

LMF1.6: Gender differences in employment outcomes

This indicator presents several measures of gender differences in employment outcomes, 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. 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 by three measures:

- i) The gender gap in the employment rate (15-64 year olds), with the employment rate measured as the number of people aged 15-64 years old in employment as a proportion of the corresponding population, and the gender gap calculated as the male rate minus the female rate. Definitions of employment follow [ILO guidelines](#).
- 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, one further measure is used to capture gender differences in participation in employment across levels of education:

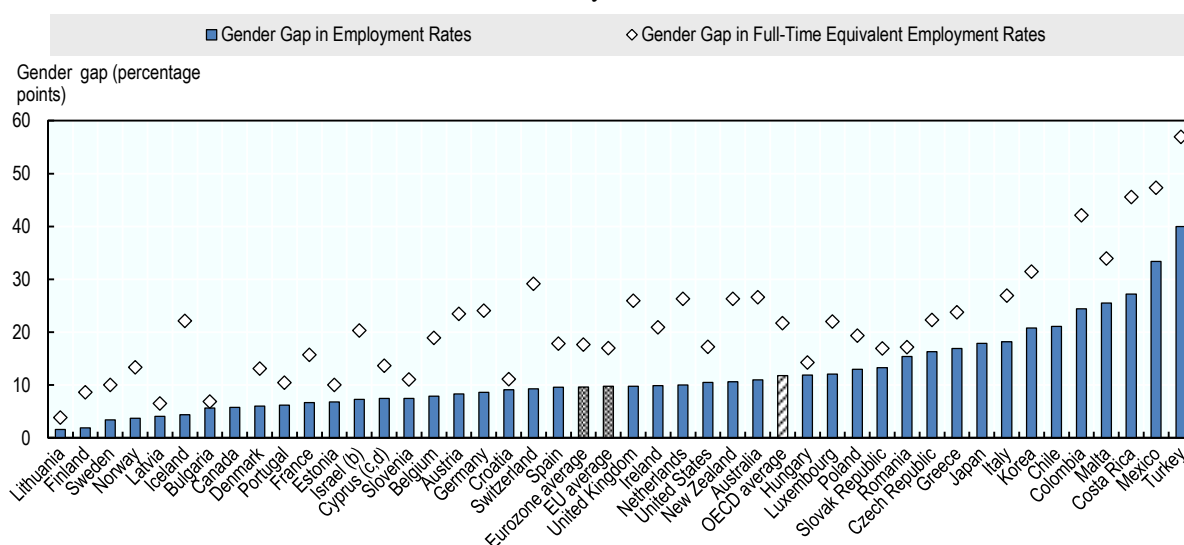
- iv) The gender gap in the employment rate (25-64 year olds) by educational attainment, with levels of educational attainment defined according to the standard ISCED 2011 classification (See Annex 3 to OECD Education at a Glance 2015 for more details).

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 in couple households (LMF2.2.) and in sole-parent household (LMF2.3); Educational attainment by gender (CO3.1).
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Key findings

Women in all OECD countries are less likely to be in employment than men, although the size of the gender gap does vary considerably across countries (Chart LMF1.6.A). In 2014, the OECD average female employment rate (61.1%) was around 12 percentage points lower than the OECD average for men (72.8%). In some countries (e.g. Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden) the gap in 2014 was only around 5 percentage points or less. In others (e.g. Mexico and Turkey) it was as high as 30 percentage points or more. In most OECD countries though, the female employment rate is somewhere between 5 and 15 percentage points lower than the male employment rate.

Chart LMF1.6.A. Gender gaps in the employment rate and the full-time equivalent^a employment rates, 2014
 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. For the United States, the full-time equivalent is calculated based on usual working hours for dependent employees only. For Japan and Korea, data reflect actual rather than usual weekly working hours.

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.

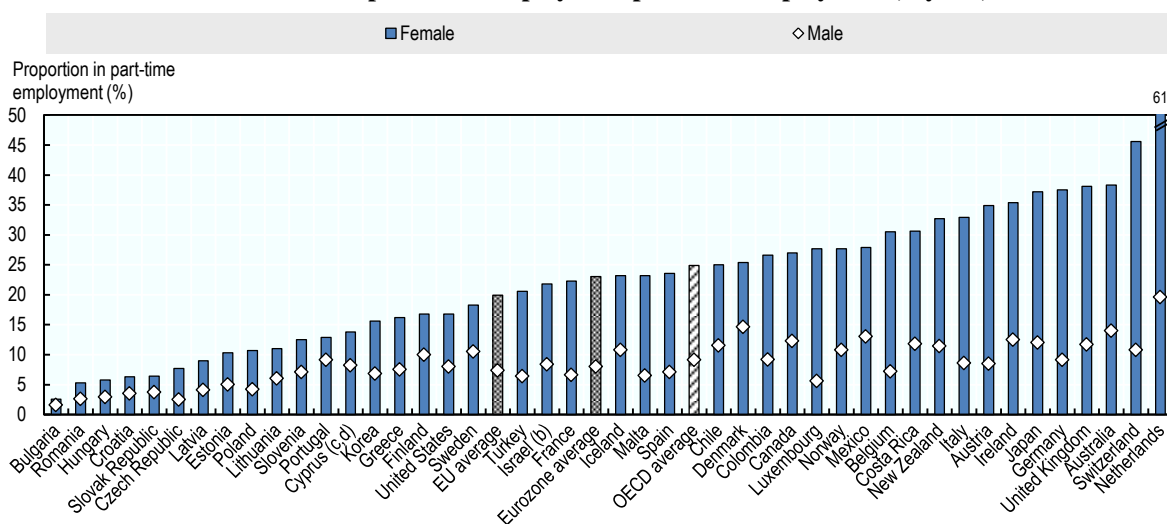
Source: [OECD Employment Database](http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm.htm)

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 the full-time equivalent employment rate is larger than the gap in the standard employment rate. In some Eastern European countries (particularly Hungary, but also Slovenia and some non-OECD EU member states such as Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania) the gap in the full-time equivalent rate is only marginally higher than the gap in the standard employment rate. This suggests that in these countries, gender differences in employment are determined mostly by differences between men and women in the ability to find employment in the first instance. In contrast, in some of the Nordic OECD countries (Finland, Iceland, and Norway) plus Switzerland the gender gap in full-time equivalent employment is at least three times as large as the gap in the standard employment rate. In these cases, 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). In some countries (again,

mostly Eastern European countries) the female part-time employment rate is only slightly higher than the male part-time employment rate. In others, however, part-time employment rates for women reach four or five times the size of those for men (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands). Particularly notable is the Netherlands, where despite extremely high rates of male part-time employment only one-quarter of part-time employees are men. 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 female employees working full-time.

Chart LMF1.6.B. Proportion of employed in part-time employment^a, by sex, 2014



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. For the United States, data reflect part-time employees among dependent employees only. For Japan and Korea, part-time employment is based on actual rather than usual weekly working hours.

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

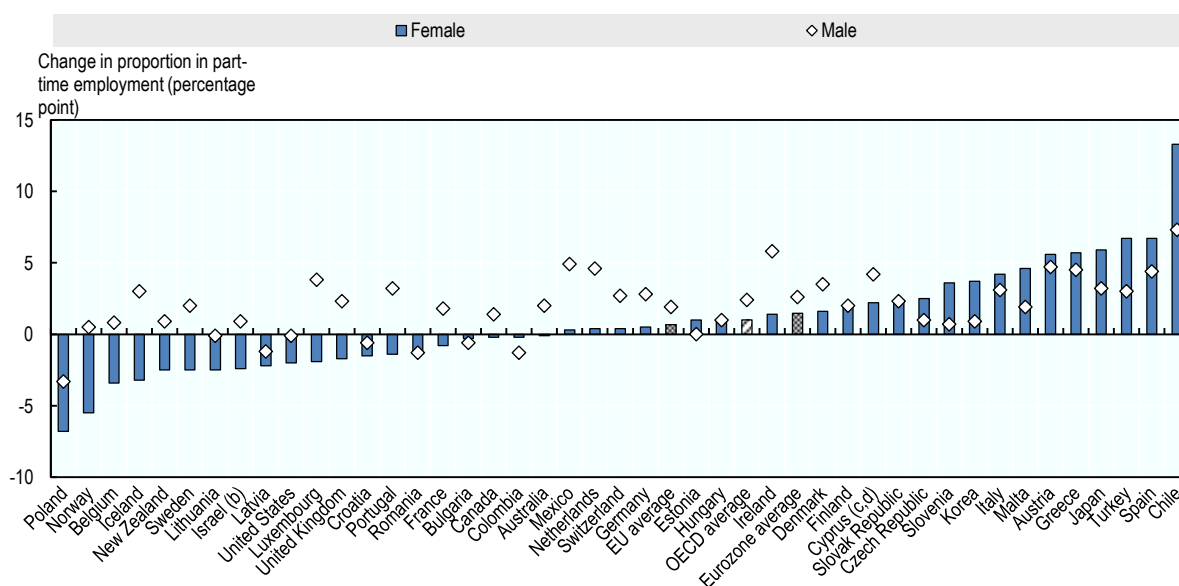
c) See note c) in Chart LMF1.6.A

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

Source: [OECD Employment Database](#)

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 over the ten years between 2004 and 2014. Around half of all OECD countries did see female part-time employment rates fall over the ten year period, in some cases (such as in Norway and Poland) by as much as five percentage points or more. However, the remaining half saw female part-time rates increase, with the OECD average female part-time employment rate climbing from 23.9 in 2004 to 24.9 in 2014. Notably, chart LMF1.6.C does suggest that part-time employment is becoming increasingly common among male employees – male part-time rates increased in all but two OECD countries over the 10 years between 2004 and 2014 (Poland and the United States being the exceptions). Nonetheless, even by 2014 part-time employment remained on average around two-and-a-half to three times more common among female employees than among male employees (see Chart LMF1.6.B).

Chart LMF1.6.C. Change in the proportion of employed in part-time employment^a, by sex, 2004-2014



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. For the United States, data reflect part-time employees among dependent employees only. For Japan and Korea, part-time employment is based on actual rather than usual weekly working hours.
 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 Employment Database](http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm)

Gender gaps in employment rates 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 2011 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 5-8).

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 among men and women with tertiary education than they are among men and women with lower levels of education. In fact, on average, the gender gap in the employment rate 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, 2014^a**
 Male and female employment rates by level of education attained^b, 25-64 year olds

	Below upper secondary			Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary			Tertiary Education		
	Male	Female	Gender	Male	Female	Gender	Male	Female	Gender
			Gap			Gap			Gap
Australia	69.2	51.5	17.7	84.7	67.8	16.9	88.9	78.0	10.9
Austria	59.1	49.5	9.7	79.8	71.6	8.2	87.2	83.3	3.8
Belgium	56.1	38.1	18.0	78.1	66.9	11.2	87.2	82.6	4.6
Canada	64.5	44.6	19.9	79.2	67.3	11.9	84.9	79.0	5.8
Chile	84.2	41.8	42.5	86.3	58.7	27.5	90.7	78.2	12.5
Czech Republic	53.5	37.1	16.4	85.6	68.7	16.8	92.3	77.2	15.1
Denmark	69.4	52.8	16.6	83.0	75.1	7.9	89.2	84.2	5.1
Estonia	65.8	51.1	14.6	80.0	67.5	12.5	89.5	80.8	8.6
Finland	58.1	46.5	11.6	75.0	70.9	4.1	85.6	81.9	3.7
France	61.8	47.7	14.2	76.8	69.5	7.3	87.3	81.9	5.4
Germany	67.4	50.9	16.5	83.5	76.0	7.5	91.3	84.0	7.3
Greece	58.6	34.4	24.1	67.1	42.9	24.2	72.5	64.8	7.7
Hungary	54.7	38.1	16.6	78.2	64.6	13.6	88.4	77.0	11.4
Iceland	83.3	70.7	12.6	89.6	82.1	7.5	93.5	88.8	4.7
Ireland	58.1	31.9	26.3	76.5	59.5	17.0	85.6	77.4	8.3
Israel (c)	63.6	32.2	31.4	76.9	66.8	10.2	89.5	83.4	6.0
Italy	64.1	34.1	30.1	79.1	60.6	18.5	83.2	73.7	9.5
Japan	93.0	70.2	22.8
Korea	78.9	58.3	20.6	84.9	59.1	25.8	89.7	62.6	27.1
Luxembourg	70.0	53.5	16.5	79.8	64.2	15.6	88.9	79.7	9.2
Mexico	87.6	43.8	43.8	90.0	54.8	35.2	87.3	70.8	16.5
Netherlands	70.9	47.8	23.1	83.0	72.5	10.5	90.3	84.9	5.4
New Zealand	78.1	64.8	13.4	89.5	70.0	19.5	92.9	82.8	10.1
Norway	66.5	56.8	9.7	85.3	76.7	8.7	91.4	88.6	2.8
Poland	49.5	29.0	20.5	75.3	55.9	19.4	90.7	83.0	7.8
Portugal	69.1	56.4	12.8	81.1	74.4	6.6	85.5	80.9	4.6
Slovak Republic	37.0	29.5	7.6	78.1	63.4	14.7	87.4	73.9	13.5
Slovenia	55.7	42.3	13.4	73.5	64.1	9.5	86.5	80.7	5.8
Spain	57.4	40.7	16.7	71.6	60.1	11.5	80.8	74.0	6.8
Sweden	72.7	58.2	14.5	87.1	81.4	5.7	90.2	88.1	2.1
Switzerland	78.3	62.4	15.9	87.6	77.7	9.9	92.3	84.4	7.9
Turkey	74.6	27.0	47.6	81.1	32.0	49.1	84.4	64.7	19.7
United Kingdom	70.4	51.0	19.5	85.3	74.1	11.2	88.7	80.9	7.8
United States	66.3	41.5	24.7	73.7	61.9	11.8	85.0	75.9	9.1
OECD average	65.9	45.9	20.0	80.8	66.0	14.8	88.0	78.9	9.1
Brazil	83.2	50.2	33.0	88.4	65.9	22.5	91.4	80.7	10.7
Colombia	90.0	54.9	35.2	88.7	64.4	24.3	90.9	79.2	11.7
Costa Rica	85.6	45.0	40.7	86.9	60.2	26.7	90.8	79.1	11.7
Latvia	58.3	39.1	19.2	74.8	66.9	7.9	86.6	83.0	3.7
Lithuania	52.1	41.3	10.8	72.8	66.4	6.4	91.2	88.2	3.0
Russia	57.6	39.6	18.0	79.5	63.9	15.6	88.6	78.5	10.0
Bulgaria	45.4	34.1	11.3	74.7	66.8	7.9	85.6	80.8	4.8
Croatia	47.6	32.7	14.9	67.7	56.6	11.1	80.9	80.2	0.7
Cyprus (d,e)	59.9	49.5	10.4	75.1	63.7	11.4	83.8	76.5	7.3
Malta	74.9	29.9	45.0	90.3	72.9	17.4	92.4	84.0	8.4
Romania	67.9	45.2	22.7	78.5	61.2	17.3	88.0	84.1	3.9

EU average	60.2	42.6	17.6	78.3	66.4	11.9	87.0	80.4	6.6
Eurozone average	60.8	42.8	17.9	77.7	66.0	11.7	86.5	79.8	6.7

a) Data for Chile, France, Brazil and Russia refer to 2013.

b) For most countries data refer to ISCED 2011. The countries with data that refer to ISCED-97 are: Brazil, the Russian Federation, and South Africa.

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

Comparability and data issues

Data for the first three measures presented in this section are taken from the OECD Employment Database. This is a well-established source of labour market data and issues around comparability are few, although a couple of notes are necessary:

- For Chart LMF1.6.A, the data on working hours used to compute the full-time equivalents are for most countries based on usual weekly working hours on the main job for all employed. For Japan and Korea, however, data on working hours cover *actual* hours worked on *all* jobs. Relative to other countries, this may lead to an overestimation of average working hours. For the United States, data cover dependent employees only.
- For Charts LMF1.6.B and LMF1.6.C, part-time employment rates are based on a harmonised definition of ‘part-time employment’ whereby all workers whose usual weekly working hours on their main job are less than 30 are considered to work ‘part-time’. Again, however, for Japan and Korea the data used are *actual* hours worked on *all* jobs. Relative to other countries, this may lead to an underestimation of the numbers working part-time. Data for the United States again cover dependent employees only.

Data for the final measure presented in this section are taken from OECD Education at a Glance 2015. Education at a Glance classifies educational programmes on the basis of the guidelines set out in UNESCO’s International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) framework, so issues around the comparability of programmes are few. It should be noted, however, that while for most countries the data shown in Table LMF1.6.A are based on the revised ISCED 2011 classification, data for some (Brazil, the Russian Federation, and South Africa) continue to be based on the old ISCED 1997. For more details on the new ISCED 2011 and a comparison of ISCED 1997 and ISCED 2011, see [OECD Education at a Glance 2015](#).

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.

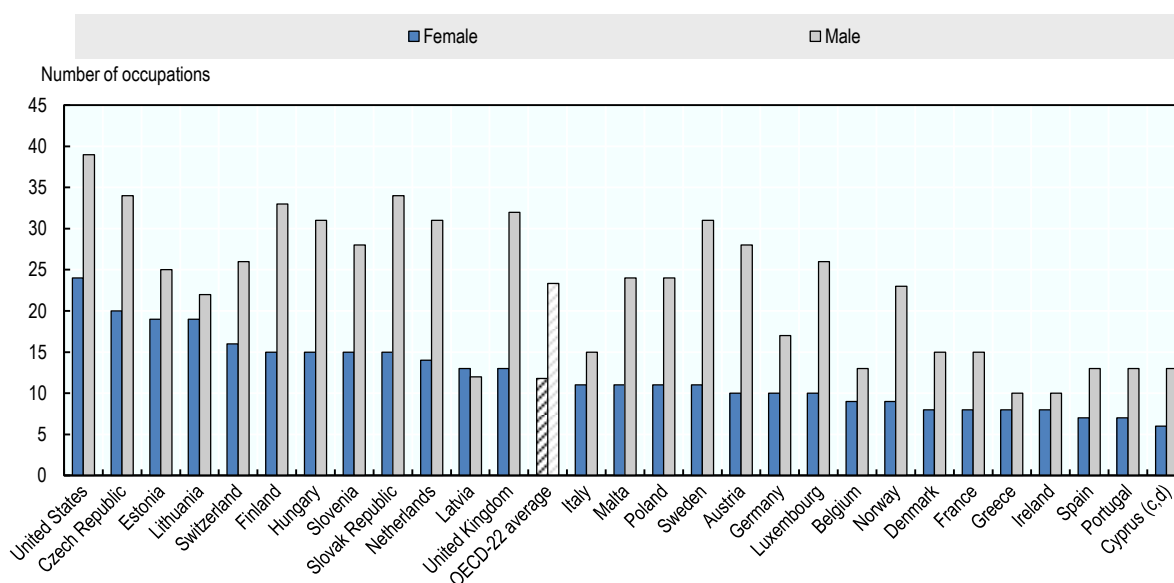
ii) The female share of managers, calculated as the proportion of persons employed as managers that are female and with ‘managers’ defined in most cases as those employees with jobs classified in ISCO08 category one (data for certain countries continue to use the older ISCO88 classification system – 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.D, 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. This is greater than the number of occupations 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.D. Number of occupations that account^a for half of total employment, by sex, 2009^b



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

b) Data for the United States refer to 2010

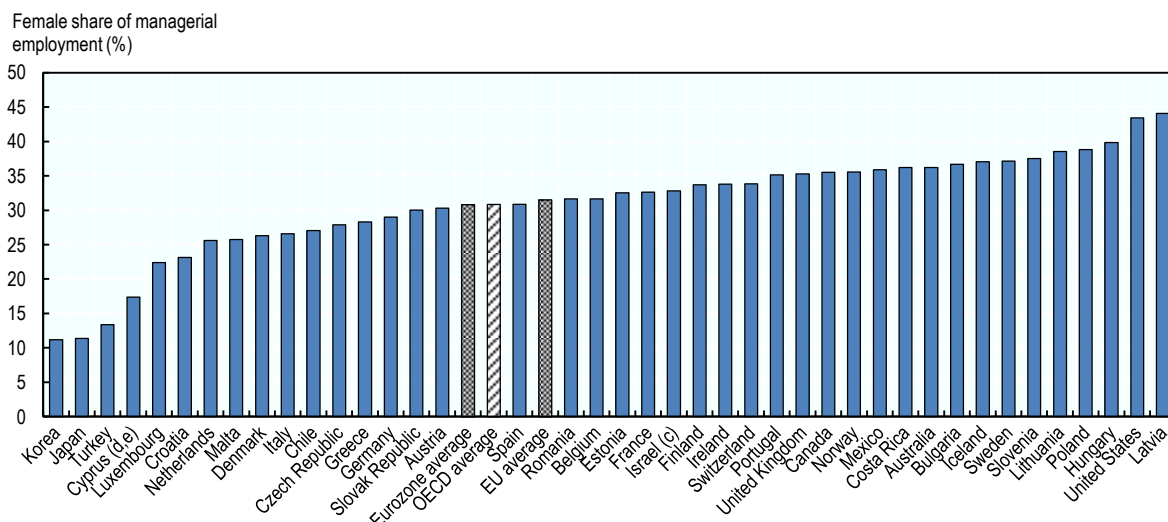
c) See note b) in Chart LMF1.6.A

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 they are consistently under-represented in top positions and disproportionately likely to work in jobs at the lower end of the labour market. Women in all OECD countries make up less than half of those individuals employed as managers, for example, although again this is subject to considerable cross-national variation (Chart LMF1.6.E). Female access to managerial positions is relatively high in the United States, for instance, 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 little more than 10% of managers.

Chart LMF1.6.E. **Female share of managerial employment, 2014^a**
 Proportion of persons employed as managers^b that are female



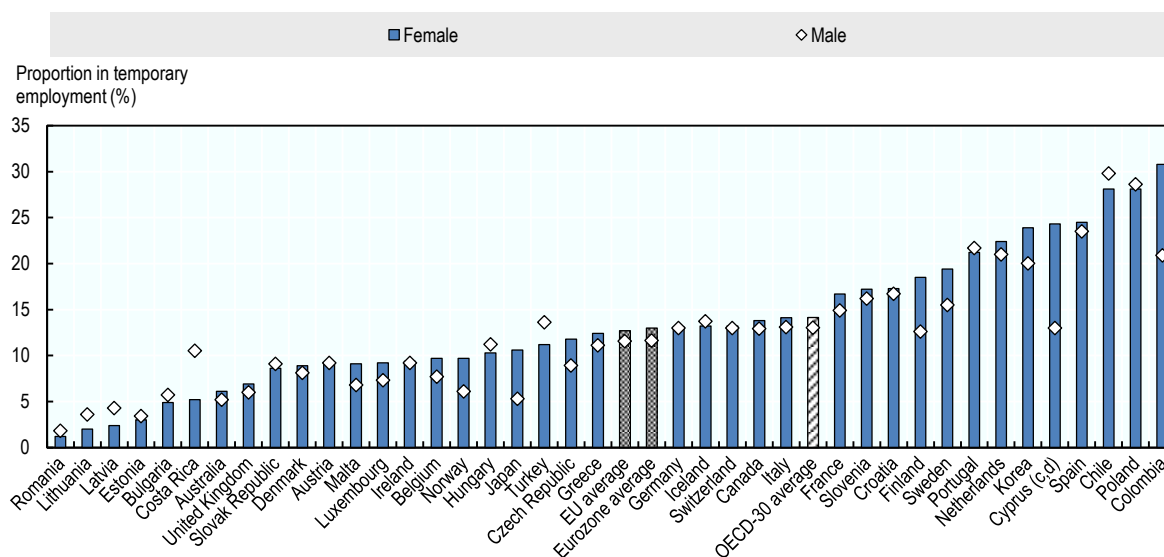
a) Data for Costa Rica and the United States refer to 2013
 b) For Canada, Chile, and the United States: percentage of employees that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 88 category one (as legislators, senior officials and managers) that are female. For 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 (2016), "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.F shows the proportion of male and female dependent employees on temporary contracts in 2014. 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 about two-thirds of the countries covered, with the OECD average gender gap standing at just over 1 percentage point. Among OECD countries, gender differences in temporary employment are largest in Finland and Japan (where in both cases the proportion of female dependent employees on temporary contracts is over 5 percentage points higher than the equivalent rate for men) but are also considerable in Korea and some of the other Nordic countries (Norway and Sweden). In some countries (e.g. Chile 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.F. Proportion of employees in temporary employment^a, by sex, 2014^b



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

b) Data for Australia refer to 2013

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

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

Source: [OECD Employment Database](#)

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 (Canada, Chile, and the United States) are based on 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 once classification to the other does often produce a slight break in series.

Lastly, the data used in Chart LMF1.6.G on temporary workers are reported for dependent 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

OECD Family Database <http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm.htm>
OECD - Social Policy Division - Directorate of Employment, Labour and Social Affairs

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; *OECD Employment database*; EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide, 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).