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WOMEN AT WORK IN G20 COUNTRIES*

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1. Introduction

At the Hangzhou Summit (September 2016), G20 leaders committed to ensure that economic growth serves the needs of everyone, generates quality employment, addresses inequalities and contributes to poverty eradication. They also engaged to further develop G20 countries' employment plans in 2017 to monitor progress, in a systemic and transparent manner, in achieving the G20 goals especially on female labour participation.

G20 leaders at the 2014 Summit in Brisbane committed to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25 per cent by 2025 (the 25 by 25 target). G20 ministers of labour agreed on a set of key policy principles to improve the quality of women's employment. This policy initiative by the G20 leadership also supports the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2015, especially Sustainable Development Goal 8 (SDG 8) on inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all, which seeks to address gender inequalities at work.¹

While overall the gender gap in labour force participation has narrowed slightly in the past few years, it remains large in a number of G20 emerging economies and has increased in countries where this gap used to be small. Moreover, while the participation gap is lowest amongst youth as compared to older workers, this gap widens around the start of parenthood.

At the same time, the quality of employment for many women leaves much to be desired. Across the G20 countries, gender gaps in hourly wages remain substantial. Women remain seriously under-represented in middle and senior management positions, despite significant progress in their educational attainments. At the same time, their representation in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) remains too low. Women are also at higher risk of low pay and of working in the informal economy as well as in non-standard forms of employment. Further, while women work less hours in paid work than men, their working days are nonetheless longer when paid and unpaid care work are taken together.

Two challenges stand out: (1) to maintain the steady entry of women in the labour force, and (2) to enhance the quality of their work. This must happen in a context of slow and fragile economic recovery and constrained public spending in social protection in advanced G20 countries, and economic slowdown and continuing challenges in the public provisioning of social policies in some emerging G20 economies. To improve the quality of work, the G20 LEMM Declaration, 2014 (see Annex I) also provides an agreed set of policy principles that can be built on. Additionally, the *G20 job quality framework*, adopted by the G20 in 2015, provides a framework for coherent and integrated action focusing on: improving the quality of earnings; increasing labour market security; and achieving better working conditions.

The purpose of this paper is to:

1. Take stock of the Brisbane target on gender participation gaps
2. Review trends regarding the quality of female employment across the three dimensions of the G20 job quality framework, and the corresponding Melbourne policy priorities, using key indicators related to each quality dimension;

¹ Other relevant and mutually reinforcing SDGs include: achieving gender equality (SDG 5); reducing poverty and extending social protection to all (SDG 1); and tackling inequalities (SDG 10).

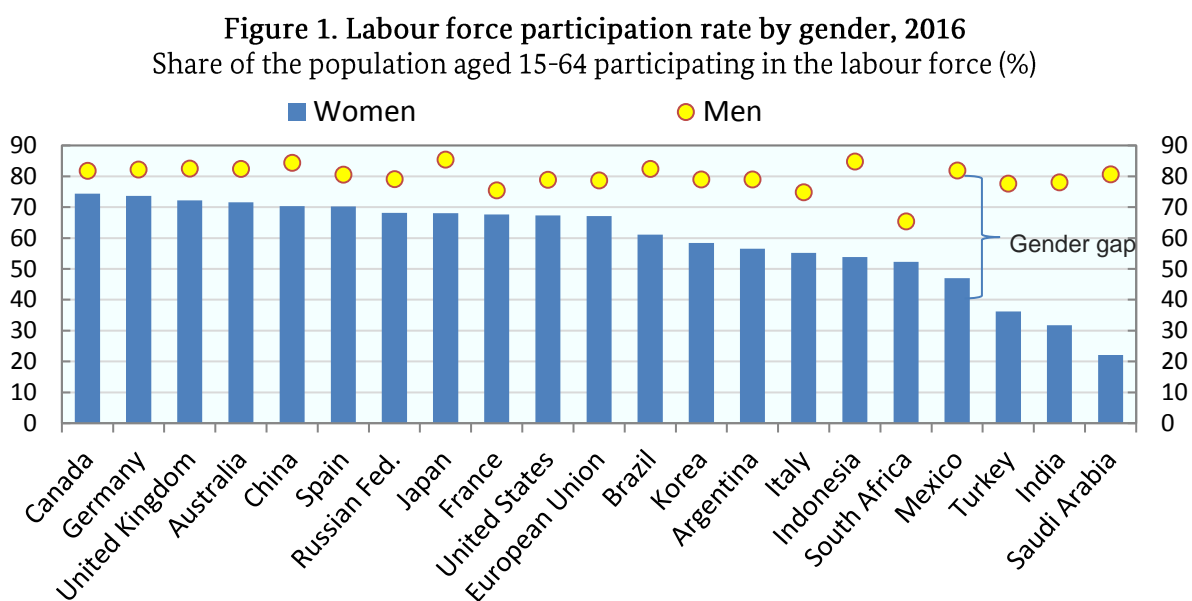
3. Identify policy initiatives across all three dimensions of the G20 job quality framework which have been taken in G20 countries to improve the quality of female employment; and
4. Note promising policy trends, as well as gaps, to help G20 countries better target Brisbane priorities and further actions necessary to improve the quality of women's employment.

The sources that have been used for the preparation of this note are essentially the National Employment Plans produced by the G20 countries and the information from breakout sessions held during the 1st Employment Working Group (EWG) of the G20 organized by the German Presidency, in Berlin, in December 2016.

2. Trends in women's employment across G20 countries

Taking stock of the Brisbane target: Modest and mixed progress in closing the participation gap

The G20 target to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% between 2012 and 2025 was adopted in recognition that narrowing this gap could help foster greater gender equality in the labour market and boost economic growth. The size of the gender gap varies considerably across countries, mainly reflecting large differences in participation rates for women (Figure 1). It ranges from less than 10 percentage points in Canada and France to 30 percentage points or more in India, Indonesia, Mexico, Turkey and Saudi Arabia.



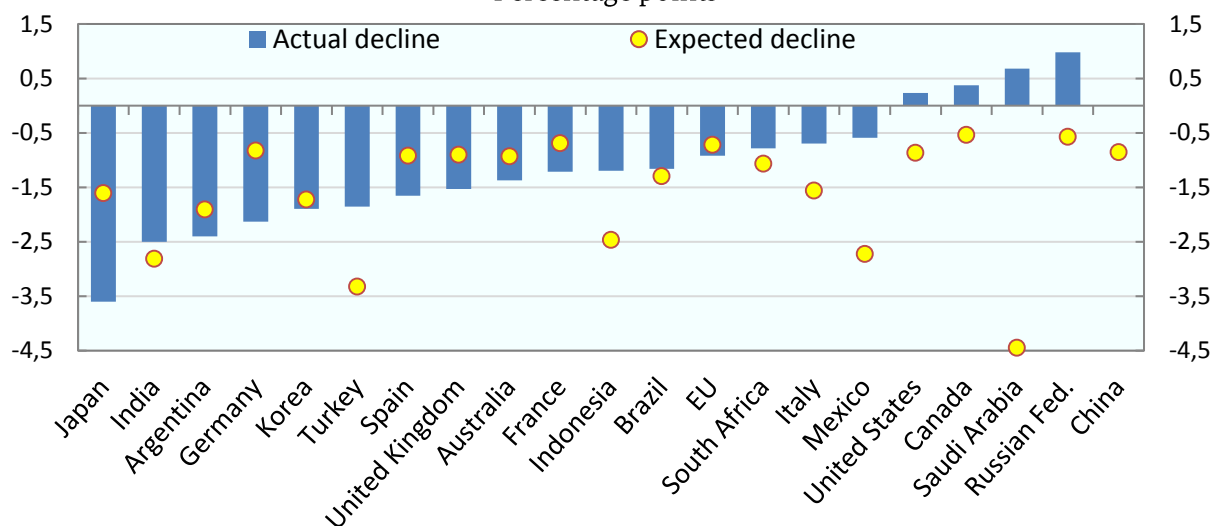
Note: The data refer to 2015 for Brazil, EU, India and Russia, and 2010 for China. For India, the data refer to the population aged 15 and over.

Source: National labour force surveys and, for China, census data.

Data is now available for the four-year period 2012-2016 to take stock of country progress to date towards achieving the G20 target. Overall, many G20 countries appear to have made good progress (Figure 2). In most countries, the gender gap in participation narrowed, with particular large decreases recorded in Argentina, Germany, India and Japan. The gender gap increased in only a few countries, possibly reflecting a cyclical pick-up in men's participation from a crisis-affected low in 2012. The reductions that countries have recorded in the gender gap can be benchmarked against the decline that would be "expected" if countries make steady reductions each year between 2012 and 2025 to achieve

the gender gap target. In a number of countries, most notably Germany and Japan, the actual decline in the gender gap exceeded the “expected” decline.

Figure 2. Actual versus expected decline in gender participation gap, 2012-2016
Percentage points



Note: The **actual decline** refers to the observed change in the gender gap between 2012 and 2016 (2015 for Brazil, EU, India and Russia). For 2016, the data refer to Q2 for Argentina and an average of Q2 and Q3 for Saudi Arabia. The **expected decline** in the gender gap between 2012 and 2016 refers to the cumulated annual decline required in each country to achieve the G20 target (i.e. four-thirteenths of the overall target decline of 25% in the gender gap). For China, no recent data are available to calculate the actual decline in the gender gap and the data for 2012 have been projected to calculate the expected decline in the gender gap. The data refer to the population aged 15 and over for India and 16-64 for the United States.
Source: OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys and, for China, census data.

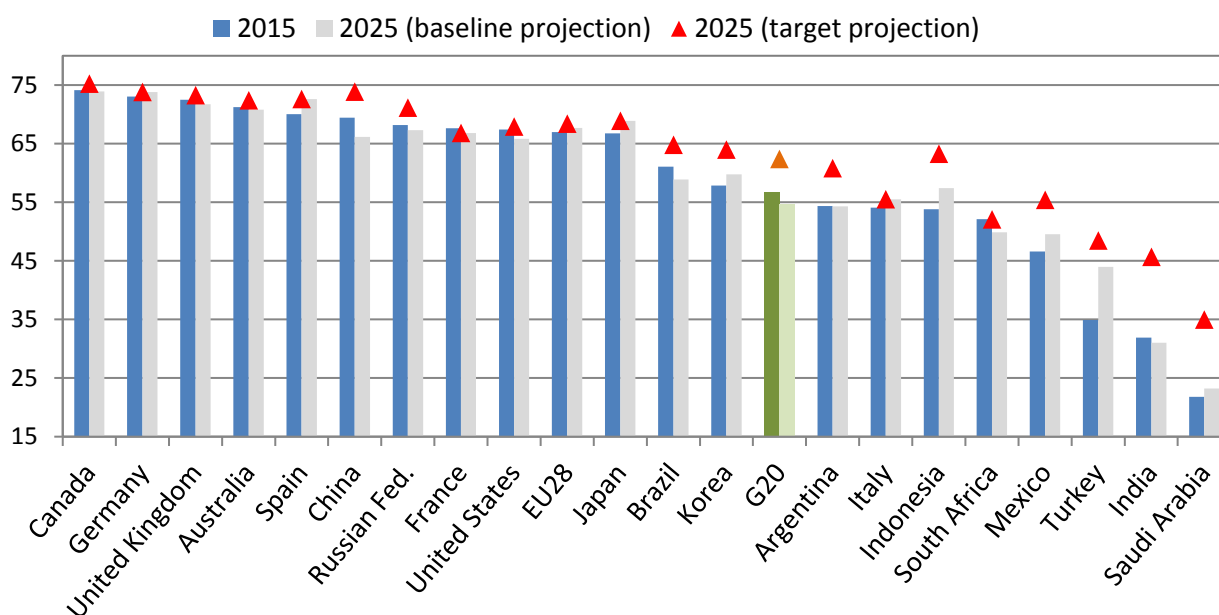
Despite some progress in reducing the gender gap in participation, reaching the G20 target will require ambitious policy action in several countries. How can the extent of the policy effort that is required be assessed? First, a “baseline” scenario is needed which provides a projection of what the increase in participation rates for women in 2025 would have been under no change in policies. This can then be compared with what further increase is required to reach the G20 target (i.e. the “target” scenario). In many countries, there has been a trend increase in the participation of women which has offset a decline in participation rates for men. Thus, even in the absence of further policy interventions, there would be some narrowing of the gender gap in participation. Therefore, an indication of the additional policy effort required can be obtained by comparing the baseline projection of the participation rate for women in each country in 2025 with the rate that would be necessary to achieve the G20 target.

For the purpose of this note, a baseline projection for the labour force participation rates of men and women was generated by assuming that labour force entry and exit rates by gender and 5-year age groups for each G20 economy are fixed over the projection period at their historical average for the period 2005-2015.²

² For example, the participation rate for women in a given 5-year age group and year is obtained by applying the corresponding fixed entry/exit rate to the participation rate for women in the age group 5-years younger and 5 years earlier. The resulting participation rates are then applied to the corresponding projections of the population. Using this methodology, participation rates are not fixed. For example, higher participation rates for younger women in 2015 relative to the past will flow through to higher participation rates at older ages over the projection period as these younger women age. Essentially, the assumed fixed entry or exit rates will be applied to a higher participation rate. The historical data and projections for the population, labour force and labour force participation rates were obtained from the OECD Population and Labour Force Projections Database.

Under the “baseline” scenario, the participation rate for women aged 15-64 is projected to rise in nearly all G20 economies (Figure 3). Apart from Japan and Spain, the increase is projected to be modest for the more advanced G20 economies where female participation rates are already high. Larger increases will occur in several of the G20 emerging economies but not all. In particular, a decline in female participation is projected for China but from a high level. Given the size of China’s population, this feeds through to a small projected decline in female participation for the G20 economies as a whole from around 56% in 2012 to 55% in 2025.

Figure 3. Labour force participation rate for women aged 15–64, 2015 and 2025
Percentages



Note: The **baseline projections** for 2025 are obtained by assuming that labour force entry and exit rates by 5-year age group and gender are fixed at their average level observed during 2005-2015. The **target projections** are obtained by assuming that the G20 target of reducing the gender gap in participation is achieved and calculating what this implies for the participation rate of women in 2025 given the projected rate for men.

Source: OECD Population and Labour Force Projections Database.

The “target” scenario shows by how much participation rates for women will have to increase to achieve the G20 target (given the projected change in the participation rates for men). For many of the advanced economies, achieving this target would result in only a small further rise in participation rates for women relative to the baseline scenario. France, Germany, Italy, Japan and Spain are likely to meet or exceed the target even in the baseline scenario. However, for India, China and Saudi Arabia, reaching the target would imply a sizeable increase in the participation rate of women relative to the baseline scenario. However, for China, female participation rates would need to rise by a small amount relative to their historical levels rather than declining as projected under the baseline scenario. For India and Saudi Arabia, female participation rates would have to rise considerably between 2015 and 2025 to meet the target. But even these increases would still leave these two countries with female participation rates well below the G20 average.

These projections can also be used to obtain the total increase in the female labour force (and by the same amount for the total labour force) that would occur if the gender target was achieved. Across G20, there would be 130 million more women participating in the labour force in 2025 than under the baseline scenario (Figure 4A). This amounts to a 5.7% increase in the total G20 labour force relative to the projected level under the baseline scenario. For India, the total labour force would be around 12% larger as a result of 65 million more women in the labour force (Figure 4B).

Figure 4A. Labour force projections for G20
Millions

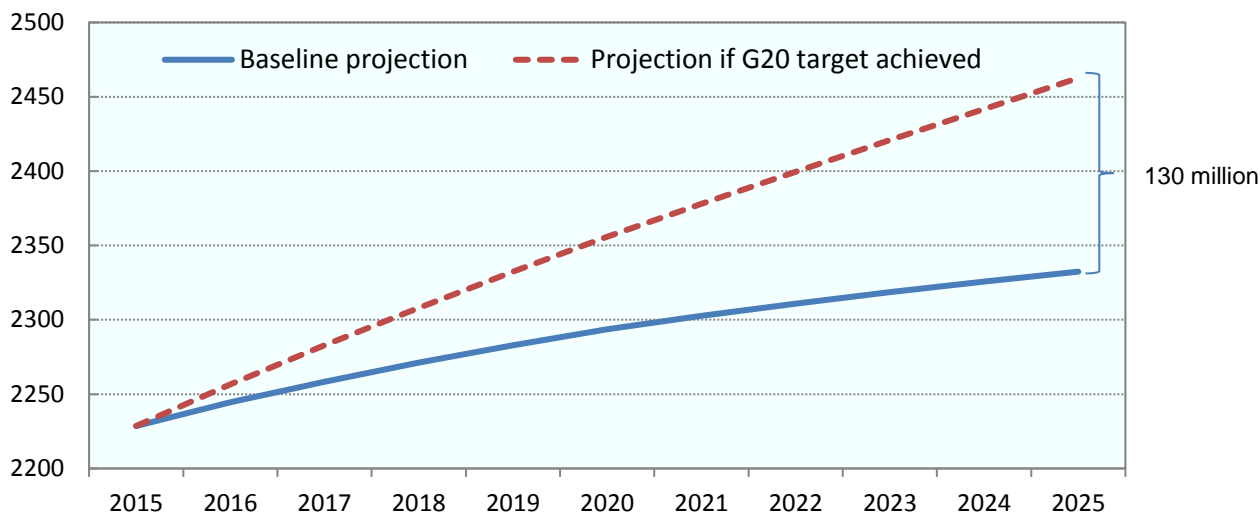
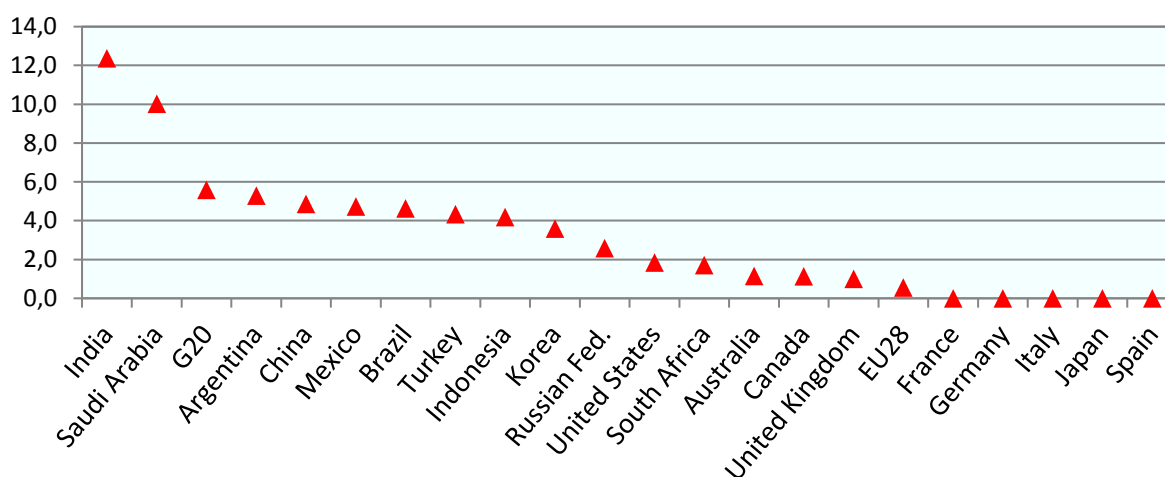


Figure 4B. Projected increase in the total labour force in 2025 if G20 gender target achieved (%)



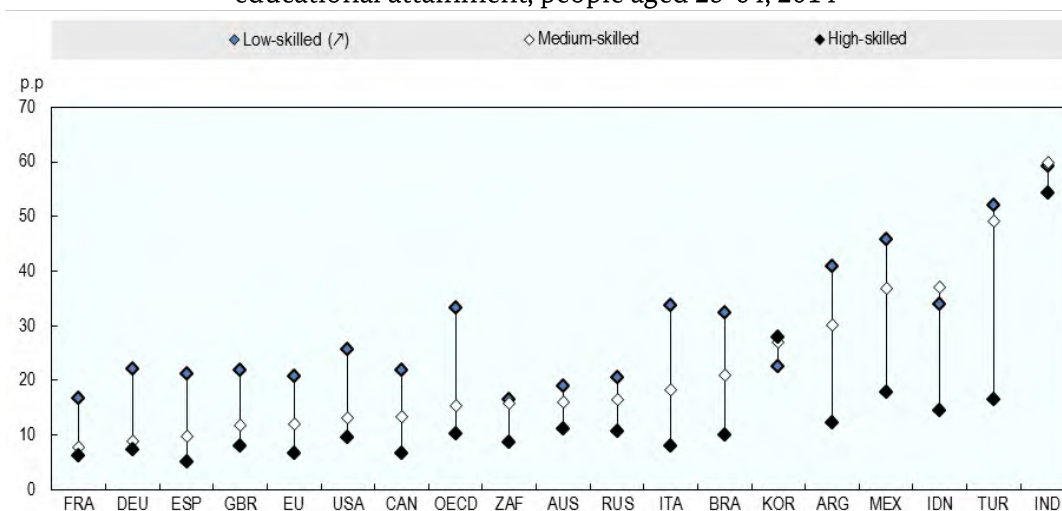
Note: The **baseline projections** for 2025 are obtained by assuming that labour force entry and exit rates by 5-year age group and gender are fixed at their average level observed during 2005-2015. The **target projections** are obtained by assuming that the G20 target of reducing the gender gap in participation is achieved and calculating what this implies for the participation rate of women in 2025 given the projected rate for men.

Source: OECD Population and Labour Force Projections Database.

Age and skills also matter for women's access to the labour market

Behind these overall gender gaps there are also considerable differences within countries in participation rates between men and women according to various characteristics such as their age and level of skills. Participation gaps are smaller among the high-skilled (Figure 5) and wider among the low skilled, and are lowest amongst youth and grow among older workers (OECD 2016a). Gaps start to widen around the start of parenthood, reflecting a motherhood penalty for women in the labour force.

Figure 5. Gender gaps in labour participation are larger among lower skilled
Percentage-point difference in labour force participation rates between men and women by level of educational attainment, people aged 25-64, 2014*



Note: Low skilled refers to below upper secondary education; Medium-skilled refers to upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education; and, High-skilled refers to tertiary education.

* 2010 for China; OECD is the unweighted average of 34 OECD countries; for Argentina, selected urban areas

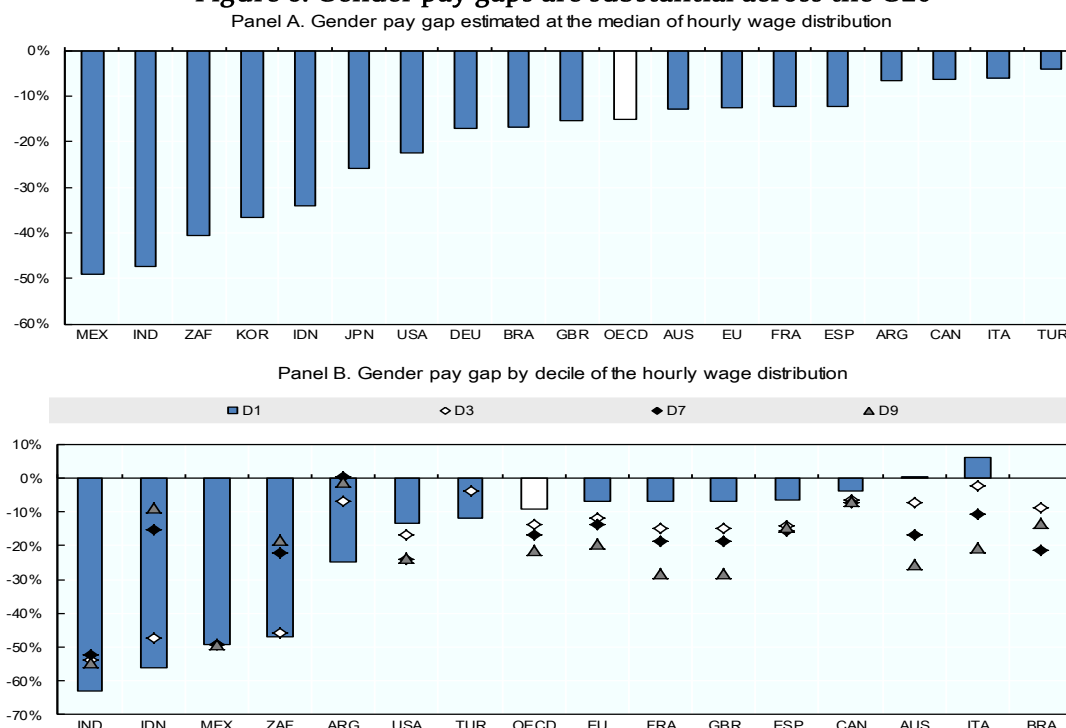
Source: OECD Education Database; Census data for China; and OECD estimates based on the EPH for Argentina, the NSS for India, the SAKERNAS for Indonesia, the QLFS for South Africa

The rates of youth not in education, employment or training (NEET) are lower among female teenagers than among their male counterparts (OECD 2015a). However, female NEET rates are also relatively high in countries such as India, Indonesia, Brazil, South Africa and Mexico. This coincides with relatively high adolescent fertility rates (40 or more births per 1000 women age 15-19) (OECD 2017a). The higher female NEET rates essentially reflect inactivity due to childcare responsibilities.

The quality of earnings: gender gaps in earnings

The persistent gender pay gap points to deep-rooted differences in the quality of earnings of men and women. The gender pay gap in terms of gross hourly wages, estimated at the median of the distribution, is highest in emerging economies. India, Mexico and South Africa have pay gaps above 40 per cent, which is twice as large as in most advanced G20 countries. However, at over 30 per cent at the median, gender pay gaps are substantial in Korea and Japan (Figure 6, panel A). Comparatively narrow wage gaps in Turkey are due to the small share of women in wage employment who are often more educated than their male peers.

Figure 6. Gender pay gaps are substantial across the G20



Note: Data refer to 2014 for all countries except for India (2012), Turkey (2013) and South Africa (2012). They refer to hourly wage for full-time employees (working more than 30 hour per week in the main job), except for India and South Africa for which they refer to monthly earnings of full-time employees.

Source: OECD estimates based on EU-SILC for EU countries, *Encuesta Permanente de Hogares* for Argentina, Household, Income and Labour Dynamics for Australia, Labour force Survey for Canada, *Pesquisa Nacional por Amostragem de Domicílio* for Brazil, National labour force survey for Korea, Labour Force Survey for Japan, National Sample Survey for India, National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas) for Indonesia, *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) for Mexico, General Household Survey for South Africa, National Labour Force Survey for Turkey and the Current Population Survey, ASEC Supplement for the United States.

In many G20 countries, the gender pay gap is largest at the top end of the earnings distribution (Figure 6, panel B; ILO 2016d). By contrast, in India, and Mexico the large pay gaps vary little across the earnings distribution, while in Indonesia, South Africa and Argentina pay gaps become smaller along the earnings distribution.

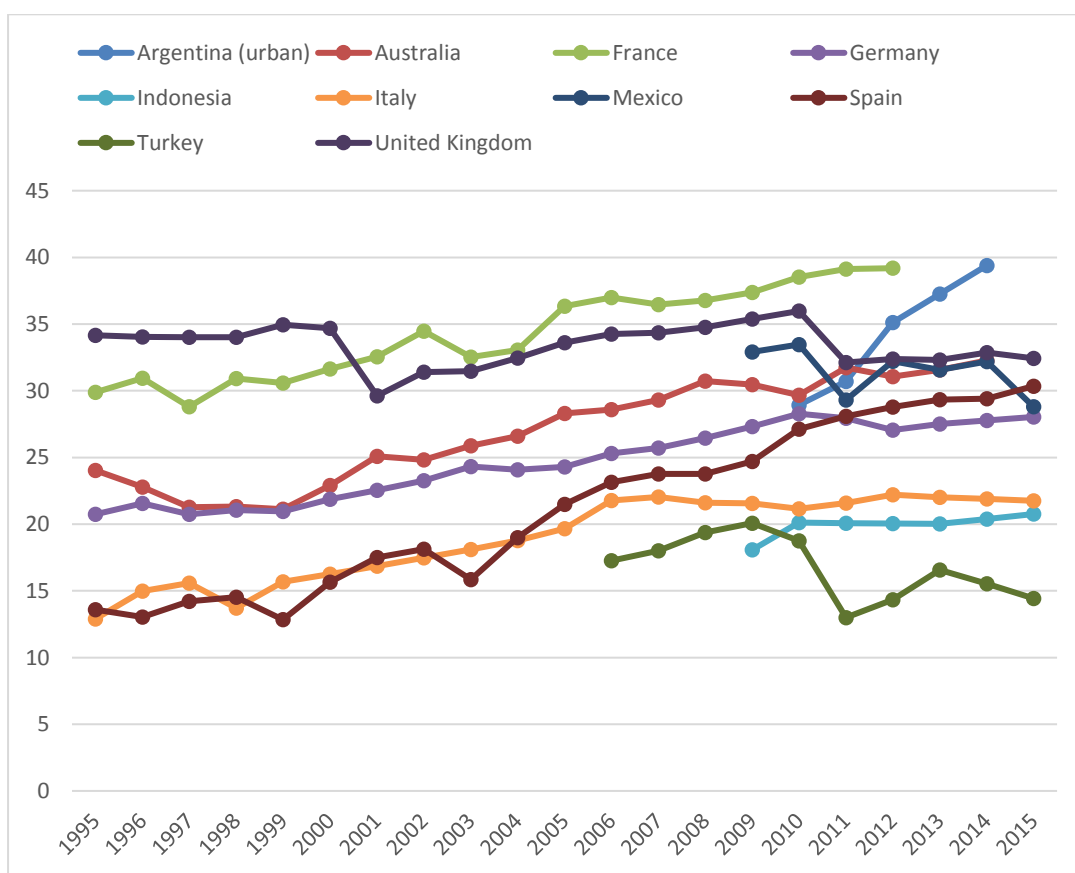
The proportion of women in middle and senior management positions is small across G20 countries, although variations are important by country, ranging between 12 per cent in Turkey and slightly above 30 per cent in the UK and Argentina. Between 2012 and 2015 the percentage of women in such positions has stalled, while in Mexico and Turkey it has declined (figure 7). The larger the company or organization, the less likely the head will be a woman – 5 per cent or less of the CEOs of the world’s largest (ILO 2015a). Social norms and gender stereotypes, which create a glass ceiling for women, coupled with women’s shorter working hours are among the reasons for the under-representation of women in leadership positions (Christiansen et al 2016). Women’s less diverse management experience is also an obstacle (ILO 2015a).

Women are also concentrated in a smaller range of occupations and sectors that are typically less well-paid on average than those in which men predominate. One means to increase gender diversity in non-traditional occupations or sectors is by diversifying women’s educational subject-matter choices.

While women’s educational attainments have considerably improved in the past decade, the share of women graduates in STEM remains small across all G20 countries (figure 8).

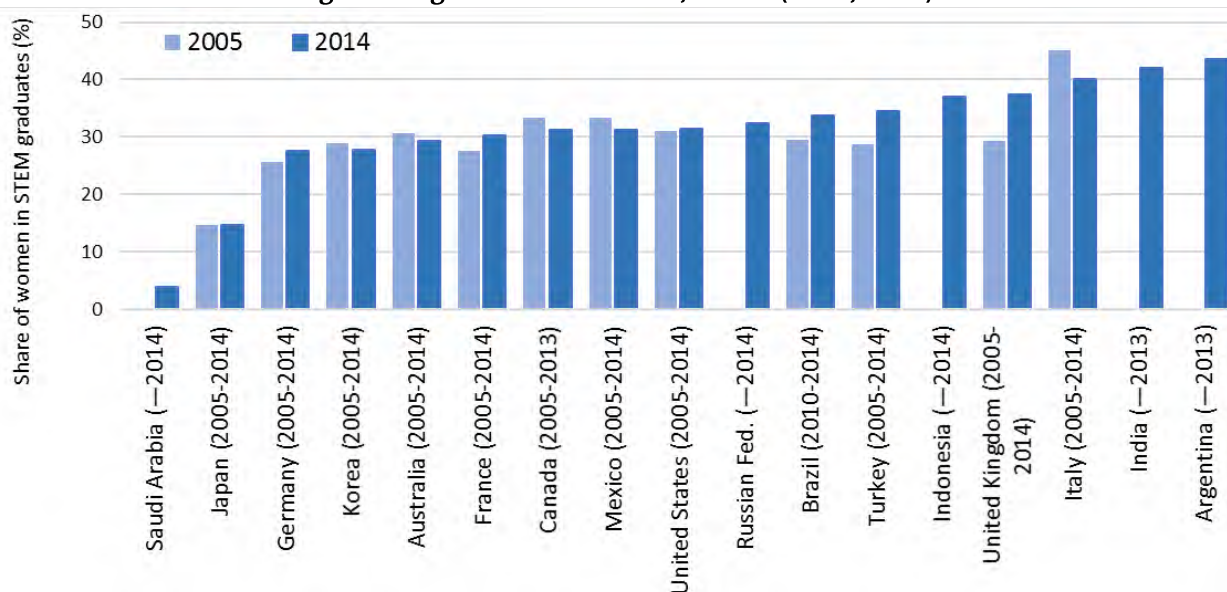
Access to management positions is no guarantee, however, of a reduced gender pay gap. In Europe, among men and women CEOs who are among the best-paid one per cent of wage earners, the gender pay gap is above 50 per cent (ILO 2016a).

Figure 7. Female share of employment in senior and middle management positions in selected G20 countries (1995-2015)



Source: ILOSTAT

Figure 8. Share of women as part of graduates of tertiary education in Science, technology, engineering and mathematics, STEM (2005, 2014)



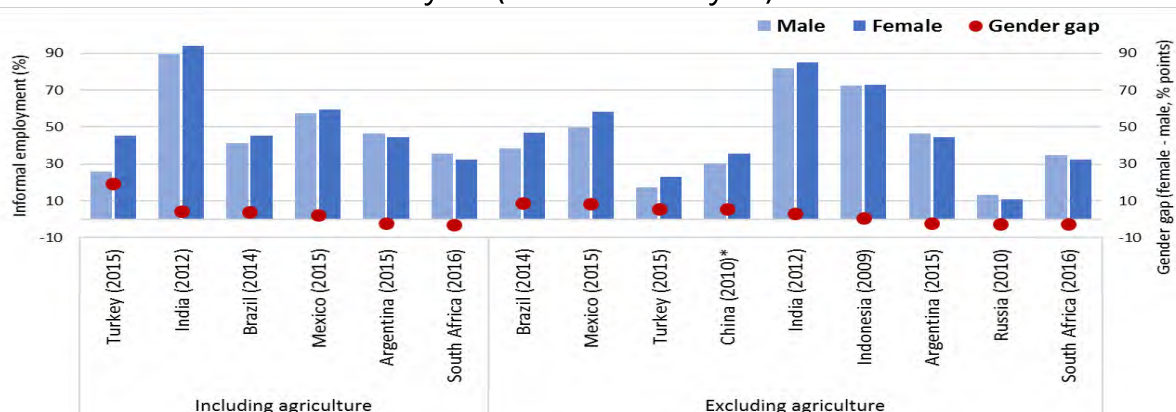
Note: STEM includes both science, mathematics & computing and engineering, manufacturing & construction. Tertiary education refers to short-cycle tertiary education (ISCED2011 level 5); bachelor's or equivalent level (ISCED2011 level 6); master's or equivalent level (ISCED2011 level 7) and doctoral or equivalent level (ISCED2011 level 8). For Argentina, Canada and India, 2013 instead of 2014.

Source: OECD Education database.

Labour market security: Informality, low pay, and non-standard forms of employment

Informal employment is common in many emerging G20 countries. In Brazil, India, Mexico, South Africa and Turkey women participate at a higher rate in informal employment than men (and this has implications not only for the level and stability of earnings, but also for labour market security and the quality of working conditions (figure 9).

Figure 9. Informal employment as a percentage of total employment in selected G20 countries by sex (latest available year)



Source: ILO based on national household and labour force survey data

Note: Informal employment includes informal employment in the informal sector, in households or in the formal sector, following the statistical definition of informal employment adopted by the 17th ICLS (November 2003). * Data for China covers 6 cities.

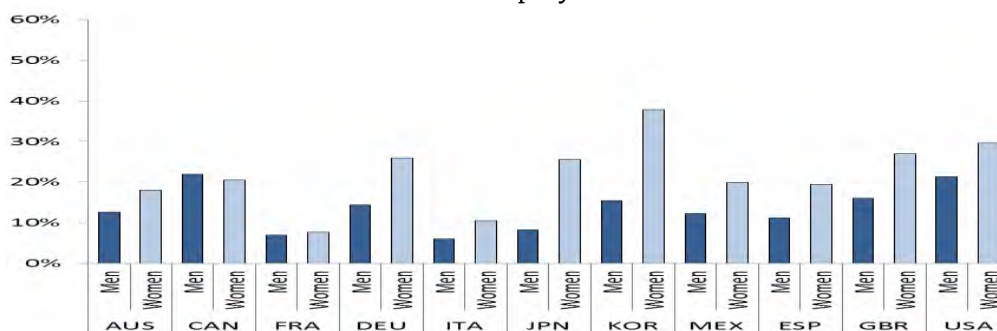
At the same time the incidence of “low pay”, defined as less than two-thirds of gross median earnings, is higher among women than among men: in the advanced G20 countries, the proportion of women earning less than two-thirds of the gross median wage is on average 8 percentage points higher than that of men (figure 10, panel A). The incidence of low pay for women is particularly high in Japan, Korea and the United States. This explains why the gender pay gap remains substantial, despite signs of moderate reduction, and has stalled in the advanced G20 countries (ILO 2016b).

A more appropriate measure of low pay in emerging economies may be “very low pay” as measured by the USD2 PPP per day threshold (figure 10). In India, Indonesia and Mexico, half of all working women are at risk of earning less than USD2 per day, while the incidence of very low pay is limited in Argentina, Brazil, the Russian Federation, South Africa and Turkey, where gender gaps are relatively small in comparison (figure 10, panel B).

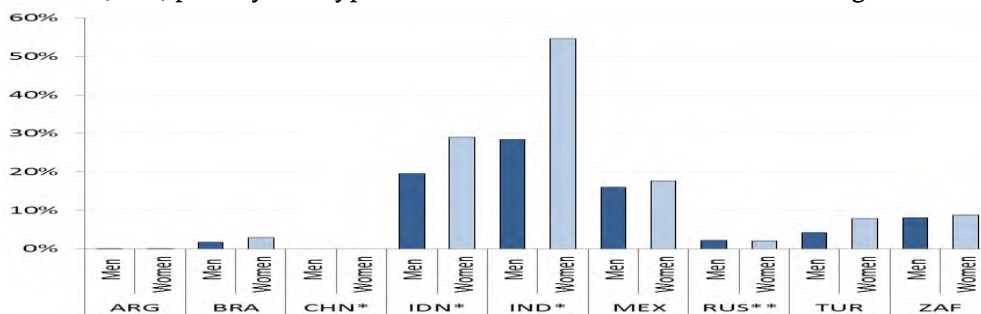
Motherhood is an important driver of the wage penalty for women. Working mothers with two children often earn less on average than working women without children and even less than working fathers. By contrast, working fathers, earn on average more than their male peers without children. A commonly observed pattern is that men increase their working hours when children arrive, while women may reduce theirs, which may explain at least part of this gap. (ILO 2016b). However, in countries that managed to reduce the motherhood wage penalty through family-friendly policies, the father premium has become the main driver of the wage gap between working fathers and working mothers.

Figure 10. Women are at higher risk of low pay

Panel A - The incidence of low pay as defined as less than two-thirds of gross median earnings for full time employees



Panel B: The incidence of extreme low pay which corresponds to disposable income per capita of USD2 (PPP) per day in a typical household of 5 members with a single earner.

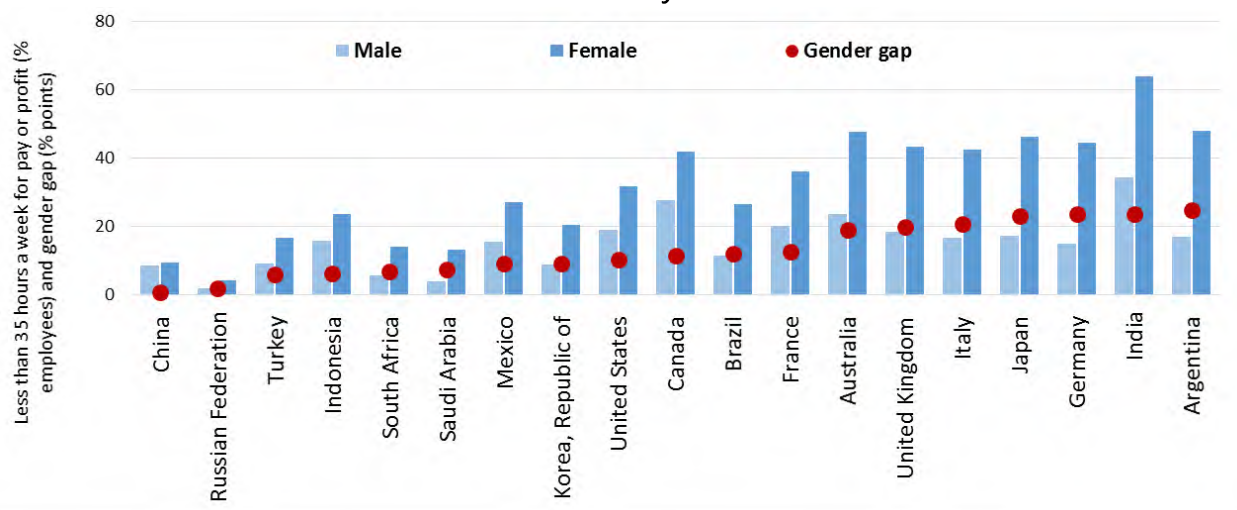


Note: For detail on calculation methods regarding extreme low pay, see OECD 2015. Calculations are based on 2012-2013 data, except for India (2011-2012), Mexico (2010-2012), Russian Federation (2012), South Africa (2010-2012) and Turkey (2011-2012). Source: See Figure 5.

Women are also more likely to work in non-standard forms of employment (NSFE) than men. In 2014, in all G20 countries, the share of women in part-time employment was higher than that of male employees (figure 11). The highest incidence of part-time employment among women occurred in India, and it was almost three times higher than among men in Argentina, Germany, and Saudi Arabia. Women are also often over-represented in temporary jobs (ILO 2016c). Various factors explain the higher presence of women in NSFE: their greater care giving responsibilities, their higher presence in occupations that typically recruit on an on-call basis, the structure of the economy and women's lower bargaining power because of their lower unionization rate and lower coverage by collective agreements.

Part-time and temporary work can be an important means for women to integrate into the labour force. However, especially when involuntary, these forms of work may be associated with lower hourly wages than full-time work, lower social security benefits and fewer training opportunities, which jeopardizes women's chances to obtain better-quality jobs.

Figure 11. Proportion of employees working less than 35 hours weekly by sex (%), 2015 or latest available year



Source: ILOSTAT and ILO calculations based on national household and labour force surveys for Brazil (Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios 2014); India (India Human Development Survey 2012) and China (China Household Income Project Survey 2007). Notes: 2015 data with exceptions: 2014 in Argentina, Australia and Brazil; 2013 in the United States; 2012 in India and 2007 in China.

Many women in emerging economies are self-employed business owners, but, especially in the advanced G20 countries, far fewer women than men run their own businesses. Furthermore, female-owned businesses are often smaller and grow less rapidly than those owned by men (OECD 2012) and women-owned firms are more likely to close during the initial years after start-up. Especially in developing countries, limited access to financial capital, management advice and business training remain significant constraints to female entrepreneurship (ILO 2015).

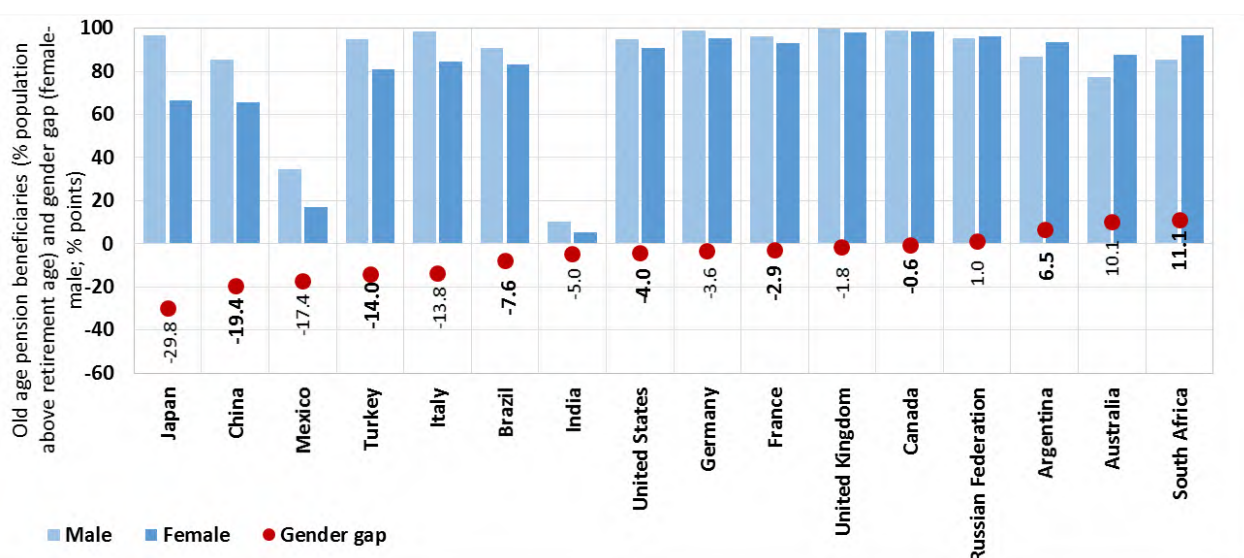
Gender gaps in social protection

Low pay and informal employment are associated with limited, if any, access to employment-related social protection schemes, in particular unemployment, maternity and old-age benefits. Exclusion of women from these schemes increases the risk of child poverty and female old-age poverty. Maternity protection, the first and most important policy measure for women's labour market attachment, is still inadequate in a number of G20 countries. Even in countries where maternity protection is more aligned with Convention No. 183, coverage of all working women remains a stubborn challenge (Annex 2). In a number of G20 countries ineffective maternity protection, combined with inadequate work family supportive policy measures, including childcare support, is a factor in the decline of fertility rates below replacement levels (ILO 2014).

Lower labour force participation rates and lower affiliation rates to employment-related social protection schemes for women are seldom compensated by the development of non-contributory pension schemes. In 12 out of the 16 G20 countries for which data are available, the proportion of older women receiving an old-age pension (whether contributory or not) is significantly lower compared to men. The only exceptions (Argentina, Australia, Russian Federation and South Africa) are countries that have established large non-contributory schemes (12). Several other countries are introducing basic budget financed social pensions, which is a positive step. Another noteworthy measure to improve women's capacity to accrue adequate pensions is pension credit for child or elderly care, or high survivor benefits as introduced in Japan. (Clements et al, 2014)

Domestic work, a female-dominated occupation in both advanced and developing economies, is a case in point. There are an estimated 67 million domestic workers worldwide, 80 per cent of whom are women (ILO 2015b). They typically earn low wages, sometimes just 20 per cent of average wages (ILO 2013), and 90 per cent are estimated to lack access to social protection. In recent years, however, important efforts have been made to improve their working and living conditions (ILO 2016d).

Figure 12. Old age pensioners as a proportion of population above retirement age (percentage, latest available year)



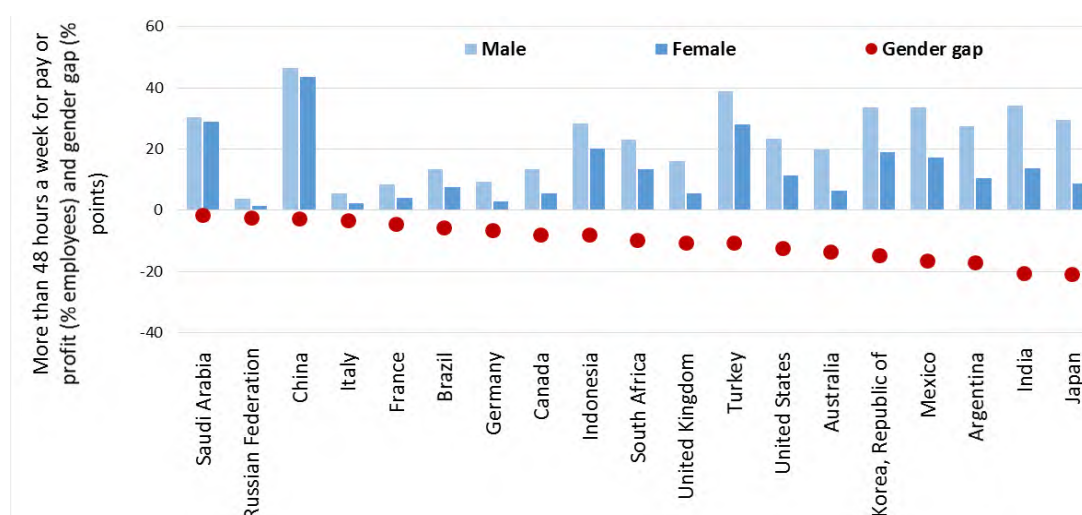
Source: ILO based on national household survey data

Working conditions: Gender gaps in working hours in paid and unpaid work

Gender gaps in working hours in paid and unpaid work indicate that rights and responsibilities to work and care are still not shared equitably between men and women. There are a wide range of contributing factors, particularly the absence of family friendly work place policies and deficits in framework conditions such as a lack of quality childcare or tax disincentives for second earners (OECD, 2017b).

In all G20 countries men are more likely than women to work very long hours (for pay or for profit), defined as 48 hours or more per week (ILO et al, 2016; see also figure 13). The same trends are observed when 60 hours or more per week is taken as the yardstick, as in the G20 job quality framework (OECD 2015b). However, in countries such as Korea, Mexico and South Africa, the proportion of women also working very long hours in paid work is relatively high, although consistently lower than men's. Men's longer hours in paid work are due to the type of occupations and sectors in which they work and the unequal division of family responsibilities with women.

Figure 13. Men are more likely than women to work very long hours for pay or profit
Percentage of employees working more than 48 a week for pay or profit, and gender gap, latest available year*

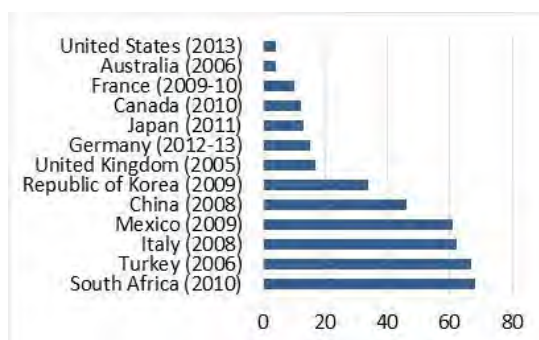


Notes: 2015 data with exceptions; 2014 in Argentina, Australia and Brazil; 2013 in the United States; 2012 in India and 2007 in China.

Sources: ILOSTAT and ILO calculations based on national household and labour force surveys for Brazil (Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios 2014); India (India Human Development Survey 2012) and China (China Household Income Project Survey 2007).

In fact, when paid and unpaid care work are considered together, women work longer hours than men in both advanced and emerging G20 countries (figure 14). The imbalance in the sharing of unpaid work reduces women's availability for paid work other than part time (see above) or for training, and limits women's chances of obtaining better paying jobs. In some instances, the absence of family-friendly workplace policies may also compel women to opt for informal employment because of the greater flexibility it affords with regard to work-family reconciliation (ILO 2016b).

Figure 14: Difference between women and men in the total number of minutes per week spent on paid and unpaid work (minute per week)



Source: ILO based on United Nations, 2015. *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics*

3. Policy action

The following section of this paper focuses on the analysis of the measures adopted by G20 countries to enhance the participation and quality of women's employment, based on a review of the National Employment Plans.

Increasing women's labour participation rate

A number of policy measures have been introduced in a number of G20 countries to raise women's participation in the labour force. Some countries (e.g. Japan and Turkey) have set numerical targets regarding increases in female labour force participation rates (e.g. Turkey) or in the proportion of mothers returning to work after their first child (e.g. Japan). Part-time arrangements have been introduced (e.g. Korea) or are allowed under certain conditions (e.g. Turkey), and job-sharing for women workers is being encouraged (e.g. Saudi Arabia). Part-time employment can be an important means for women to integrate into the labour force. However, especially when involuntary or of poor quality, part-time work can be associated with lower hourly wages than full-timers, lower social security benefits and fewer training opportunities, which jeopardizes women's chances to obtain better quality jobs.

Some other countries have tried to make it easier for women to enter the labour force by bringing work home or nearby, through the creation of telework centres (e.g. Saudi Arabia) or by allowing telework arrangements at home (e.g. Italy). Unemployed women have also been the target of a series of initiatives such as the creation of cooperatives for unemployed female heads of households (e.g. Argentina); through the supply of entrepreneurship development services for unemployed women (e.g. France); the provision of subsidies to employers to encourage recruitment of long-term unemployed parents (e.g. Australia) or tax deductions for employers (e.g. China). Subsidies and tax deductions can certainly help improve women's recruitment, but need to be managed carefully but need to be managed carefully to avoid a sharp decline in further recruitment of women workers once government subsidies expire. The elimination of discrimination against women in recruitment has also been the subject of recently adopted legislation (e.g. China).

Improving the quality of women's earnings

The review of the NEP reveals that G20 countries have relied on a variety of measures to improve the quality of women's earnings, such as tackling women's occupational segregation, including their under-representation in management positions; encouraging their enrolment in STEM; or promoting fair wage policies - as reflected in the *G20 Sustainable Wage Policies*.

Efforts are underway in a number of G20 countries to encourage women to enter into a larger range of occupations and careers through, for example, introduction of plans of action for promoting gender diversity both in traditionally dominated male sectors and in sectors with a strong predominance of women (France); by delivering training-cum-childcare services in non-traditional occupations (Brazil); by supplying information to women job seekers and service providers on non-traditional occupations; or by financing the recruitment of women in registered apprenticeships in non-traditional occupations (e.g. United States).

A number of countries have sought to facilitate women's access to management positions, including in the corporate world, by setting targets regarding the gender composition of boards of big companies (United Kingdom) or by introducing women's quotas at the management and executive levels in public (e.g. Australia, Germany, Korea) and private organizations (e.g. Germany), or by obligating public organizations and large companies to publish assessment and action plans regarding women's participation and representation in the work force (Japan).

Boosting female entrepreneurship has also featured prominently on the policy agendas of ten of the G20 countries. National policy measures include facilitating networking amongst small businesses (United States) and through role model volunteers and advocates at schools and universities (Germany); providing opportunities for training and skills development, support services and/or access to micro-credit (Brazil, China, France, Germany, Korea, Russian Federation, Turkey, United Kingdom); and creating a favourable environment for women's entrepreneurship (Germany, Russian Federation). Additional measures include facilitating and promoting the creation of cooperatives for women (Brazil, South Africa).

Enhancing women's education in terms of both attainment levels and subject choice is also key to reducing occupational segregation and improving women's earnings, and requires specific policy action (OECD 2013). Pathways to STEM jobs for women have been built by exposing women and girls and under-represented groups to science and technology, (e.g. Brazil) or by inspiring and preparing more girls and boys, especially from under-represented groups, to excel in STEM through fairs and financial and in-kind support for STEM programmes (e.g. United States).

Wage policies, both minimum wages and wage bargaining, also play a major role in curbing the gender pay gap. Minimum wages, in particular, can help narrow the gender pay gap at the bottom of the wage distribution, while enhancing income security for both genders (see "Increasing labour market security" below). Wage increases in the public education and health sectors, in which women tend to predominate, can also help narrow the gender pay gap (e.g. planned wage increases in Russian Federation in 2017 and 2018, depending on fiscal possibilities). Uncovering and addressing gender biases in remuneration systems, and tackling the undervaluation of "female jobs", is another important part of the equation (Oelz et al. 2013). Several G20 countries are either planning to adopt equal remuneration laws (e.g. Canada at federal level) or have placed the fight against discrimination in remuneration at the centre of strategic law enforcement (United States). Yet other countries have adopted legislation requiring companies of particular sizes to report, on a regular basis, on pay differentials between their male and female employees (United Kingdom), disclose pay-related

information, conduct pay audits, explain whether pay disparities are justified and, if not, take measures to narrow them (e.g. Germany).

Increasing labour market security

A number of countries have highlighted challenges relating to labour market duality between employees with open-ended contracts and those on temporary contracts (e.g. Argentina, China and Korea), and the prevalence of informal employment (e.g. Brazil, Mexico, South Africa and the Russian Federation). These countries have developed or are developing national plans and strategies to facilitate transitions of economic units and workers to the formal economy. While the type of measures adopted and their combination may vary depending on national circumstances, all share in common reliance on multiple policy measures. A common feature is the formalization of micro or small businesses through a combination of tax reduction, simplified registration procedures or subsidized interest rates; or micro-credit services targeting small-sized enterprises owned or managed by women (e.g. Turkey).

Improvements to the labour rights and working conditions of largely unprotected and female dominated categories of workers, such as domestic workers or rural workers, have been introduced in some G20 countries (Argentina, Brazil and South Africa) or are under consideration in others (e.g. Turkey). The gradual extension of the coverage of social protection schemes to those working informally, including the self-employed, is being pursued in a number of countries (e.g. India and China). Subsidies or tax deduction to the payment of employers' social security contributions are used to encourage employers to register their employees with the social security (e.g. Argentina, Mexico, Turkey). Unemployment benefits extended to all workers formally affiliated to social security have been introduced to prevent unemployed workers from looking for informal employment (Mexico).

Intensified labour inspections in sectors with a higher incidence of informal employment are reported in a number of countries (e.g. Argentina, Brazil, Mexico), while legislation on temporary agency employment has been passed to counter a rise of illicit intermediaries and false subcontractors acting as informal employment agencies (e.g. Turkey).

Measures have also been adopted to enhance part-time workers' income security by reducing the incidence of part-time employment on the pension level (e.g. France, Turkey) or by extending social security coverage to part-time workers working for multiple employers for a given number of hours per month (Korea).

Setting a floor to the wage structure at an adequate level is also key to counter income insecurity of those who are at the bottom of the wage distribution. Minimum wages can be particularly beneficial to women as they are over-represented among the low and very low-paid. A number of G20 countries have increased their minimum wages in real terms in the past years (e.g. Argentina, China, United Kingdom). The introduction of the national living wage rate in the United Kingdom in April 2016, which applies to all eligible workers of 25 years and above, covered 8.5 per cent of women against 4.8 per cent of men (United Kingdom 2016). Also the rise in real minimum wages for low-paying female-dominated occupations, such as domestic work (e.g. Argentina and South Africa), or the extension of minimum wage coverage to these workers (e.g. 13 States in India) can help reduce the gender pay gap in the lower half of the wage distribution (ILO 2015d).

Achieving better working conditions

Making it easier for working parents to reconcile work with family responsibilities is a particularly dynamic policy area in many G20 countries, with measures ranging from child benefits to parental leave or childcare facilities and services.

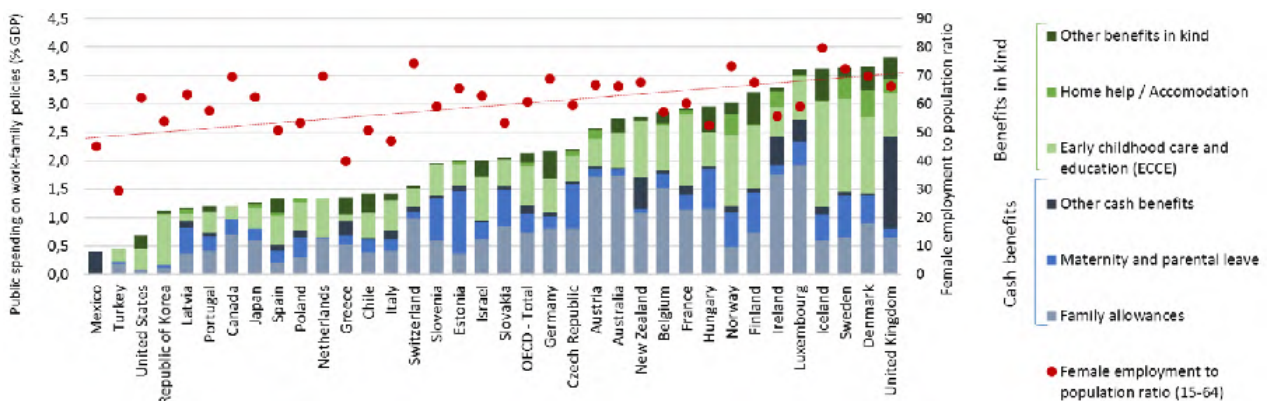
Establishing or upgrading the availability, quality and affordability of care infrastructure for children features as an important concern in many of the NEPs reviewed (e.g. France, Japan, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia or Turkey). Childcare entitlements, including tax-free childcare, (United Kingdom); childcare subsidies targeted at low/middle income families and childcare safety nets in disadvantaged communities (Australia); or childcare allowances for the unemployed or informal workers (Argentina) are also part of family-policy packages.

Prizes have been introduced to reward enterprises that promote work-family reconciliation (Mexico) and collective agreements have been negotiated that include provisions relating to work-family measures (Argentina, Brazil, France, Italy, Russian Federation).

Increasing men's share of unpaid work and reducing their current longer hours in paid work is an issue that is acquiring growing importance. Campaigns to boost men's motivation in childcare participation have been launched (e.g. Japan); specific periods of leave have been reserved for both partners (e.g. France) – whether self-employed or in standard or non-standard employment (e.g. Australia); and shared parental leave has been provided whereby, in the case of the birth or adoption of a child, leave, if unused, can be shared with the partner (e.g. United Kingdom). Measures to grant eligible parents greater flexibility to adjust career breaks to attend to family needs have been also introduced on a mandatory (Germany) or voluntary basis (UK). However, fathers' use of individual entitlements to paid leave around childbirth is limited when replacement rates are low and/or fathers fear the consequences for their careers (MOEL, 2016).

While individual family policies, from parental leave to child care services and subsidies, have an effect on their own, it is their combination that drives female employment rates up. For instance, childcare combined with parental leave and flexible working time arrangements is associated with higher female full-time employment rates, while receipt of child allowances/family benefits is not (see figure 15). An adequate combination of family policies requires a strong State commitment, and openness and cooperation from employers (Eurofound 2016).

Figure 15: Tax deductions for families with children; maternity leave included in pension rights



Source: OECD Gender and Family database.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

- Gender gaps in labour force participation have declined over the past 20 years, although at too slow a pace and the quality of women’s employment remains a serious concern. A failure to improve the quality of women’s employment will slow down progress in achieving the Brisbane 25 by 25 target. Hence, there is an urgent need to monitor developments regarding gender gaps in respect of work quality.
- All G20 countries, for which relevant information is available in the NEPs, have carried out policy actions that fall under each and every of the three main dimensions of work quality, namely “quality of earnings”, “labour market (in)security” and “working conditions”. Evidence suggests that improving women’s status in the labour market requires a holistic approach and action on all three dimensions. A good understanding of how policies on one particular dimension may have effects on the other two dimensions, and vice-versa, is key for better-informed and more effective policy-making.
- What varies across G20 countries is the number and type of policy initiatives undertaken under each of these three dimensions, which, in turn, reflects differences in economic and labour market structures, cultural and regulatory frameworks as well as policy priorities. Overall, however, “working conditions” reported the largest number of measures, followed by “quality of earnings” and “labour market insecurity”. Investments (actual or planned) in childcare services and facilities, combined with more flexible work arrangements, scored prominently on the public agendas of many G20 countries, while “wage policies and measures aimed at eliminating discrimination in remuneration” and “improving income security through extension of social security benefits”, were the least common, although of particular relevance to low-paid working women or women in the informal economy. Efforts have been made in several G20 countries to diversify girls’ fields of study, while, in others, attention has been paid to re-skilling women to facilitate their return to work after childbirth or long-term unemployment. Yet a more systematic ‘life-course’ approach towards women’s employment is still missing.
- Consensus emerging from the good practice exchange during the EWG meeting in December 2016 pointed to the key role and responsibilities of government, enterprises and the social partners, individually and through social dialogue, in advancing gender equality and in closing gender gaps in participation and employment outcomes.

- Across the three dimensions of work quality, various types of measures were reported as highly relevant: Equal pay for equal work legislation and its enforcement including through collective bargaining, quotas for management positions and disclosure requirements as well as reporting on wage structures in the public and private sector, address occupational and sectoral segregation including by raising the share of women in STEM, reduce informal employment, promote flexible working arrangements, incentivize fathers to take parental leave, provide quality child care and elderly care and eliminate work disincentives for second earners.
- It was also considered highly relevant to implement awareness-raising initiatives, aimed at challenging gender stereotypes and well-entrenched social norms.
- To maximize results of policy interventions, it is important to understand what obstacles women, and different types of women depending on their education and age, face and why, and which combinations of policy initiatives are most effective in different country situations.
- An easy-to-fill and agile template specifying the type of information required for each of the three dimensions of the G20 job quality framework, and the corresponding Melbourne Policy priorities, would ensure some consistency across countries in terms of reporting; permit to identify the policy areas warranting further attention and facilitate the monitoring of progress towards the achievement of the 25 by 25 target.

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Annex 1: G20 LEMM Declaration, 2014, Annex D concerning “Policy priorities for boosting female participation, quality of employment and gender equity”

[...]

G20 members agreed to implement measures across a range of key policy areas, including to:

1. Support lifelong access to education and training, matched with the needs of business and communities
2. Provide access to affordable and quality child care, paid parental leave, family-friendly work opportunities and conditions, and support for elderly care
3. Support women to pursue self-employment and become entrepreneurs, including through equal property rights, improved financial literacy, access to financial markets and advisory services
4. Widen access to services for women (in the formal or informal economies) in order to support their employment prospects and mobility, including tailored employment services, active labour market programmes and skills development opportunities
5. Address legal, regulatory, cultural and behavioural barriers to employment opportunities for women
6. Promote non-discriminatory practices at the workplace, including on pay and career progression
7. Extend social protections, especially to those in poor households or those working in the informal economy, including in regard to work safety, health services, pensions and income security
8. Improve work incentives, income support, other transfer payments and related forms of social security
9. Enhance the female share of executive positions in the public and private sectors
10. Work with social partners to develop new employment opportunities for women
11. Collect and report timely data related to gender.

These priorities were informed by ILO Conventions and Recommendations on equality of opportunity and treatment and the OECD Gender Recommendation.

Annex 2: Length of maternity leave, level of income replacement, source of funding and estimates of coverage in practice of maternity leave cash benefits, G20 countries, 2016

| | Length (in weeks) | Level of income replacement | Source of funding | Coverage in practice maternity leave cash benefits |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| Argentina | 13 | 100% | Social security (social insurance) | 10–32% |
| Australia | 52 (parental leave) | 18 weeks at the federal minimum wage level | Social security (public funds – federal government) | 66–89% |
| Brazil | 17 | 100% | Social security (social insurance) | 33–65% |
| Canada | 17 (federal) | 55% for 15 weeks up to a ceiling | Social security (social insurance) | 66–89% |
| China | 14 | 100% | Social security (social insurance) | 10–32% |
| France | 16 | 100% up to a ceiling | Social security (social insurance) | 66–89% |
| Germany | 14 | 100% | Mixed (social insurance for a flat rate benefit and employer liability) | 66–89% |
| India | 26 | 100% | Social security (social insurance)* | 0–9% |
| Indonesia | 13 | 100% | Employer liability | 0–9% |
| Italy | 22 | 80% | Social security (social insurance) | 66–89% |
| Japan | 14 | 66.7% | Social security (social insurance and public funds for 1/8 of the total cost) | 33–65% |
| Mexico | 12 | 100% | Social security (social insurance)* | 10–32% |
| Russian Federation | 20 | 100% up to a ceiling | Social security (social insurance) | 66–89% |
| Saudi Arabia | 10 | 50-100% | Employer liability | *** |
| South Africa | 17 | 60% | Social security (social insurance) | 33–65% |
| Korea, Republic of | 13 | 100% | Mixed (two-thirds employer; one-third social insurance) | 10–32% |
| Turkey | 16 | 66.7% | Social security (social insurance) | 33–65% |
| United Kingdom | 52 | 6 weeks paid at 90%; lower than 90%/flat rate for weeks 7-39; weeks 40-52 unpaid | Mixed (employers reimbursed up to 92% by public funds) | 90–100% |
| United States | 12 | Unpaid | No federal program | 10–32% |

Source: ILO Working Conditions Laws Database - Maternity protection and ILO, 2014, "Maternity and paternity at work: Law and practice across the world" and ILO data updated as of December 2016.

Note: *If a woman is not covered by social insurance but otherwise qualifies for maternity leave, her employer is responsible for the full or partial payment of her maternity leave cash benefits

Annex 3: Projected average annual growth rate in GDP per capita in USD 2005 PPP, percentage, 2013-2025

| | Baseline ¹ | 25-by-2025 scenario: gender gaps in LFPR reduced by a quarter by 2025 ² | | | 50-by-2025 scenario: gender gaps in LFPR halved by 2025 | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Projected average annual growth rate | Projected average annual growth rate | Percentage points change relative to baseline | Cumulative points change relative to baseline in 2025 | Projected average annual growth rate | Percentage points change relative to baseline | Cumulative points change relative to baseline in 2050 |
| Australia | 2.11 | 2.17 | 0.06 | 1.01 | 2.31 | 0.20 | 2.55 |
| Brazil | 1.79 | 2.03 | 0.24 | 3.86 | 2.29 | 0.50 | 6.47 |
| Canada | 1.21 | 1.27 | 0.06 | 0.89 | 1.37 | 0.15 | 1.98 |
| China | 5.26 | 5.51 | 0.26 | 3.32 | 5.65 | 0.39 | 5.03 |
| France | 1.75 | 1.75 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.84 | 0.09 | 1.23 |
| Germany | 1.35 | 1.35 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.46 | 0.11 | 1.48 |
| India | 4.61 | 5.24 | 0.63 | 14.53 | 6.75 | 2.14 | 27.29 |
| Indonesia | 4.63 | 4.85 | 0.22 | 4.99 | 5.30 | 0.67 | 11.68 |
| Italy | 1.15 | 1.15 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.34 | 0.20 | 2.55 |
| Japan | 1.30 | 1.30 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.59 | 0.30 | 3.87 |
| Korea | 2.82 | 3.01 | 0.19 | 3.43 | 3.30 | 0.48 | 6.26 |
| Mexico | 1.77 | 2.01 | 0.24 | 3.94 | 2.44 | 0.67 | 8.66 |
| Russian Federation | 3.09 | 3.23 | 0.14 | 2.55 | 3.32 | 0.23 | 4.39 |
| South Africa | 3.91 | 4.01 | 0.09 | 1.87 | 4.17 | 0.26 | 5.30 |
| Spain | 1.10 | 1.10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.10 | 0.00 | 0.04 |
| Turkey | 3.59 | 3.82 | 0.23 | 4.54 | 4.25 | 0.66 | 8.53 |
| United Kingdom | 2.08 | 2.13 | 0.05 | 0.87 | 2.26 | 0.18 | 2.35 |
| United States | 1.88 | 1.98 | 0.10 | 1.56 | 2.13 | 0.25 | 3.26 |

1. Baseline projections of GDP per capita taken from the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database. Estimates of GDP per capita under each of the scenarios are achieved by adjusting projections from the OECD's long-term growth models (as published in the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database) according to changes in the size of the 15-74 year old labour force that follow the assumed changes in labour participation.

2. The "25-by-2025" scenario: male participation rates are projected based on average entry and exit rates for each five-year age group over the period 2005-2015 (2005-2010 for China); female participation rates are projected so that the 2012 gap between male and female participation rates within each five-year age group falls by 25% by 2025.

Source: OECD estimates based on the OECD Population and Demography Database, OECD Employment Database, and the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database.