Source: Molyneux (2007); Latapí and de la Rocha (2008); Suarez *et al.* (2006).

(f) Public campaigns to challenge gender stereotypes, and for proper implementation of legislation against discrimination

Gender equality is based on inclusion and equal treatment (Walby, 2005). Related policies include legal reforms to ensure formal equality, anti-discrimination laws and procedures, equal tax treatment, etc. (see box 10). Policies should also question whether institutions themselves are gender-biased. Gender bias may exist in seemingly neutral processes and policies. The broad policy response to such bias is gender mainstreaming, which involves integrating gender into mainstream policies and

[24] Again, there is debate on whether these effects are long term or only short term (that is, whether mothers catch up with their childless colleagues).

[25] As women who return to the same employer typically enjoy higher wages (European Parliament, 2010).

programmes by ensuring that all steps of the process account for gender differences and further gender equality including design, implementation, monitoring or evaluation (UNESC, 1997) (see box 11).

For example, a campaign that gave priority in credit lines to women entrepreneurs is the well-established *Grameen Bank* in Bangladesh. The program justified its prioritisation of women over men, based on their better track record in utilising these loans for improving household production and consumption, and in returning the loans.

Another campaign is the banner of *Man Made Famine* that challenged the gender stereotype that women are not entitled to own agricultural land and sell produce. The campaign argues that women work on the land, generate the output, but are not allowed to sell the product in the market because they are not owners of the land.

Box 10. Effective proactive equal pay measures: the case of Sweden

In Sweden, anti-discrimination laws have evolved over time. In 2009, the new *Discrimination Act* (Swedish Code of Statutes, 2008:567) replaced seven previous acts including the *Equal Opportunities Act* of 1991. In relation to pay equity, the Act requires that every three years all companies with 25 or more employees draw up an action plan for equal pay outlining the measures needed to realize pay equity, including cost estimates for these measures and a timeline for implementation (of less than 3 years).

The 2009 Act reduces the administrative burden of pay equity: previously, plans were drawn up every year and the act applied to companies with 10 or more employees. Nevertheless, it maintains some crucial features like transparency and supervision, with employees' organizations given access to confidential information on pay and an Equality Ombudsman supervising compliance. Given the three year timeline, it is too soon to evaluate the new Act, however earlier laws have proved reasonably effective at reducing pay inequality. A government survey of 600 employers showed that 44 per cent of companies found unjustified pay differentials and adjustments were made for both women (roughly 90 per cent) and men (roughly 10 per cent).

Source: Chicha (2006), Sweden (2008), Swedish Equality Ombudsman (2009)

Box 11. Mainstreaming gender into public works: the case of India's Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee (MGNREGP)

Passed in 2005 and renamed in 2009, the *Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act* guarantees rural households 100 days of work per year at minimum wage. The programme builds upon India's long tradition of public works programmes, but also attempts to address gender issues. Several gender-sensitive features have been built into the programme, including:

- a quota that at least one third of registered workers should be female
- payment of equal wages for men and women
- spaces for child care and feeding if there are 5 or more children under the age of 6
- maternity leave with no financial penalty
- preference for women (particularly single women) to work on nearby worksites
- women's involvement in supervision at the site (recommended) and in monitoring and evaluation at the state level (required).

The gender sensitive approach has had encouraging outcomes. Women have high rates of participation overall (48 per cent of workers in 2011-2012) though there is wide regional variation. The programme offers rural women higher wages and could help push up agricultural wages outside of the programme. Women's status has also improved, particularly when they have access to their earned income through individual bank accounts. Of course, room for improvement exists; some possible improvements could include changing piece-rate wages as they tend to disadvantage women, challenging the social norms that restrict women's employment outside of the home, and fully implementing the childcare provision.

Source: Khera and Nayak (2009); Pankaj and Tankha (2010); Dasgupta and Sudarshan (2011); Holmes and Jones (2011); Indian Ministry of Rural Development (2012)

Table 7. Summary of policies promoting gender equality

Better infrastructure to reduce the burden of housework
• Investments in infrastructure and public services, such as electricity, sanitation and clean water • Provision of services that improve mobility can aid gender equality in employment and education
Promote an equal division of paid and unpaid work
• Help balance the gender division of paid and unpaid work by increasing men's access to parental and paternity leave • Promote involved fathers through awareness-raising campaigns and resources on fathering • Encourage dual-earner families by reducing taxes on second earners
Compensate for remaining inequalities in the division of paid and unpaid work
• Reduce the burden of housework through improved infrastructure (electricity, transportation, etc.) • Reduce the negative impacts of care-related career interruptions through offering short, well-paid, job-protected parental leave • Reduce the burden of care work by supporting high-quality care services for children and the elderly (through provision, subsidization, etc.) • Improve mothers' reintegration into the labour market through active labour market policies and job guarantees • Reduce the long-term costs of family-related career interruptions to social benefits, for instance, through compensating for such interruptions in pension schemes
Improve part-time work and facilitate desired working hours
• Facilitate desired working hours by giving preference to part-time workers who wish to access full-time jobs and guaranteeing full-time workers access to reduced hours (this has often targeted those with family responsibilities, but could be instituted across the board) • Ameliorate part-time work by requiring that part-time workers are paid comparable wages to full-time workers and enjoy similar working conditions and social benefits
Reducing occupational segregation and limiting its negative impacts[26]
• Encourage atypical choices early in life through public campaigns that challenge gender stereotypes and scholarships and mentoring programmes that promote gender-atypical choices (for instance, in terms of fields of study) • Reduce structural barriers to the under-represented gender in male-dominated and female-dominated occupations and workplaces; this could include offering care services, flexible hours or telework • Reduce the adverse impacts of segregation through gender audits and comparable work policies • Encourage women in top positions by providing them with strong networks (for instance via diversity network programmes, initiated by human resource managers, employers or employees, that vary from regular informal meetings to national conferences and aim to share information and career advice) and clearly establishing responsibility for diversity promotion
Public campaigns to challenge gender stereotypes, and for proper implementation of legislation against discrimination
ILO policy advice on recovery that works for women[27]
• Re-skilling, training and unemployment protection, unemployment benefits and measures for women workers • Initiatives for women to return to work after maternity leave, incentives for men to take paternity leave and more accessible childcare services • Quotas for women in employment guarantee programmes targeted at the poorest households • "Make-work-pay" measures, which increase incentives for low-paid workers to participate in the labour market by providing income tax credits • Work-sharing schemes which include workers that do not have regular contracts • Cash transfer programmes for poor households • Microcredit • Public employment programmes • Re-training of unemployed persons to new jobs which break gender stereotypes, especially for those with family responsibilities • Keeping/increasing minimum wages, as women are lower paid than men due to the gender wage gap

[26] These measures are not discussed in this chapter, but follow the discussion of chapter 3.

[27] This is quoted from the report "Making the crisis recovery work for women!" launched by the ILO Bureau for Gender Equality on the International Women's Day 2011 and it is available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@gender/documents/briefingnote/wcms_151285.pdf.

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Annex 1 Global and regional tables

The source of tables shown here and analysed in this report is: ILO, *Trends econometric models*, July 2012. For more information regarding the methodology for estimation of the world and regional aggregates of labour market indicators used here and in other Global Employment Trends reports, see Annex 2.[28] Estimates for 2012 are preliminary and 2013 onwards are preliminary projections (p stands for projections). Differences from earlier estimates are due to revisions of World Bank and IMF estimates of GDP and its components that are used in the models, as well as updates of the labour market information used. The latter is based on ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market. The tables for the labour force participation rates are based on updated version (July 2012) of the ILO - Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP) database (6th Edition).[29]

Table A1. Unemployment rate by sex, world and regions (%)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Both sexes								
WORLD	6.3	5.8	5.5	5.6	6.2	6.1	6.0	6.0
Developed Economies & European Union	6.7	6.3	5.8	6.1	8.4	8.8	8.5	8.6
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	10.7	9.0	8.3	8.3	10.1	9.4	8.7	8.4
East Asia	4.5	4.0	3.8	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.3	4.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	5.0	6.1	5.5	5.2	5.1	4.7	4.4	4.5
South Asia	4.4	4.3	4.0	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.8
Latin America & the Caribbean	8.6	7.6	7.0	6.6	7.7	7.2	7.2	7.2
Middle East	10.8	10.9	10.3	10.4	10.1	9.9	9.9	10.1
North Africa	13.6	10.5	10.0	9.6	9.6	9.4	10.6	10.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	8.9	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8
Male								
WORLD	6.1	5.6	5.3	5.4	6.0	5.8	5.7	5.8
Developed Economies & European Union	6.3	6.1	5.5	6.0	8.7	9.1	8.7	8.8
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	10.5	9.2	8.6	8.6	10.5	9.7	8.9	8.5
East Asia	5.1	4.5	4.3	4.9	5.0	4.8	4.9	5.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	5.1	5.7	5.3	5.1	5.1	4.5	4.3	4.3
South Asia	4.4	4.2	3.9	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	7.3	6.1	5.6	5.3	6.5	5.9	5.9	5.9
Middle East	9.1	9.0	8.5	8.6	8.2	8.0	8.1	8.2
North Africa	11.4	8.1	8.1	7.5	7.3	7.1	7.9	8.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	8.3	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.3
Female								
WORLD	6.6	6.2	5.8	5.9	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4
Developed Economies & European Union	7.3	6.7	6.1	6.2	7.9	8.4	8.2	8.3
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	11.0	8.8	8.0	8.0	9.7	9.1	8.5	8.2
East Asia	3.9	3.3	3.1	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.7
South-East Asia & the Pacific	4.9	6.6	5.8	5.4	5.1	5.0	4.6	4.7
South Asia	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.4	5.0	4.7	4.6
Latin America & the Caribbean	10.8	9.8	9.0	8.6	9.6	9.1	9.1	9.0
Middle East	18.9	19.2	18.5	18.8	18.6	18.3	18.1	18.2
North Africa	20.9	18.1	16.2	16.2	16.5	16.3	18.9	19.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	9.6	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.4

[28] For further information see 'Estimates and projections of labour market indicators', in particular *Trends Econometric Models: A Review of Methodology*, available at: http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/projects/lang--en/WCMS_114246/index.htm.

[29] See source of figure 1.

Table A2. Unemployment rate by sex for youth and adults, world and regions (%)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Youth male								
WORLD	12.7	12.1	11.5	11.6	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.4
Developed Economies & European Union	13.6	13.6	12.8	14.0	19.1	19.6	18.2	18.7
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	19.1	18.0	17.3	16.7	20.2	18.8	17.4	16.6
East Asia	11.0	9.8	9.3	10.6	10.8	10.4	10.8	11.2
South-East Asia & the Pacific	13.5	16.2	14.5	13.5	13.6	13.3	12.6	12.9
South Asia	10.0	9.6	9.1	8.5	8.9	9.8	9.4	9.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	13.3	12.3	11.4	11.1	12.9	11.9	11.9	11.9
Middle East	21.0	21.7	21.3	22.0	21.5	21.7	21.9	22.6
North Africa	25.5	20.1	19.4	19.1	19.0	18.7	21.3	21.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	12.5	11.1	11.2	11.3	11.3	11.2	11.2	11.1
Youth female								
WORLD	12.8	12.7	11.9	12.0	12.8	12.9	12.9	13.0
Developed Economies & European Union	13.3	12.9	12.0	12.4	15.4	16.4	16.0	16.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	20.9	19.1	17.6	17.4	20.5	19.4	18.1	17.3
East Asia	7.6	6.7	6.4	7.3	7.5	7.2	7.4	7.6
South-East Asia & the Pacific	12.9	17.9	15.2	14.4	13.7	13.3	12.9	13.4
South Asia	10.4	9.8	9.3	8.9	9.5	11.3	10.8	10.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	19.8	19.9	18.2	17.7	19.7	18.5	18.7	18.7
Middle East	36.5	38.7	37.9	39.8	39.6	39.2	39.9	40.6
North Africa	36.7	37.7	35.1	33.4	35.0	34.8	41.5	41.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	14.5	12.8	12.9	12.9	12.9	12.8	12.8	12.8
Adult male								
WORLD	4.4	4.0	3.8	3.9	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.4
Developed Economies & European Union	5.1	5.0	4.5	4.9	7.3	7.7	7.5	7.6
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	8.7	7.5	6.9	7.0	8.7	8.0	7.4	7.1
East Asia	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.9	4.0
South-East Asia & the Pacific	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.4
South Asia	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.1	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	5.4	4.4	4.0	3.8	4.8	4.4	4.4	4.5
Middle East	5.3	5.4	5.1	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.3
North Africa	7.2	5.0	5.1	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.9	5.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	6.7	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Adult female								
WORLD	4.9	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.0
Developed Economies & European Union	6.3	5.7	5.2	5.2	6.8	7.2	7.1	7.3
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	9.2	7.1	6.5	6.5	8.0	7.6	7.1	7.0
East Asia	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.9
South-East Asia & the Pacific	2.5	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.8
South Asia	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.1	3.1
Latin America & the Caribbean	7.9	7.0	6.5	6.2	7.1	6.8	6.8	6.8
Middle East	11.6	12.2	12.0	12.2	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.5
North Africa	13.9	10.7	9.9	10.6	10.8	10.7	12.4	12.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.7

Table A3. Female unemployment rate projections, for world and regions, 2012-2016 (%)

Region	2012p	2013p	2014p	2015p	2016p	2017p
WORLD	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.4	6.4	6.4
Developed Economies & European Union	8.3	8.4	8.3	8.2	8.0	7.9
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	8.2	8.2	8.1	8.0	7.9	7.8
East Asia	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9
South-East Asia & the Pacific	4.7	4.8	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9
South Asia	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	8.9
Middle East	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.3	18.3	18.2
North Africa	19.1	18.9	18.6	18.3	18.0	17.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.3	8.3

Table A4. Global employment and unemployment by sex, for total (15+), youth (15-24) and adult (25+)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Employment (millions)								
Both sexes	2'610	2'902	2'952	2'985	3'000	3'039	3'083	3'124
Male	1'572	1'740	1'771	1'794	1'803	1'831	1'858	1'884
Female	1'038	1'163	1'181	1'191	1'196	1'208	1'225	1'241
Youth	500	534	536	532	522	516	516	513
Youth male	294	316	317	316	310	307	307	306
Youth female	206	218	219	216	212	209	208	207
Adult	2'110	2'369	2'416	2'453	2'478	2'522	2'567	2'612
Adult male	1'278	1'424	1'453	1'478	1'494	1'524	1'551	1'578
Adult female	832	945	962	975	984	999	1'017	1'034
Unemployment (millions)								
Both sexes	176	180	171	176	197	196	196	200
Male	102	103	98	101	115	113	113	115
Female	74	76	72	75	82	83	83	85
Youth	73	75	71	71	76	75	74	74
Youth male	43	43	41	41	44	44	43	43
Youth female	30	32	29	29	31	31	31	31
Adult	103	104	100	105	122	121	122	126
Adult male	59	60	57	60	71	69	70	72
Adult female	43	45	43	45	51	52	53	54

Table A5. Employment-to-population ratio by sex, world and regions (%)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Both sexes								
WORLD	61.1	61.2	61.2	61.0	60.3	60.2	60.3	60.2
Developed Economies & European Union	56.6	56.7	57.1	57.1	55.5	55.0	54.9	54.8
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	52.3	52.7	53.5	53.9	53.0	53.6	54.4	54.8
East Asia	72.6	71.3	71.3	70.5	70.3	70.3	70.1	69.8
South-East Asia & the Pacific	66.9	65.9	66.3	66.5	66.4	66.7	67.0	67.0
South Asia	57.2	57.7	57.1	56.5	55.7	54.9	55.0	55.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	58.5	60.5	60.9	61.4	60.7	61.4	61.4	61.5
Middle East	41.0	42.3	42.5	41.8	42.3	42.8	43.1	43.3
North Africa	41.8	43.2	43.8	44.1	44.1	44.3	43.8	43.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	63.5	64.6	64.6	64.8	64.7	64.7	64.8	64.9
Males								
WORLD	73.8	73.4	73.5	73.4	72.6	72.6	72.7	72.7
Developed Economies & European Union	65.8	64.8	65.2	64.9	62.5	61.8	61.8	61.6
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	61.9	62.0	63.0	63.6	62.4	63.2	64.2	64.7
East Asia	77.9	76.8	76.8	76.1	75.8	75.8	75.6	75.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	78.6	77.7	77.7	77.7	77.6	78.1	78.4	78.3
South Asia	79.6	79.6	79.4	79.3	78.8	78.5	78.5	78.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	74.8	75.3	75.4	75.7	74.5	75.1	74.9	74.8
Middle East	67.2	66.9	67.1	66.4	67.0	67.7	68.0	68.2
North Africa	66.3	68.1	68.1	68.6	68.7	68.8	68.3	68.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	70.6	70.5	70.5	70.6	70.5	70.5	70.6	70.8
Females								
WORLD	48.5	49.0	49.0	48.6	48.1	47.9	47.8	47.8
Developed Economies & European Union	48.0	49.0	49.5	49.7	48.9	48.6	48.5	48.4
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	43.8	44.5	45.2	45.3	44.8	45.2	45.8	46.0
East Asia	67.0	65.6	65.6	64.8	64.5	64.5	64.3	64.0
South-East Asia & the Pacific	55.6	54.4	55.1	55.5	55.5	55.7	56.0	56.0
South Asia	33.4	34.7	33.6	32.5	31.4	30.1	30.3	30.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	42.9	46.5	47.2	47.7	47.5	48.3	48.5	48.8
Middle East	13.2	15.1	15.1	14.3	14.5	14.8	15.1	15.3
North Africa	17.5	18.6	19.7	19.9	19.8	20.1	19.6	19.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	56.6	58.8	58.9	59.0	59.0	59.0	59.1	59.2

Table A6. Employment-to-population ratio by sex for youth and adults, world and regions (%)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Youth male								
WORLD	53.1	51.9	51.6	51.1	49.9	49.3	49.3	49.1
Developed Economies & European Union	47.9	45.7	45.8	45.0	41.1	39.8	40.1	40.0
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	40.4	38.6	39.3	41.0	39.3	40.0	40.8	41.4
East Asia	55.1	54.1	54.4	53.2	53.0	52.9	52.7	52.2
South-East Asia & the Pacific	55.0	51.4	51.6	51.9	51.6	51.6	51.8	51.6
South Asia	59.6	58.5	57.2	55.8	54.1	52.1	52.2	52.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	58.1	56.5	56.6	56.7	54.7	55.5	55.0	54.7
Middle East	40.3	38.7	38.0	36.7	36.6	36.5	36.4	36.0
North Africa	37.8	39.2	39.2	39.1	38.6	38.4	37.0	36.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	49.6	49.9	49.8	49.8	49.6	49.5	49.6	49.7
Youth female								
WORLD	38.9	37.7	37.5	36.9	36.0	35.6	35.4	35.2
Developed Economies & European Union	43.1	41.6	41.9	41.6	39.4	38.0	37.9	37.9
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	28.7	26.9	27.5	28.3	27.5	27.7	27.9	28.2
East Asia	64.1	59.4	59.3	57.6	57.2	57.3	57.0	56.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	42.6	38.6	39.4	39.2	39.2	39.2	39.3	39.0
South Asia	25.4	25.7	24.5	23.5	22.3	20.9	20.9	20.9
Latin America & the Caribbean	33.8	34.4	35.1	35.3	34.0	34.7	34.6	34.7
Middle East	8.5	8.9	8.6	7.8	7.7	7.9	7.8	7.8
North Africa	13.4	12.7	12.8	13.1	12.5	12.7	11.5	11.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	43.6	45.1	45.0	45.0	44.9	44.8	44.8	44.8
Adult male								
WORLD	81.0	80.9	81.0	80.9	80.2	80.3	80.2	80.1
Developed Economies & European Union	69.6	68.6	69.0	68.7	66.5	65.9	65.8	65.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	68.7	69.5	70.5	70.5	69.2	69.8	70.6	70.8
East Asia	84.0	83.2	83.1	82.5	82.1	82.0	81.7	81.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	88.5	87.9	87.6	87.3	87.1	87.6	87.6	87.4
South Asia	88.6	88.6	88.8	89.0	88.9	89.2	89.1	88.9
Latin America & the Caribbean	81.7	82.2	82.3	82.6	81.6	81.9	81.7	81.5
Middle East	81.8	80.5	80.7	79.8	80.1	80.4	80.4	80.2
North Africa	80.8	81.5	81.3	81.6	81.6	81.5	81.0	80.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	82.6	82.1	82.2	82.3	82.1	82.0	82.1	82.2
Adult female								
WORLD	51.7	52.6	52.6	52.3	51.8	51.6	51.6	51.5
Developed Economies & European Union	48.9	50.3	50.8	51.1	50.4	50.3	50.2	50.1
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	47.7	49.1	49.7	49.5	48.9	49.2	49.8	49.8
East Asia	67.8	67.2	67.3	66.7	66.4	66.3	66.0	65.7
South-East Asia & the Pacific	60.7	60.1	60.6	61.2	61.0	61.1	61.3	61.3
South Asia	36.9	38.4	37.2	36.1	35.0	33.8	33.9	33.9
Latin America & the Caribbean	46.4	50.6	51.3	51.8	51.9	52.7	52.8	53.1
Middle East	15.8	18.3	18.3	17.5	17.6	17.9	18.1	18.4
North Africa	19.4	21.2	22.8	22.7	22.8	23.0	22.7	22.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	63.7	66.2	66.3	66.5	66.6	66.5	66.6	66.7

Table A7. Labour force participation rates by sex, world and regions (%)

	1992	2002	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Both sexes									
WORLD	66.3	65.1	65.0	64.8	64.6	64.3	64.1	64.1	64.1
Developed Economies & European Union	60.7	60.3	60.5	60.6	60.8	60.5	60.3	60.0	60.0
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	62.6	57.9	57.9	58.4	58.8	59.0	59.2	59.6	59.8
East Asia	78.0	75.4	74.3	74.1	73.8	73.6	73.4	73.3	73.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	70.4	70.5	70.2	70.1	70.1	70.0	70.1	70.1	70.1
South Asia	61.4	60.2	60.3	59.5	58.6	57.9	57.1	57.1	57.1
Latin America & the Caribbean	62.6	64.6	65.5	65.5	65.7	65.8	66.1	66.1	66.3
Middle East	46.6	46.5	47.5	47.4	46.7	47.0	47.5	47.8	48.1
North Africa	48.0	47.5	48.3	48.7	48.8	48.8	48.8	49.0	49.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	69.5	69.9	70.0	70.1	70.2	70.2	70.2	70.3	70.4
Males									
WORLD	80.2	78.1	77.8	77.6	77.5	77.3	77.1	77.1	77.1
Developed Economies & European Union	71.8	69.4	69.0	69.0	69.0	68.4	68.0	67.6	67.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	74.1	68.0	68.3	68.9	69.6	69.7	70.0	70.4	70.7
East Asia	84.2	81.4	80.4	80.3	80.0	79.8	79.6	79.6	79.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	82.6	82.8	82.4	82.1	81.9	81.8	81.9	81.8	81.8
South Asia	84.8	83.3	83.1	82.6	82.1	81.7	81.4	81.3	81.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	82.5	80.3	80.1	79.9	80.0	79.7	79.8	79.6	79.5
Middle East	77.6	73.8	73.5	73.3	72.7	73.1	73.6	74.0	74.3
North Africa	74.4	74.1	74.1	74.1	74.1	74.1	74.1	74.2	74.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	79.0	76.5	75.9	76.0	76.2	76.1	76.1	76.2	76.3
Females									
WORLD	52.4	52.1	52.2	52.0	51.7	51.4	51.2	51.1	51.1
Developed Economies & European Union	50.3	51.7	52.5	52.7	53.0	53.0	53.0	52.8	52.8
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	52.6	49.1	48.8	49.1	49.3	49.6	49.7	50.0	50.2
East Asia	71.4	69.1	67.8	67.7	67.2	67.0	66.9	66.7	66.4
South-East Asia & the Pacific	58.4	58.4	58.3	58.5	58.7	58.5	58.6	58.7	58.8
South Asia	36.1	35.8	36.3	35.1	33.9	32.8	31.7	31.8	31.8
Latin America & the Caribbean	43.5	49.6	51.5	51.8	52.1	52.6	53.1	53.3	53.6
Middle East	13.3	17.2	18.7	18.5	17.7	17.8	18.1	18.4	18.7
North Africa	21.8	21.2	22.7	23.6	23.7	23.8	24.0	24.2	24.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	60.3	63.5	64.2	64.2	64.4	64.4	64.4	64.5	64.6

Table A8. Employment shares by sector and sex, world and regions (%)

	Agriculture			Industry			Services		
Both sexes	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**
WORLD	44.2	39.7	34.2	21.1	20.2	22.1	34.7	40.0	43.7
Developed Economies & European Union	6.6	5.0	3.8	30.5	26.3	21.9	62.9	68.7	74.3
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	25.4	23.3	19.6	26.6	25.0	26.6	48.0	51.7	53.8
East Asia	55.8	47.6	35.1	23.1	22.4	28.4	21.1	30.1	36.5
South-East Asia & the Pacific	58.4	48.2	43.1	13.7	17.3	18.5	27.9	34.5	38.4
South Asia	62.1	57.0	50.9	15.4	17.0	21.0	22.5	26.1	28.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	24.7	19.6	16.0	22.3	21.5	21.8	53.0	58.8	62.2
Middle East	23.0	21.9	16.7	24.1	24.6	25.6	52.9	53.5	57.7
North Africa	35.9	30.4	30.2	19.0	19.0	21.5	45.1	50.6	48.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	67.2	65.7	62.2	8.3	8.0	8.6	24.5	26.3	29.3
	Agriculture			**Industry**			**Services**		
Males	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**
WORLD	41.2	37.5	32.8	24.6	23.9	25.9	34.2	38.6	41.3
Developed Economies & European Union	7.2	5.7	4.5	39.0	35.6	31.3	53.8	58.7	64.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	26.6	23.5	19.0	32.2	30.7	33.3	41.2	45.8	47.7
East Asia	47.7	41.0	31.8	26.7	25.9	31.4	25.6	33.1	36.8
South-East Asia & the Pacific	56.9	47.4	42.3	15.3	19.5	21.0	27.8	33.1	36.7
South Asia	56.3	51.0	44.3	16.9	18.5	23.1	26.8	30.5	32.6
Latin America & the Caribbean	29.1	24.4	20.7	26.6	26.0	27.7	44.3	49.5	51.5
Middle East	21.2	19.3	14.0	25.9	26.8	28.1	52.9	53.9	57.9
North Africa	34.6	31.4	29.8	21.0	20.6	24.5	44.3	48.0	45.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	64.4	65.2	61.8	10.4	9.8	10.5	25.2	25.1	27.7
	Agriculture			**Industry**			**Services**		
Females	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**	**1992**	**2002**	**2012p**
WORLD	48.8	43.2	36.4	15.7	14.7	16.2	35.4	42.1	47.4
Developed Economies & European Union	5.9	4.2	3.0	19.0	14.5	10.6	75.0	81.4	86.4
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	23.9	23.0	20.3	19.8	18.2	18.3	56.3	58.9	61.4
East Asia	65.6	55.5	39.0	18.7	18.0	24.8	15.7	26.5	36.2
South-East Asia & the Pacific	60.5	49.4	44.2	11.6	14.3	15.1	27.9	36.3	40.7
South Asia	77.0	71.9	68.9	11.8	13.1	15.4	11.3	15.0	15.8
Latin America & the Caribbean	16.2	11.9	9.0	14.2	14.2	13.3	69.6	73.9	77.7
Middle East	36.2	35.2	30.3	11.1	13.3	13.0	52.8	51.4	56.7
North Africa	40.6	26.4	31.8	11.4	12.7	11.2	48.0	60.9	57.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	70.8	66.3	62.5	5.6	6.0	6.3	23.6	27.7	31.2

Table A9.Vulnerable employment shares by sex, world and regions (%)

	2000	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012p
Both sexes								
WORLD	53.0	51.8	51.3	50.1	49.9	49.7	49.2	49.0
Developed Economies & European Union	10.8	10.0	9.9	9.7	9.8	10.0	9.8	9.8
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	25.6	21.9	20.6	20.4	20.5	20.9	20.6	20.4
East Asia	58.6	56.2	55.4	52.9	51.3	50.1	49.0	48.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	65.1	62.6	62.3	62.1	61.3	62.3	61.4	61.4
South Asia	80.9	80.3	80.0	78.8	78.2	78.5	77.6	77.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	35.9	32.9	32.3	31.8	32.4	31.9	31.9	31.9
Middle East	33.8	32.0	31.0	30.0	30.1	29.7	29.4	29.3
North Africa	42.0	39.9	40.1	39.4	39.2	37.4	37.2	37.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	80.6	78.1	77.4	76.7	77.1	77.0	76.7	76.3
Males								
WORLD	51.0	50.1	49.6	48.8	48.7	48.7	48.2	48.1
Developed Economies & European Union	11.4	11.0	10.9	10.7	10.8	11.2	11.0	11.0
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	25.9	22.5	21.0	20.7	21.2	21.2	20.8	20.7
East Asia	53.2	51.2	50.6	48.7	47.4	46.5	45.6	44.9
South-East Asia & the Pacific	61.2	59.3	58.7	59.1	58.3	59.0	58.3	58.2
South Asia	78.0	77.8	77.5	76.4	75.9	76.2	75.4	75.0
Latin America & the Caribbean	35.4	32.5	31.8	31.2	31.7	31.6	31.6	31.6
Middle East	31.0	29.0	28.0	27.5	27.7	27.3	26.9	26.7
North Africa	37.4	34.4	34.2	33.4	33.4	32.2	31.8	32.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	74.9	71.2	70.6	69.7	70.3	70.2	69.9	69.5
Females								
WORLD	55.9	54.3	53.8	52.2	51.7	51.3	50.7	50.4
Developed Economies & European Union	10.1	8.8	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.3
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	25.1	21.0	20.0	19.9	19.7	20.5	20.2	20.0
East Asia	65.1	62.2	61.3	58.1	56.1	54.6	53.2	52.0
South-East Asia & the Pacific	70.5	67.1	67.3	66.3	65.5	66.7	65.6	65.6
South Asia	88.1	86.4	86.3	85.0	84.2	84.8	83.7	83.3
Latin America & the Caribbean	36.8	33.6	33.1	32.7	33.4	32.4	32.3	32.3
Middle East	49.0	46.6	45.7	43.2	42.5	42.4	41.9	41.8
North Africa	59.0	59.9	60.4	59.8	59.1	55.2	55.6	55.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	87.5	86.2	85.5	84.8	85.1	84.8	84.6	84.4

Annex 2 Note on global and regional estimates

The source of all global and regional labour market estimates in this *Global Employment Trends for Women* report is ILO, *Trends econometric models*, July 2012. The ILO Employment Trends Unit has designed and actively maintains econometric models which are used to produce estimates of labour market indicators in the countries and years for which country-reported data are unavailable. These give the ILO the ability to produce and analyse global and regional estimates of key labour market indicators and the related trends.

The Global Employment Trends Model (GET Model) is used to produce estimates – disaggregated by age and sex as appropriate – of unemployment, employment, status in employment and employment by sector. The output of the model is a complete matrix of data for 178 countries. The country-level data can then be aggregated to produce regional and global estimates of labour market indicators such as the unemployment rate, the employment-to-population ratio, sector-level employment shares, status in employment shares and vulnerable employment.

Prior to running the GET Model, labour market information specialists in the Employment Trends Unit, in cooperation with specialists in ILO field offices, evaluate existing country-reported data and select only those observations deemed sufficiently comparable across countries – with criteria including: (1) type of data source; (2) geographic coverage; and (3) age group coverage.

- With regard to the first criterion, in order for data to be included in the model, they must be derived from either a labour force survey or population census. National labour force surveys are typically similar across countries, and the data derived from these surveys are more comparable than data obtained from other sources. A strict preference is therefore given to labour force survey-based data in the selection process. Yet many developing countries without adequate resources to carry out a labour force survey do report labour market information based on population censuses. Consequently, due to the need to balance the competing goals of data comparability and data coverage, some population census-based data are included in the model.

- The second criterion is that only nationally representative (i.e. not prohibitively geographically limited) labour market indicators are included. Observations corresponding to only urban or only rural areas are not included, as large differences typically exist between rural and urban labour markets, and using only rural or urban data would not be consistent with benchmark files such as GDP.

- The third criterion is that the age groups covered by the observed data must be sufficiently comparable across countries. Countries report labour market information for a variety of age groups and the age group selected can have an influence on the observed value of a given labour market indicator.

Apart from country-reported labour market information, the GET Model uses the following benchmark files:

- United Nations World Population Prospects, 2010 revision for population estimates and projections.
- ILO Economically Active Population, Estimates and Projections (6th Edition) for labour force estimates and projections (updated July 2012).
- IMF/World Bank data on GDP (PPP, per capita GDP and GDP growth rates) from the World Development Indicators and the World Economic Outlook July 2012 database.
- World Bank poverty estimates from the PovcalNet database.

The first phase of the GET Model produces estimates of unemployment rates, which also allows for the calculation of total employment and unemployment and employment-to-population ratios. After all comparable unemployment rates are compiled, multivariate regressions are run separately for different regions in the world in which unemployment rates broken down by age and sex (youth male, youth female, adult male, adult female) are regressed on GDP growth rates. Weights are used in the regressions to correct for biases that may result from the fact that countries that report unemployment rates tend to be different (in statistically important respects) than countries that do not report unemployment rates.[30] The regressions, together with considerations based on regional proximity, are used to fill in missing values in the countries and years for which country-reported data are unavailable.

During subsequent phases, employment by sector and status in employment are estimated. Additional econometric models are used to produce global and regional estimates of labour force participation, working poverty and employment elasticities. The models use similar techniques to the GET Model to impute missing values at the country level.

For more information on the methodology of producing world and regional estimates, see www.ilo.org/trends.

[30] For instance, if simple averages of unemployment rates in reporting countries in a given region were used to estimate the unemployment rate in that region, and the countries that do not report unemployment rates are different with respect to unemployment rates than reporting countries, without such a correction mechanism, the resulting estimated regional unemployment rate would be biased. The "weighted least squares" approach taken up in the GET Model serves to correct for this potential problem.

Annex 3 Global Employment Trends – Regional groupings

Developed Economies and European Union

European Union

Austria
Belgium
Bulgaria
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Denmark
Estonia
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Hungary
Ireland
Italy
Latvia
Lithuania
Luxembourg
Malta
Netherlands
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Slovakia
Slovenia
Spain
Sweden
United Kingdom

North America

Canada
United States

Other Developed Economies

Australia
Israel
Japan
New Zealand

Western Europe (non-EU)

Iceland
Norway
Switzerland

Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS

Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU)

Albania
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Croatia
Serbia and Montenegro
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
Turkey

Commonwealth of Independent States

Armenia
Azerbaijan
Belarus
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Republic of Moldova
Russian Federation
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Ukraine
Uzbekistan

South Asia

Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka

South-East Asia and the Pacific

South-East Asia

Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
East Timor
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Viet Nam

Pacific Islands

Fiji
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands

East Asia

China
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of
Korea, Republic of
Macau, China
Mongolia
Taiwan, China

Latin America and the Caribbean

Caribbean

Bahamas
Barbados
Cuba
DominicanRepublic
Guadeloupe
Guyana
Haiti
Jamaica
Martinique
NetherlandsAntilles
Puerto Rico
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago

Central America

Belize
Costa Rica
El Salvador
Guatemala
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama

South America

Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Ecuador
Paraguay
Peru
Uruguay
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of

Middle East

Bahrain
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Oman
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syrian Arab Republic
United Arab Emirates
Occupied Palestinian Territory
Yemen

North Africa

Algeria
Egypt
Libya
Morocco
Sudan
Tunisia

Sub-SaharanAfrica

Eastern Africa

Burundi
Comoros
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Kenya
Madagascar
Malawi
Mauritius
Mozambique
Réunion
Rwanda
Somalia
Tanzania, United Republic of
Uganda
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Middle Africa

Angola
Cameroon
Central African Republic
Chad
Congo
Congo, Democratic Republic of
Equatorial Guinea
Gabon

Southern Africa

Botswana
Lesotho
Namibia
South Africa
Swaziland

Western Africa

Benin
Burkina Faso
Cape Verde
Côted'Ivoire
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Liberia
Mali
Mauritania
Niger
Nigeria
Senegal
Sierra Leone
Togo