

### **LMF1.6: Gender differences in employment outcomes**

This indicator presents several measures of gender differences in employment outcomes. These measures are split into two broad areas: 1) gender differences in employment participation and 2) gender job segregation and differences in the type of employment. The first looks at differences in the extent to which men and women participate in employment, with measures exploring gender differences amongst all men and women and across varying levels of education. The second examines the degree to which men and women work in different areas of the labour market and hold different types of jobs.

#### **1) Gender differences in employment participation**

##### *Definitions and methodology*

Gender differences in participation in employment are captured here by three measures:

- i) The gender gap in employment rates (15-64 year olds), where the employment rate is measured as the proportion of persons in employment among the working age population (15-64 years of age) and the gender gap calculated as the male rate minus the female rate.
- ii) The gender gap in full-time equivalent employment rates, where full-time equivalent employment rates are the product of the employment rate (15-64 year olds) for a given sex and the average usual hours worked per week for the same sex, divided by 40. The resulting full-time equivalent rate can be interpreted as the proportion of the population for the given sex and age group that would be employed *if* all those in employment worked a full time 40-hour working week.
- iii) Male and female part-time employment rates, calculated as the proportion of persons in part-time employment among total employed with part-time employment defined as persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job (see comparability and data issues).

In addition, two further measures look to capture gender differences in participation in employment across levels of education:

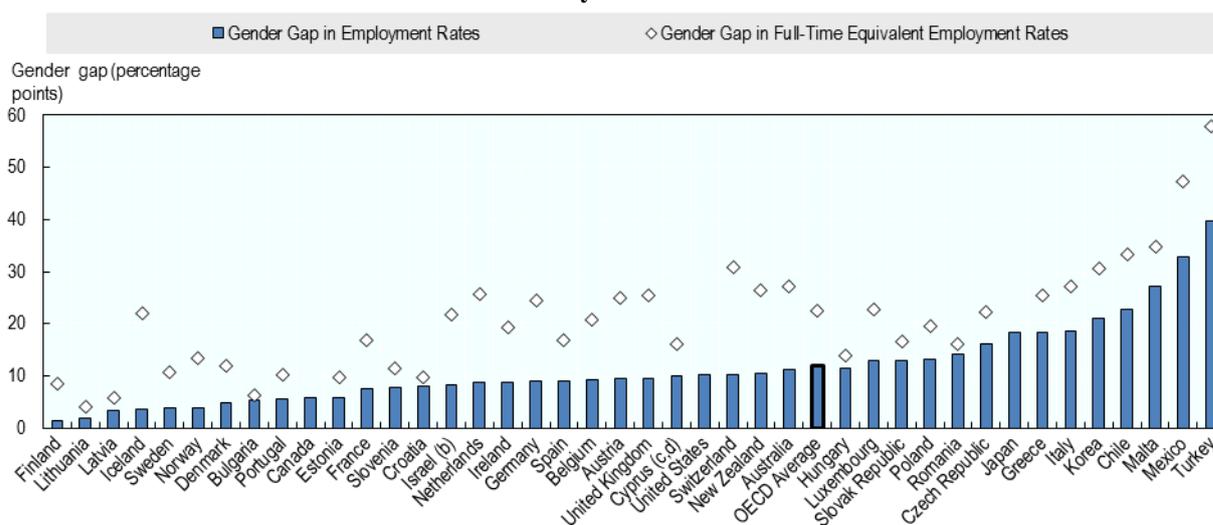
- iv) The gender gap in the employment rate (25-64 year olds) by educational attainment, with levels of educational attainment defined according to the standard ISCED classification (See Annex 3 of OECD Education at a Glance 2015 for more details).
- v) The gender gap in the full-time full-year employment rate by educational attainment, calculated as the proportion of workers with a given level of education that are employed on a 'full-time full-year basis', with 'full-time full-year basis' defined as people who have worked all year long and at least 30 hours per week and levels of educational attainment defined according to the standard ISCED classification (See Annex 3 of OECD Education at a Glance 2015 for more details).

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

### Key findings

Across OECD countries, women are less likely to be in employment than men (Chart LMF1.6.A). In 2013, the OECD average female employment rate was 60.5%, compared to 70.2% for men, producing an average gender gap of just less than 12 percentage points. That said, gender gaps in employment rates do vary considerably across countries. In 2013, the gap ranged from as high as 40 percentage points in Turkey to as low as 1.4 points in Finland, with the gender gap in a majority of countries somewhere between 7 and 14 percentage points.

Chart LMF1.6.A. Gender gaps in employment rates and full-time equivalent<sup>a</sup> employment rates, 2013  
 15-64 year olds



a) The full-time equivalent employment rate is calculated as the employment rate for 15-64 years old multiplied by the average usual hours worked per week per person in employment (both dependent and self-employment), divided by 40.

b) The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

c) Footnote by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to « Cyprus » relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue";

d) Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission: The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

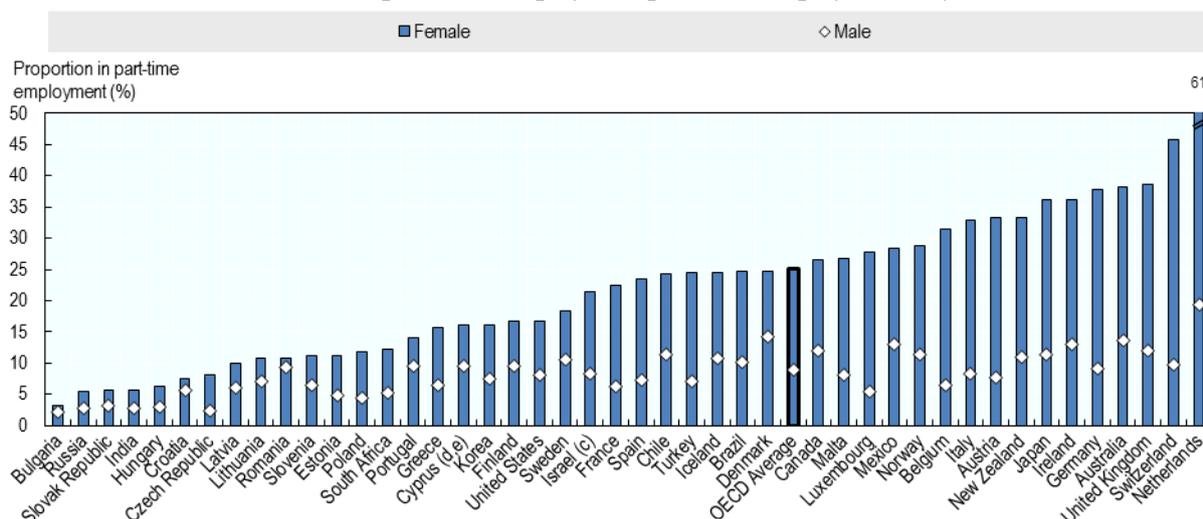
Source: [OECD Employment Database 2014](#); For Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania: [Eurostat Labour Market Statistics 2014](#)

Gender gaps in employment only widen once working hours are taken into account (Chart LMF1.6.A). In all OECD countries, the gender gap in full-time equivalent employment rates is larger than the gap in the standard employment rate. In several Eastern European countries – particularly Bulgaria, but also including Croatia, Hungary and Romania – the gender gap in the full-time equivalent rate is only marginally higher than the gap in the standard employment rate, suggesting that gender differences in employment in these countries are determined mostly by variations between men and women in the ability to find employment in the first instance. In contrast, in several Northern European and English-speaking countries – including the Nordic countries, Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, plus also the Netherlands – the gender gap in full-time equivalent employment is two-to-three times as large as the gap in the standard employment rate. In these countries, gender differences in employment are driven as much by unequal working hours as by disparities in the ability to find work in the first place.

In many OECD countries, gender differences in working hours are driven by disproportionately high rates of part-time employment among female employees. Chart LMF1.6.B shows male and female part-time employment rates in 2013. In some countries – again, mostly Eastern European countries – the female part-time rate is only slightly above that of their male counterparts. In others, however, female part-time

employment rates reach three or four times the size of those for men. Particularly notable is the Netherlands, where despite extremely high rates of male part-time employment only one-quarter of part-time employees are male. Indeed, at 61%, the female part-time employment rate in the Netherlands implies that there are considerably more female employees working part-time than there are women working full-time.

Chart LMF1.6.B. **Proportion of employed in part-time employment<sup>a</sup>, by sex, 2013<sup>b</sup>**



a) Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment. 'Part-time' here refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job

b) Data for the Russian Federation refer to 2012

c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

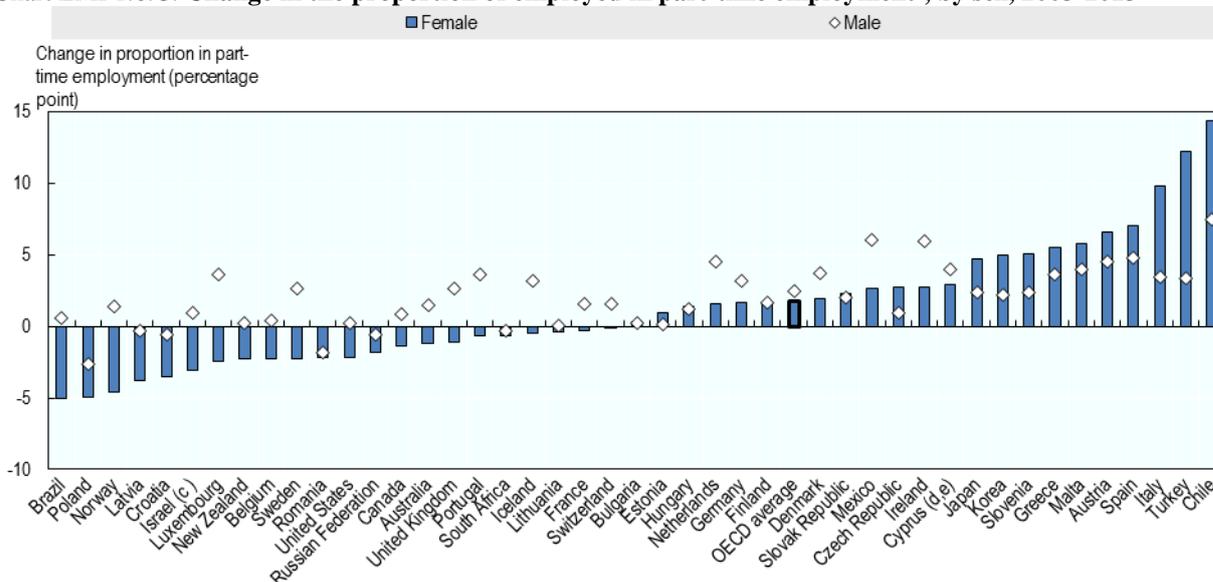
d) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A

e) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A

Source: [OECD Employment Database 2014](#); For Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania: [Eurostat Labour Market Statistics 2014](#)

There is little to suggest that female employees are generally moving away from part-time employment in OECD countries. Chart LMF1.6.C shows percentage point changes in male and female part-time employments rates in over the ten years between 2003 and 2013. Around half of all OECD countries did see female part-time employment rates fall over the ten year period, in some cases – such as Norway and Poland – by as much as five percentage points. However, the remaining half saw female rates increase, with the OECD average female part-time employment rate climbing from 23.3 in 2003 to 25.1 in 2013. Notably, chart LMF1.6.C does suggest that part-time employment is becoming increasingly common among male employees – male part-time rates increased in 39 of the 45 countries covered in the chart. Nonetheless, even by 2013 part-time employment remains on average around three times as common for female workers (see Chart LMF1.6.B).

Chart LMF1.6.C. Change in the proportion of employed in part-time employment<sup>a</sup>, by sex, 2003-2013<sup>b</sup>



a) Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment. 'Part-time' here refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job  
 b) For the Russian Federation, data for 2013 refer to 2012  
 c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A  
 d) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A  
 e) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A  
 Source: [OECD Employment Database 2014](http://www.oecd.org/employment/2014/); For Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania: [Eurostat Labour Market Statistics 2014](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&plugin=1)

Gender gaps in employment participation are not identical across all socio-economic groups. Table LMF1.6.A, for example, shows gender gaps in employment rates among men and women (25-64 year olds) with three varying levels of education: those who have not completed upper secondary education (ISCED levels 0-2); those who have completed upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED levels 3 and 4, respectively); and, those who have completed tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 and 6).

In almost all OECD countries, gender gaps in employments rates decrease as education increases. There are some exceptions. In Korea, for example, the gender gap is smaller among men and women with less than upper secondary levels of education than it is among those with upper secondary or tertiary education, mostly because employment rates are relatively low among less educated men. However, in most countries gender gaps are smaller for men and women with tertiary education than they are among men and women with lower levels of education. Indeed, on average the gender gap in employment rates among men and women with tertiary education is less than half the size of the gap among men and women with less than upper secondary education.

Table LMF1.6.A. **Gender gap in employment rates by educational attainment, 2013<sup>a</sup>**

	Below upper secondary			Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary			Tertiary Education		
	Gender			Gender			Gender		
	Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female	Gap
Australia	69.3	52.2	17.1	85.5	67.3	18.2	89.4	78.9	10.5
Austria	63.1	50.8	12.3	82.0	74.6	7.4	89.3	83.4	6.0
Belgium	56.9	37.9	19.0	79.4	67.1	12.3	87.2	81.5	5.7
Canada	64.6	45.7	19.0	79.4	68.4	11.0	85.3	79.2	6.1
Chile	83.7	40.0	43.7	86.2	56.1	30.1	91.7	77.8	13.9
Czech Republic	52.5	35.7	16.8	84.5	67.9	16.7	92.7	77.3	15.5
Denmark	67.6	53.9	13.7	82.6	75.1	7.5	88.4	85.0	3.4
Estonia	62.5	50.7	11.8	79.1	68.6	10.5	87.9	80.2	7.6
Finland	58.2	48.3	9.9	76.3	70.4	5.9	86.3	82.0	4.3
France	61.8	47.6	14.2	76.7	69.4	7.3	87.3	81.9	5.4
Germany	67.4	50.8	16.6	83.0	74.7	8.3	91.1	83.9	7.2
Greece	57.5	33.3	24.1	66.4	42.5	23.9	74.5	63.9	10.6
Hungary	47.5	33.6	13.9	75.0	62.1	12.9	87.0	75.2	11.8
Iceland	82.1	67.6	14.5	88.0	81.9	6.0	93.9	87.3	6.5
Ireland	57.1	34.4	22.7	73.6	58.2	15.4	84.8	76.3	8.5
Israel (b)	63.5	31.1	32.5	76.6	66.0	10.6	89.3	81.8	7.6
Italy	64.6	34.1	30.5	79.0	60.4	18.7	83.2	73.7	9.5
Japan	..	..	..	85.7	63.7	22.0	92.5	69.1	23.5
Korea	77.7	57.7	20.0	84.2	57.9	26.3	89.6	62.3	27.3
Luxembourg	72.8	51.7	21.1	78.6	62.8	15.8	89.3	80.0	9.3
Mexico	87.0	43.9	43.1	90.6	55.6	35.1	87.5	71.4	16.0
Netherlands	71.9	50.6	21.3	82.9	73.4	9.4	89.7	86.1	3.6
New Zealand	76.5	61.5	15.0	89.4	71.3	18.1	90.2	82.2	8.0
Norway	66.2	58.0	8.2	85.5	76.9	8.7	91.3	88.1	3.2
Poland	49.0	28.3	20.7	74.2	55.0	19.2	89.5	81.5	7.9
Portugal	67.2	55.8	11.4	77.9	74.1	3.8	82.4	78.8	3.6
Slovak Republic	36.8	27.3	9.5	76.9	62.2	14.8	85.7	74.4	11.3
Slovenia	55.1	36.4	18.7	73.9	63.8	10.1	86.3	82.0	4.3
Spain	55.8	40.1	15.7	69.8	59.1	10.7	79.9	73.2	6.7
Sweden	72.0	50.1	21.9	85.9	79.0	6.9	90.4	88.3	2.1
Switzerland	77.1	63.3	13.9	87.8	76.8	11.0	92.9	83.8	9.1
Turkey	75.1	27.6	47.5	81.5	31.0	50.5	85.1	65.5	19.5
United Kingdom	66.8	49.3	17.5	84.2	72.5	11.7	89.7	80.2	9.4
United States	64.0	40.6	23.4	73.5	61.9	11.6	85.8	75.7	10.1
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>64.6</b>	<b>45.3</b>	<b>19.3</b>	<b>80.3</b>	<b>65.8</b>	<b>14.5</b>	<b>87.7</b>	<b>78.6</b>	<b>9.1</b>
Brazil	83.2	50.2	33.0	88.4	65.9	22.5	91.4	80.7	10.7
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Russian Federation	57.2	40.5	16.7	80.2	64.6	15.5	88.6	79.2	9.5
South Africa	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bulgaria	43.4	32.6	10.8	72.5	65.4	7.1	84.1	79.7	4.4
Croatia	49.8	32.0	17.8	65.0	57.2	7.8	78.6	77.0	1.6
Cyprus (c,d)	62.2	49.7	12.5	77.7	61.4	16.3	82.9	75.7	7.2
Latvia	56.8	41.0	15.8	73.4	65.8	7.6	88.7	83.3	5.4
Lithuania	43.6	32.7	10.9	72.1	64.3	7.8	89.6	88.0	1.6
Malta	73.5	28.4	45.1	88.6	70.9	17.7	92.9	83.3	9.6
Romania	65.6	44.3	21.3	75.6	59.5	16.1	86.7	83.3	3.4

a) Data for Chile refer to 2011 and for the Russian Federation to 2012.

b) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

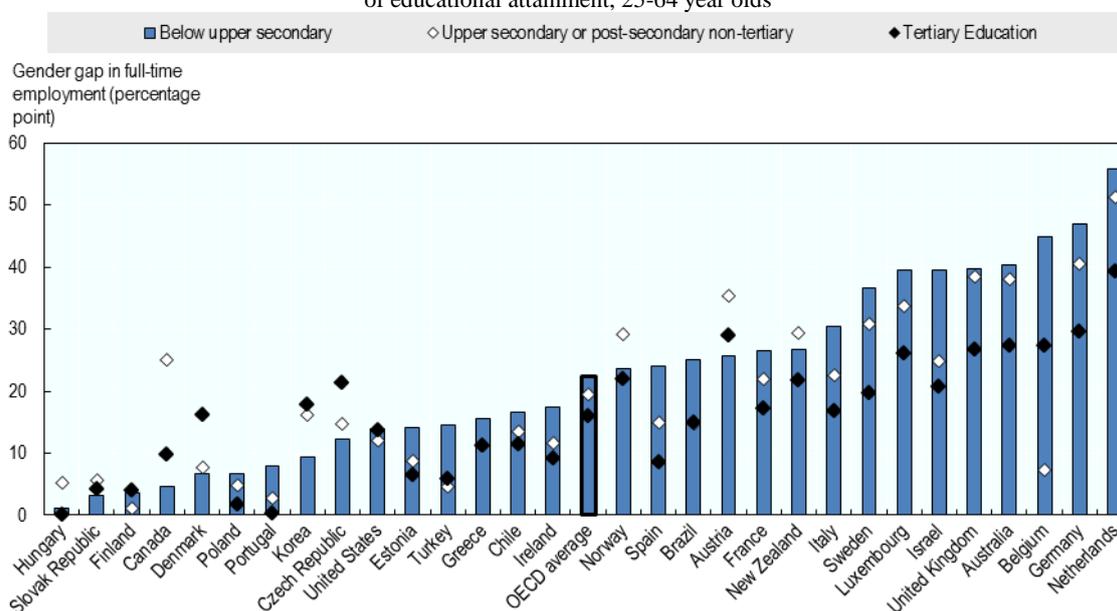
c) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A

d) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A

Source: [OECD Education at a Glance](#); For Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania: Eurostat Labour Market Statistics 2014

Similarly, gender gaps in working hours and part-time employment also tend to be smaller among men and women with high levels of education than among those with lower levels of educational attainment. Chart LMF1.6.D shows the gender gap in full-time full-year employment rates for men and women with below upper secondary education, upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, and tertiary education. In the majority of OECD countries, gender differences in the proportion of earners that work on a full-time, full-year basis are smaller among men and women with tertiary education than they are among their less educated counterparts. Again there are exceptions, such as in Denmark where the gap for those with tertiary education is over twice as large as it is for men and women with less than upper secondary education. Generally though, working hours and the extent of employment participation are more equal among men and women with higher levels of education than they are among less educated men and women.

**Chart LMF1.6.D. Gender gap in full-time full-year employment rates by educational attainment, 2012<sup>a</sup>**  
 Difference in the proportion of male and female earners that work on a full-time full-year basis<sup>b</sup> among all earners, by level of educational attainment, 25-64 year olds



a) Data for France, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden refer to 2010, and for Belgium, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Norway, Portugal and Spain to 2011.

b) Full-time full year basis refers to people who have worked all year long and at least 30 hours per week. See OECD Education at a Glance 2014 for more details.

c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

Source: [OECD Education at a Glance](#)

### Comparability and data issues

Data for the first three measures presented in this section are taken from either the OECD Employment Database, or from the Eurostat Labour Market Statistics Database for European countries outside the OECD. Both are well established sources of labour market data and issues around comparability are few. However, the definition of part-time work does vary somewhat across countries. Essentially three main approaches can be distinguished: i) a classification based on the worker's perception of his/her employment situation; ii) a cut-off (generally 30 hours per week) based on *usual* working hours, with persons usually working fewer hours being considered part-timers; iii) a comparable cut-off based on *actual* hours worked during the reference week.

For OECD countries, the approach taken here is to use a harmonised definition of part-time work as far as is possible: part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job, except in Japan and Korea where data are based on actual hours, and in Switzerland where data concerns hours worked in all jobs (see OECD Employment Outlook 2014). The data for the non-

OECD countries are based on respondent self-assessment of usual hours worked vis-à-vis the 30 hours threshold (detailed information on the variation in usual working hours is presented in LMF2.1 and LMF2.2).

Data for the final two measures presented in this section are taken from OECD Education at a Glance 2014. Detailed notes regarding the methods and collection techniques used to produce the data are given in Annex 3 of [OECD Education at a Glance 2014](#). It is though worth pointing out that, while the guidelines on the categorization of educational programmes (ISCED) used in Table 1.6.A and Chart LMF 1.6.D are very comprehensive, it remains possible that a formal education programme in one country could be classified differently in another. For example, in Belgium, Canada, Finland, Japan and Sweden a high proportion of university graduates have obtained what some other countries would classify as upper secondary vocational type qualifications. See CO3.1 and OECD Education at a Glance 2014 for more discussion

## 2) Gender job segregation and differences in the type of employment.

### Definitions and methodology

Job segregation and differences in the type of jobs held by men and women are captured here by three measures:

i) The number of occupations that account for half of male and female total employment, where the occupations in question are measured at the detailed 4-digit International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 88 classification level.

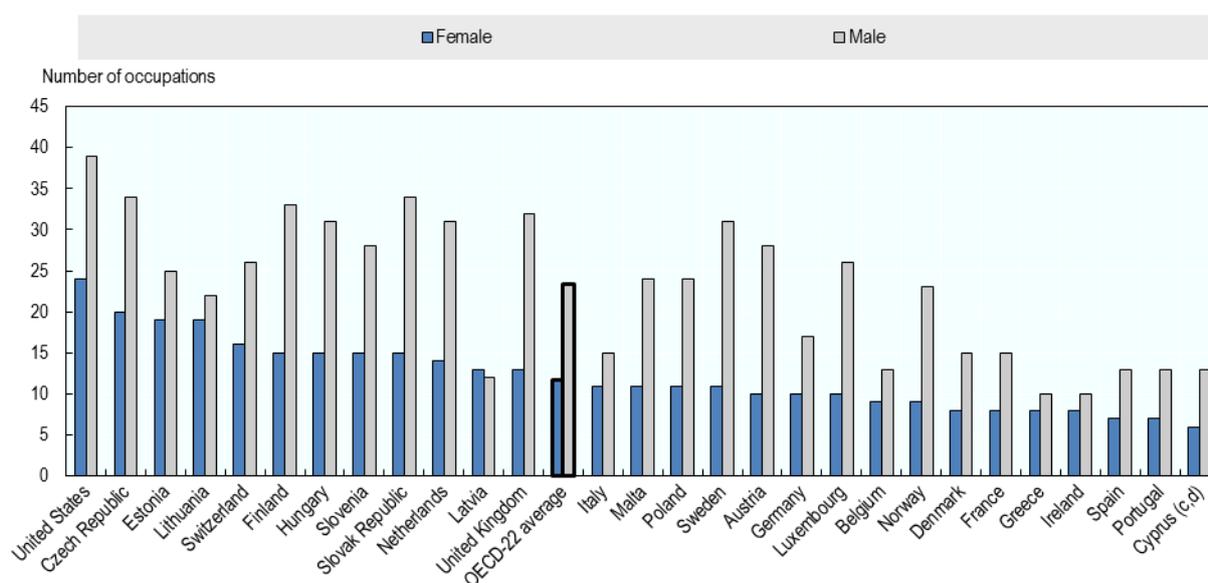
ii) The female share of managers, calculated as the proportion of persons employed as managers that are female and with ‘managers’ defined in most cases as those employees with jobs classified in ISCO08 category one (data for certain countries continue to use the older ISCO88 classification system – see comparability and data issues).

iii) Male and female temporary employment rates, calculated and defined as the proportion of dependent employees that work under a fixed-term or temporary contract.

### Key findings

Across OECD countries, female employees tend to be concentrated in far fewer occupations than male employees. Chart LMF1.6.E, for example, shows the number of 4-digit ISCO88 classifications that are needed to capture 50% of male and female employment. In some OECD countries, female employment is reasonably diverse. In the United States, for example, 24 occupational categories are needed to account for half of all female workers, a number that is greater than that which is needed to capture 50% of male employees in 15 of the 29 countries covered. However, in all countries the number of occupations that account for 50% of female employees is lower than that which is needed for their male counterparts – indeed, on average across the OECD, half of all female workers can be accounted for by just 11 occupations, in comparison to 23 for men. This concentration of female employment is a manifestation of ‘horizontal gender segregation’, whereby women are likely to find themselves employed in jobs and sectors where the workforce is made up primarily of other women.

Chart LMF1.6.E. Number of occupations that account<sup>a</sup> for half of total employment, by sex, 2009<sup>b</sup>



a) Occupations are measured at the detailed 4-digit ISCO classification level

b) Data for the United States refer to 2010

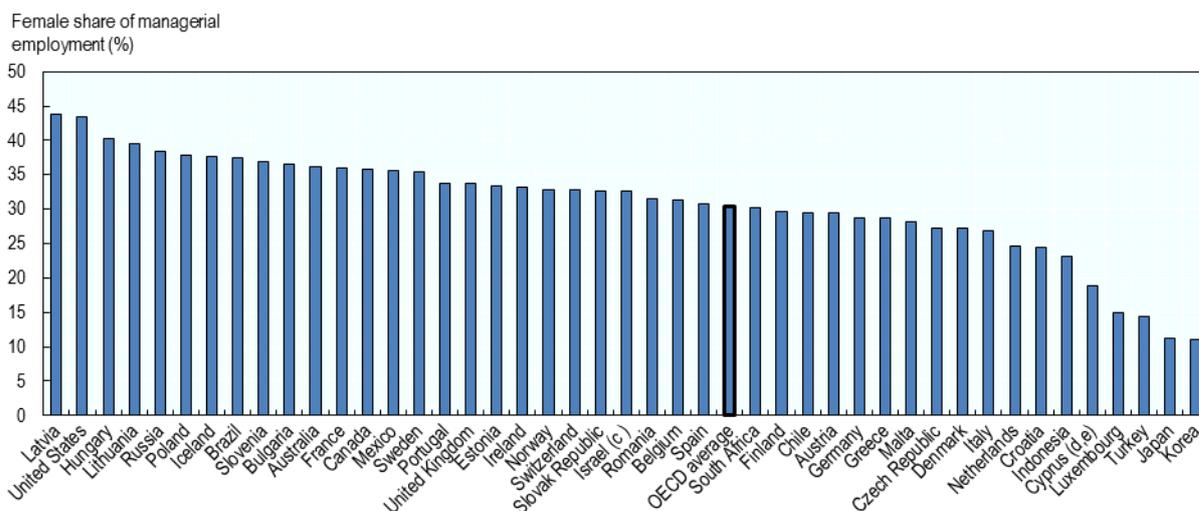
c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

d) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A

Source: [European Labour Force Survey 2009](#); [For the United States: Current Population Survey March 2010](#)

Women across countries also tend to face ‘vertical segregation’, in that women are consistently under-represented in top positions and are disproportionately likely to work in jobs at the lower end of the labour market. In all OECD countries, women make up less than half of those individuals employed as managers (chart LMF1.6.F), although again this is subject to considerable cross-national variation. Female access to managerial positions is relatively high in the United States, for example, where 43.4% of managers are female. Conversely, women find it particularly difficult to reach managerial positions in both Japan and Korea, where women make up a little over 10% of managers. On average across OECD countries though, less than one third of managers are female. This ‘glass ceiling’ on women’s careers is one determinant of the gender pay gap, as discussed in LMF1.5.

Chart LMF1.6.F. **Female share of managerial employment, 2013<sup>a</sup>**  
 Proportion of persons employed as managers<sup>b</sup> that are female



a) Data for Korea refer to 2012

b) For Brazil, Canada, Chile, Indonesia, Russia and the United States: percentage of employees that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 88 category one (as legislators, senior officials and managers) that are female. For all other countries: percentage of employees that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 08 category one (as managers) that are female.

c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

d) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A

e) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A

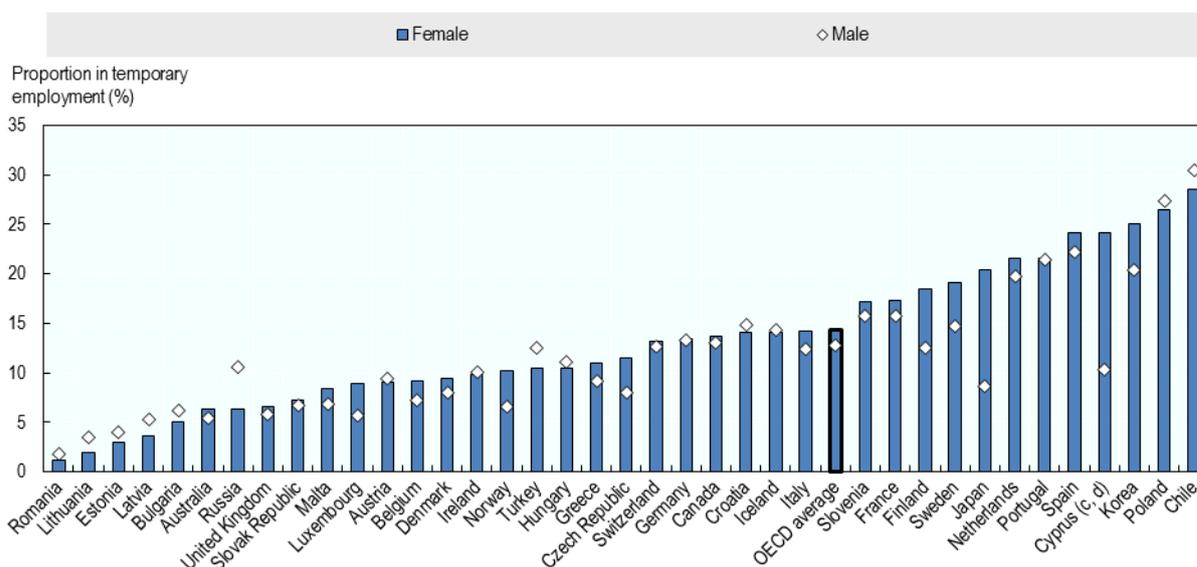
Source: ILO (2015), "ILOSTAT Database", ILO Department of Statistics

The flip side of ‘vertical segregation’ is that female employees may also find themselves stuck in low status, low paid and insecure jobs at the lower end of the labour market – a so-called ‘sticky floor’. One measure of low job quality is temporary employment. Temporary contracts are by their nature insecure, are often associated with service sector jobs that have a seasonal component (e.g. hospitality and tourism), and in many countries are not covered by certain aspects of employment protection legislation. Moreover, in many instances workers in temporary jobs cannot access a number of financial services – such as loans and mortgages – and in certain cases also face exclusion from social security systems.

Chart LMF1.6.G shows the proportion of male and female dependent employees on temporary contracts in 2013. Gender differences on this measure are not as pronounced as those seen in many of the previous tables and charts – generally, male and female rates of temporary employment are fairly similar. Nonetheless, female rates are higher than male rates in two thirds of the countries covered, with the OECD average gender gap standing at just under 2 percentage points. Gender differences in temporary employment are largest in Cyprus and Japan – where the proportion of female dependent employees on temporary contracts is well over 10 percentage points higher than the equivalent rate for men – but are also considerable in Korea and, notably, the Nordic countries. In some countries, such as Chile, Poland, the Russia Federation and Turkey, male temporary employment rates are considerably higher than female

rates. In large part this can be explained by the relatively large agricultural sectors in these countries, as jobs in agriculture tend to be both dominated by men and are often offered only on a fixed-term or temporary basis.

**Chart LMF1.6.G. Proportion of employees in temporary employment<sup>a</sup>, by sex, 2013<sup>b</sup>**



a) Proportion of dependent employees with a temporary or fixed term job contract

b) Data for Australia and Japan refer to 2012c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

c) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A

d) See note d) in Chart LMF1.6.A

Source: [OECD Employment Database 2014](http://www.oecd.org/employment/database2014)

For Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania: [Eurostat Labour Market Statistics 2014](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&plugin=1)

### Comparability and data issues

The measures used in this section do suffer from certain comparability issues. For example, while the *International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO)* is the most widely used system for the classification of workers over different categories of jobs and occupations, the exact definition and number of occupations reported by national surveys are not always identical from one country to the next. This may affect the data used in Chart LMF1.6.E in particular, since the more disaggregated the categorisation, the more likely it is that employees will be dispersed across occupations. It is therefore worth noting that while for European countries the 4-digit ISCO classification of occupations has been used, with a distinction between 493 types of occupations, the number of occupations reported in the United States current population survey is slightly higher at 508.

LMF1.6.F is based on the broader 1-digit ISCO codes, so issues around the exact classification of detailed occupations are less severe here. However, while data for most of the countries covered LMF1.6.F are based on the more recent ISCO08 classification of occupations, data for certain countries - Brazil, Canada, Chile, Indonesia, the Russian Federation and the United States - are available only using the older ISCO88 classification system. There is no clear systematic difference between those countries that use the two different systems, but within a given country and when looking over time, shifting from one classification to the other does often produce a slight break in series. This should be kept in mind when interpreting the data presented in Chart LMF1.6.F.

Lastly, the data used in Chart LMF1.6.G on temporary workers are reported for employees only. In all countries, the definition of temporary workers include those on fixed-term contracts, but some countries set

a time limit of 12 months for an employee to be classified as “temporary” (including Australia, Japan, Norway and Switzerland). This generally leads to lower rates of temporary employment in these countries in comparison with countries that define all workers on fixed-term contracts as temporary regardless of contract duration.

Sources and further reading: OECD (2012) *Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now* [www.oecd.org/gender/closingthegap.htm](http://www.oecd.org/gender/closingthegap.htm); OECD *Employment database*; EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide, [http://circa.europa.eu/irc/dsis/employment/info/data/eu\\_lfs/index.htm](http://circa.europa.eu/irc/dsis/employment/info/data/eu_lfs/index.htm); OECD (2007), *Babies and Bosses: Reconciling Work and Family Life: A synthesis of Findings for OECD countries* (Volume 5); OECD (2010), *Employment Outlook*; For data on employment rates by educational attainment: *OECD Education database* and *OECD Education at a Glance 2014*. For details on country’s mapping of national programmes to ISCED please refer to Annex 3 of *OECD Education at a Glance 2014* ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).